PLANNING ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN NEPAL

(SUPPLY OF TEACHERS)

A THESIS

by

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ABSTRACT

This study centred around one of the problems of Nepal, a newly emerging nation with committments and efforts to accelerate the tempo of economic and social development. Education to Nepal, in this context, is decidedly a very important factor and, perhaps, a critical one.

One of the problems connected with education in Nepal is the supply of teachers. This thesis was concerned with examining the various aspects connected with the problem of the supply of teachers for the primary schools of Nepal by 1980. To do so the writer had to determine, first of all, the number of children to be enrolled by 1980. In this regard there is no definite agreement on the estimates made by the different educational bodies formed in Nepal from time to time, nor is there any enrollment-schedule extending up to 1980 declared by the government. In principle, it was said that primary education should be made compulsory and free by 1960 or 1985. The writer wanted to base his study on a realistic target and thus, he had to examine the prospects of universal, compulsory and free primary education in Nepal by 1980.

Accordingly, the writer examined the prospects of universal enrollment by 1980 against the over-all background of the country in general, and against the educational efforts of the government and the recommendations of different educational bodies formed in Nepal during the last fifteen

years in particular. It is the belief of the writer that the general background of the country is unfavorable for launching a massive national program and achieving it in a short span of time. Regarding the educational plans and the various recommendations of the educational bodies the writer found a lack of agreement on purpose - the purpose of achieving UCFPE by a certain date. A recent study on the financial aspects of universal education showed that even the least fiscally demanding plan cannot be implemented by 1980. Upraity, who made this study, concluded that the program of UCFPE needed re-definition. On the basis of these things the writer proposed an enrollment of 75 per cent of the children who would be of school-age by 1980.

After deciding on the proportion of children to be enrolled by 1980 the next task of the writer was to estimate the number of children who would be of school-age by that time. In this regard the projections made by different persons and agencies differed. This made the writer estimate the population of the country on the basis of the rate of growth between two censuses. The writer's estimate of the school-age population in terms of the 6-11 age-group came to 16 per cent of the total population, and in terms of the 6-10 age-group it came to 12 per cent. The writer further gave estimates on the size of the school-age population for each of the fourteen educational zones into which the country is divided.

The next task of the writer was to prepare an enroll-

ment schedule for the period 1965-80 in line with the 75 per cent enrollment objective set up for 1980. In terms of the 6-10 age-group he found out that 27.5 per cent of the population was enrolled in schools in 1965 and in terms of the 6-11 age-group it was 20.7 per cent. For the sake of planning an enrollment schedule the writer selected the 6-6-11 age-group as the proper age-group. On the basis of this the writer proposed an enrollment of 32 per cent of the 6-11 age-group by 1970, 50 per cent by 1975, and 75 per cent by 1980. Accordingly, the number of children to be enrolled in the schools would be by 1970, 571,500; by 1975, 995,500; and by 1980, 1,681,500.

The next task for the writer was to estimate the number of teachers needed for taking care of these children. This necessitated a study of the trends in teacher-pupil ratio in the primary schools from 1959 to 1965. This ratio was found to have never gone beyond 1:30 on the average. For economizing in estimates on the needed number of teachers the writer adopted a ratio of 1:35 for the period 1965-80. Also an attrition rate of 32 per cent over a period of five years was taken care of in making the calculations. On the basis of the above two rates (teacher-pupil ratio and rate of attrition) the writer calculated that 19,300 teachers would be required for the period 1965-70, 33,600 teachers for the period 1970-75, and 57,100 teachers for the period 1975-80. Thus, he calculated that the annual rate of production of teachers for the

above periods would be 2,000, 3,500, and 5,700 respectively.

Another problem remained, namely, the proportion of teachers to be trained out of the total number of teachers. Different educational bodies of Nepal have been persistently demanding that training should be made compulsory for all the primary school teachers. Teacher training activities started in Nepal in 1949 and were carried on a wider scale only after 1954. In view of this, the writer proposed that only half of teachers needed by 1980 should be trained.

The remaining part of the thesis was devoted to examining the possibility of producing the above mentioned proportion of trained teachers by 1980. This is dependent on many things: qualification requirement for entry into the training centres, the budget of the training program, the facilities given to the trainees in the training centres, the number of candidates turning up for the training, the placement policy of the government, the working conditions of the teaching profession, and the like.

Regarding the entry qualification two recommendations were made by people other than the writer: one saying that the high school graduates (S.L.C. graduates) should be admitted for the training purpose; the other saying that candidates with qualifications lower than the S.L.C. should be taken. In view of the inadequate number of students passing the S.L.C. Examination each year at the present time the second recommendation was more acceptable to the writer, at least for the period covered in this study: 1965-80.

The training program was found to have achieved 44 to 70 per cent of the target set by the planning authorities of Nepal during 1954-65. The target was raised from 1,000 teachers per year during 1954-62 to 1,600 teachers per year during 1963-65, but was drastically cut down to 785 teachers in 1966. This reflects an inconsistent policy of the government. The low rate of graduation of trained teachers was not due to the fact that there was high attrition during the training period in as much as it was due to the fact that candidates did not turn up at the training centres. On the other hand, the total cost of the training program has been rising, and for want of a corresponding rise in the number of recruits the unit cost of training a teacher has been rising. This rise was caused by many improvement in the training program and in facilities, but it was not matched with increase in the number of graduates.

Examining the education budget during the last fifteen years the writer made certain assumptions with regard to the size of the budget during 1965-80. By 1965 a proportion of .00021 in every Rs.1,000 of the GNP of Nepal for that same year was alloted for the training of primary school teachers. If this same proportion continues during 1965-80 the budget of the training program would most probably increase from Rs.993,000 in 1965 to Rs.1,974,000 in 1980. The GNP must itself increase at the same rate as expected by the planning authorities of Nepal. With Rs.1,974,000 asthe training program budget and with a unit

cost of Rs.1,000 per year (in 1965 the unit cost was a little lower than Rs.1,000) the training centres would most probably be able to train about 2,000 teachers by 1980. This is too small a figure to represent half of the teachers needed by 1980 as set up for this study.

This means that more funds should be alloted for training. But this must be said with reservation; for the training program is one aspect of the problem, and the absorption of the trained personnel is another. The absorption of trained teachers is deeply connected with the status of the teaching profession in Nepal. In a nutshell, the teaching profession in Nepal presents a very poor picture - low salaries, lack of social security benefits, and lack of opportunities for self-improvement.

To see the kind of image that the would-be teachers have for the teaching profession, the writer administered a questionnaire to a sample of trainees who were undergoing training in 1965. Their responses revealed that though they were enthusiastic about spreading education in the country, their complaints were numerous. Furthermore, it was found out that of 5,030 teachers trained during 1954-64 only half joined the profession. The main reasons for this great loss were the unattractive prospects of teaching as a life-long career, the sheer lack of integration between the training program and the government's program of opening schools, and the government's inability to place the trained teachers promptly.

Summing up, the writer feels that the problem of shortage of trained teachers for the primary schools of Nepal is caused by five things: (1) inadequate funds for the training program, (2) low economic status of the teaching profession, (3) unavailability of an adequate number of secondary students for the training centres, (4) poor prospects of self-improvement to the teachers, and (5) lack of consistency in the efforts of the government in the programs of teacher training.

Keeping these reasons in mind the writer made some modest suggestions and recommendations for increasing the number and quality of trained teachers for the primary schools of Nepal.

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ABBREVIATIONS USED IN THIS STUDY

Commission:	The Nepal National Education Planning Commission, 1954
Committee:	The All-Round National Committee on Education, 1961
HMG, Nepal:	His Majesty's Government of Nepal
Mission:	The UNESCO-Mission to Nepal, 1962
Report of the Tokyo Conference	Report of Meeting of Ministers of Education of Asian Member States Participating in the Karachi Plan, Tokyo, 2-11 April, 1962
Seminar:	The Education Seminar, 1965
UCFPE:	Universal, Compulsory, and Free Primary Education
UCFPE-Rules:	Rules and Regulations Pertaining to the Provision of Universal, Compulsory, and Free Primary Education
A Working Plan:	A Working Plan for the Provision of Universal, Compulsory, Free Primary Education

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. Background of the Problem

> Nepal has been described as "a little country with big problem ". Rich in cultural heritage, proud of her incomparable mountain peaks and scenery, here reside an industrious, eager, willing people, who have recently gotten hold on their own bootstraps and are now pulling themselves out of the mire of the Dark Ages of the recent centuries. The mud is thick, the pull is long, and the load is heavy![1]

This "pull" began in 1951 when democracy was brought into the country. In the field of education the number of schools rose by several hundred per cent within fifteen years (1951 to 1965). This expansion was a sign of the educational awakening of the people as well as a testimony to the efforts of His Majesty's Government of Nepal (hereafter to be referred to as HMG,Nepal) for extending educational opportunities to the people. Regarding the educational progress of Nepal made during 1951-61 a UNESCO Mission says that"It is doubtful whether any other comparable developing country has attained 15 % of enrollment [at the primary level] in its first decade of development![2]

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[1]Nepal National Education Planning Commission (NEPC), Education in Nepal (Kathmandu: Bureau of Publications, College of Education, 1956), p. 22.

[2]Hugh B. Wood and Bruno Knall, Educational Planning in Nepal and its Economic Implications (Report of the UNESCO Mission to Nepal, January-May,1962) (Paris: UNESCO, 1962), p. 30 (mimeographed).

While this expansion was taking place the Nepal National Education Planning Commission (hereafter to be referred to as the Commission) - the first national educational planning commission of its kind in the history of Nepal - stated in 1954 that " ... the first goal of education in Nepal should be universal primary education.", and described 1975 as the year for achieving universal education on a voluntary basis and 1985 as that of achieving the same on a compulsory basis.(1)

In 1959 His Majesty King Mahendra of Nepal, while addressing the first elected parliament of Nepal, also expressed the desire of attaining universal compulsory and free primary education (hereafter to be referred to as UCFPE). This put the royal stamp on the attempts to achieve UCFPE.

In 1960 Nepal became a member of the UNESCO-Karachi Conference. This Conference passed a resolution stating that each member state should devise its own national plan for providing UCFPE within a period of not more than twenty years.(2)

In 1962 the UNESCO-Mission to Nepal (hereafter to be referred to as the Mission) expressed its faith that if the rate of enrollment characteristic of the decade 1951-61 continues Nepal might attain UCFPE by 1985.(3) In the same year at

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[1]NEPC, op.cit.,p.81.

[2]This Conference,attended by fifteen Asian States including Nepal,was held in Karachi, Pakistan from December 28,1959 to January 9, 1960 and produced a plan known as the Karachi Plan setting specific targets of enrollment from 1960 to 1980. See the Report of the Karachi Conference (Paris: UNESCO,1960).

[3]Wood and Knall, op.cit., p. 30.

the UNESCO-Conference at Tokyo all the member states of the Karachi Plan pledged once more to abide by the decision made at the Karachi Conference in 1960.(1)

Prompted by such resolutions T. N. Upraity of Nepal set himself upon exploring the financial requirements for attaining UCFPE in Nepal by 1980. He concluded in a study completed in 1962 that financially this is not possible.(2)

B. Statement of the Problem

In the light of the above repeated attempts and expressed resolutions one may say that there is an unshakable faith in Nepal in the importance of UCFPE. But UCFPE has many problems - finance, school buildings, educational materials, and teachers. In this study the writer concerns himself with the problem of teachers, though he is fully aware that all the aforementioned problems are interrelated and interfere in planning. He accepts Upraity's conclusion that financially it is not possible to attain UCFPE in 1980.

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[1]This Conference, attended by the Ministers of Education of the Asian States under the Karachi Plan, was held at Tokyo, Japan from April 2 to 11, 1962 for the implementation of the Karachi Plan and for discussing the formulation of a long-range educational planning in the Asian countries. See Report of Meeting of Ministers of Education of Asian Member States Participating in the Karachi Plan, Tokyo, 2-11 April, 1962 (Bangkok: UNESCO Regional Office for Asia, n.d.), p. 40.

For the sake of brevity this document will hereafter be referred to as Report of the Tokyo Conference.

[2]Trailokya Nath Upraity, Financing Elementary Education in Nepal (A Thesis Presented to the School of Education and the Graduate School of the University of Oregon in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, June 1962 (Eugene, Oregon: The American-Nepal Education Foundation, 1962).

Since the financial aspects are very much connected with those of teacher supply,Upraity's conclusion leaves three alternatives : (1) to reallocate the available national resources to achieve UCFPE by 1980, (2) to extend the time limit for attaining UCFPE beyond 1980, and (3) to set a lower enrollment target for 1980.

The first of these alternatives is unthinkable at present, because other needs of Nepal are equally pressing. The second alternative is not practical as it is indefinite; a specification of the time limit which extends for a very long period may be simply meaningless. Thus, the writer adopts the third alternative, and rather than extending the time limit to achieve UCFPE he modifies the target, i.e., enrolling 75 % of the school-age children by 1980 rather than enrolling all children.

Since his concern is with the supply of teachers the writer has to establish from the beginning the level of professional qualifications that such teachers should have. This is a difficult problem complicated by the fact that at present there is no system of teacher accreditation in Nepal. Thus, the writer assumes that a person with at least a primary certificate and two years of training at a teacher training centre or a person with a secondary-grade certificate with one year of training at the same is to be regarded as "qualified".

It is to be understood that admission requirements to the training centres is low. But educational development in Nepal is relatively a recent thing, particularly teacher education. Though teacher education was started in 1949 it began to assume

greater dimension only after 1954. Thus to expect that by 1980 all teachers needed to attain 75 per cent enrollment of all primary school-age children should be qualified would be unrealistic. However, two educational decisions made in this respect help in fixing a proportion of qualified teachers for 1980. A document pertaining to the UCFPE-program in Nepal says:

> When appointing teachers trained teachers must be appointed; in case trained teachers are not available experienced teachers having the qualification of at least grade seven (passed) may be appointed but such teachers must be sent for training.(1)

The document did not specify the time limit within which such untrained teachers working in the schools would have to get training. For this the writer adopts the recommendation given by an educational body of Nepal - The All-Round National Committee on Education (hereafter to be referred to as the Committee):

> Teachers working without training are required to get training within a period of five years of their appointment . . .(2)

Combining these two recommendations one may conclude that the teachers needed by 1975 for example, could be given

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[1]Rules and Regulations Pertaining to the Management of Free and Compulsory Education (Kathmandu: HMG, Nepal, Ministry of Education, Education Materials Production Centre, 1965), p. 4.

For the sake of brevity this document will hereafter be referred to as the UCFPE-Rules both in the text and the footnotes.

[2]Report of the All-Round National Committee on Education (Kathmandu: HMG, Nepal, Ministry of Education, Department of Education, 1961), p. 28.

five years, if untrained, to receive training. In 1965 out of 12,000 primary school teachers some 2,500 were trained, a proportion of about 20 per cent trained teachers in the primary schools of Nepal. When this number of trained teachers is deducted from the number of teachers required for 1980 it is seen that about 59 per cent of the required number of teachers should be trained.(1) The writer feels that this proportion is too high to be taken as a rule and he sets for himself a proportion of 50 per cent of trained teachers out of all the teachers needed by 1980 to achieve 75 per cent enrollment at the primary level.

C. Purpose of This Study

To re-state the problem of this study, this thesis is concerned with the number of teachers needed to provide for enrolling 75 per cent of the primary school-age children in Nepal by 1980. At the same time this study is concerned with assessing whether half of those teachers needed by 1980 can be trained or not by that date, and if not to explore the factors that affect the supply of primary school teachers in Nepal.

To achieve the aim set for this study the following steps are adopted:

1. To show that it is unrealistic to expect UCFPE by 1980 in view of the current conditions of the country. For

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[1]Details are given in Table 13.

this reason the writer starts this thesis with a description and analysis of these conditions.

2. To describe the various trends in planning elementary education, and then to estimate the number of teachers needed for each of the five-year periods between 1965 and 1980 under the writer's plan.

3. To locate the factors affecting the supply of teachers in general and of trained teachers in particular and to explore the possibility of having half of the teachers required by 1980 "trained".

4. To suggest some measures that will help increase the number of qualified teachers at the primary schools beyond 1980 to a greater percentage than fifty.

D. Methodology of This Study

As this study embraces many aspects related to the supply of trained teachers no single method is found adequate. A composite approach of the descriptive, the analytical, and the suggestive is adopted. A major part of this thesis is based on collecting, tabulating, and analyzing statistical data.

In such a study it is always difficult to predict what will happen in the future. For the supply of teachers is subject, in a large part, to all the market forces characteristic of other industries. The subjective element present in the choice of profession, the motivation that teaching presents, differ from one person to another. Thus, in a sense the

quantitative aspects of the supply of teachers is intertwined with the qualitative aspects. The committment of any person to any profession reflects a way of life and value orientation connected with a system of rewards and satisfactions. As such, it is extremely difficult to predict what will happen in the future. Thus, it was necessary in this study to obtain the views of the intending teachers. The writer had given out a questionnaire to 189 intending teachers of the training centres of Nepal of the 1965 sessions. The analysis of their responses has thrown considerable light on the question of teacher supply and makes the writer more confident in his predictions.

E. Related Studies

The reports of the four educational bodies of Nepal are basic to this study: (1) the report of the Nepal National Education Planning Commission of 1954, (2) the report of the All-Round National Committee on Education of 1961, (3) the report of the UNESCO-Mission to Nepal of 1962, and (4) the report of the Education Seminar of 1965.[1] A report of a UNESCO Education Planning Expert is also incorporated in this study.[2]

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[1]Under the chairmanship of the Minister of Education, HMG, Nepal an Education Seminar was held at Kathmandu from December 8 to 12, 1965. See Report of the Education Seminar, 1965 (Kathmandu: HMG,Nepal, Ministry of Education, 1965) (mimeographed).

[2]Six Months' Report of Mr. Wilfred Burton (UNESCO Education Planning Expert) (Period September 1963 to April 1964) (Kathmandu: Resident Representative U.N.T.A.B.,P.O.Box 107, n.d.). (mimeographed).

A comparative approach has been adopted in dealing with these reports, and the writer has tried to see to what extent their recommendations agree and what were the sources of disagreement when they occured.

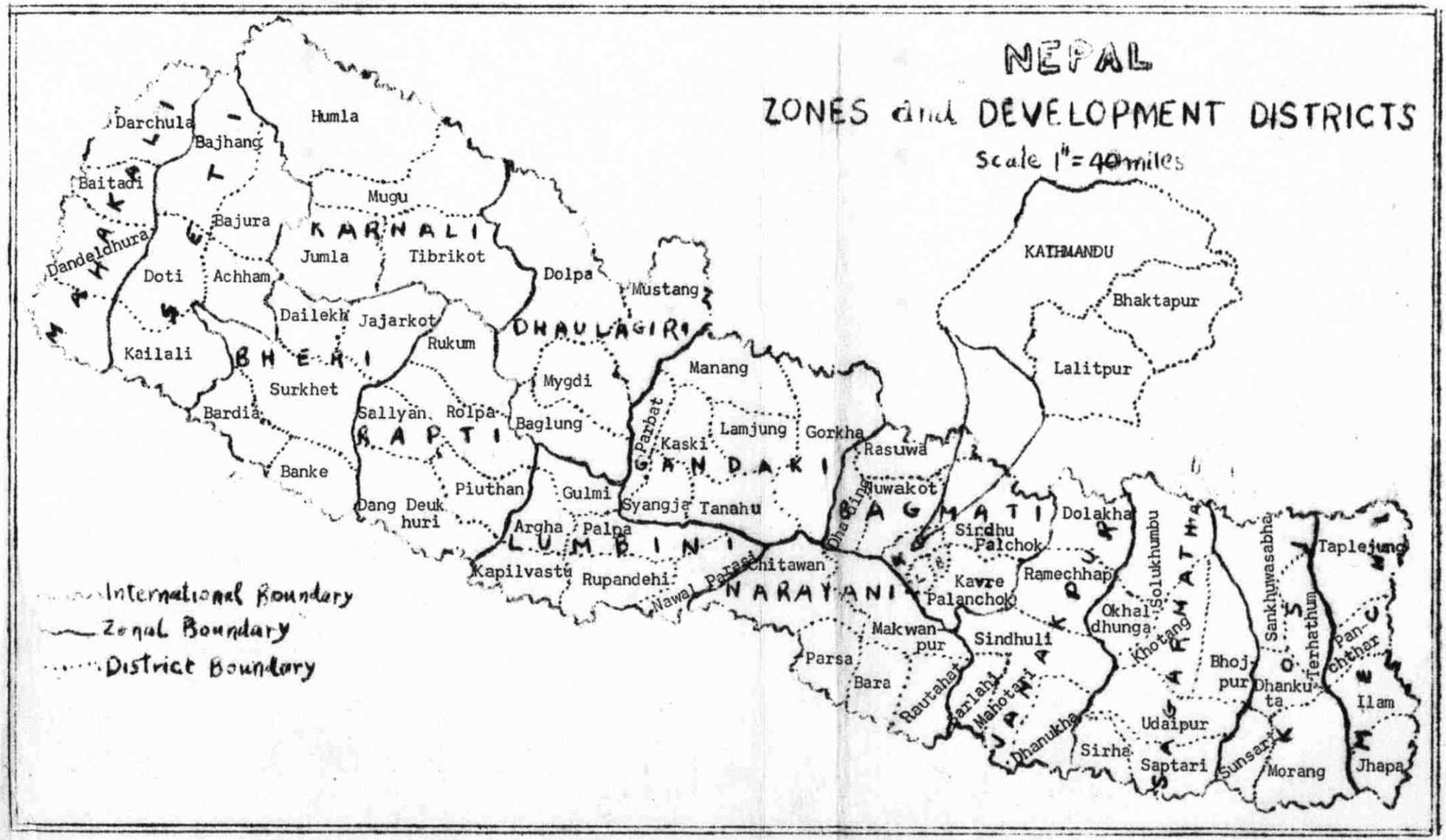
Also, the writer has tried to correlate some aspects of his study with the findings of an earlier study done on the same field namely, that of T.N.Upraity.

F. Limitations of This Study

1. The practice of gathering educational data in Nepal is of recent origin. What was available was incomplete. This implies limitations on the study itself.

2. This study is done at Beirut, Lebanon, far from the field. During the summer of 1965 the writer collected some materials from Kathmandu, Nepal. Most data had to be dug out, and this took quite a long time. Many things must have been missed, even though attempts were made to keep in touch with the field from Beirut.

FIGURE 1


NEPAL
ZONES and DEVELOPMENT DISTRICTS
Scale 1" = 40 miles
MAHAKALI
SETI
KARNALI
BHERI
RAPTI
DHAULAGIRI
GANDAKI
LUMBINI
NARAYANI
BAGMATI
JANAKPUR
SAGARMATHA
KOSI
MECHI
Darchula
Bajhang
Humla
Baitadi
Bajura
Mugu
Dandeldhura
Doti
Achham
Jumla
Tibrikot
Dolpa
Mustang
Dailekh
Jajarkot
Rukum
Kailali
Surkhet
Mygdi
Manang
Bardia
Sallyan
Rolpa
Baglung
Parbat
Kaski
Lamjung
Gorkha
Banke
Piuthan
Gulmi
Syangja
Tanahu
Rasuwa
Dang Deukhuri
Argha
Palpa
Nuwakot
Kapilvastu
Rupandehi
Parasi
Chitawan
Dhading
KATHMANDU
Bhaktapur
Lalitpur
Dolakha
Sindhu Palchok
Kavre Palanchok
Ramechhap
Solukhumbu
Okhaldhunga
Khotang
Sankhuwasabha
Taplejung
Terhathum
Panchthar
Ilam
Jhapa
Bhojpur
Dhankuta
Sunsari
Morang
Udaipur
Saptari
Sirha
Dhanukha
Mahotari
Sarlahi
Rautahat
Bara
Parsa
Makwanpur
Sindhuli
International Boundary
Zonal Boundary
District Boundary

CHAPTER II

THE BACKGROUND - THE LAND AND THE PEOPLE

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the land of Nepal and its people as a background setting for the analysis of the educational conditons. Many factors leave an impact on the educational conditions of any country. In this chapter these factors are broken down into six broad types - the physical, the historical, the ethno-demographic, the cultural, the economic, and the educational. The first five are dealt with in this chapter and the sixth (the educational) in the next.

A. The Physical Setting

On the map of South East Asia, on the southern side of the Himalayas, between latitude 26°.20'N and 30°.10'N, and longitude 80°.15'E and 88°.10'E, bordered by Tibet on the north and by India on the other three sides, lies the little Hindu Kingdom of Nepal. It is enfolded within an irregular rectangle 525 miles by 90 to 140 miles. The land presents an amazing diversity in topography, climate, vegetation and wild life[1] Elevations vary from roughly 200 ft. to 29,000 ft.,

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[1] Encyclopedia International under "Nepal" (New York: Grolier Incorporated, 1964), Vol. 12, p. 531.

the high range elevations are characterized by no less than fifty perpetually snow-capped mountains.

Basically, three river systems - the Kosi, the Gandaki, and the Karnali - cut the longitudinal mountain systems, thus cutting Nepal into pieces.(1) Further, the mountain systems run from east to west, the river systems from north to south. This makes the north-south traffic much easier than the east-west traffic. "This situation, in turn," Wood contends, "has contributed more to the encouragement of loyalties oriented toward India and Tibet than to the development of an indigeneous Nepalese nationalism."(2)

The absence of a network of roads in a land-locked country appears to be the master bottleneck not only for the rolling of wheels but also for the rolling of ideas.(3) A writer gives the picture of transport and communication in Nepal:

> Transport and communication in the whole mountainous regions of the country, as in 80 per cent of the country as a whole, are but foot-paths and roads which are only hardly suitable for pack animals. In the Kathmandu Valley and the tarrai regions there are motorable roads. However, . . . except for a few roads . . . these roads are unmetalled and impassable in the monsoon season, and even in the dry season they are scarcely passable.

1*Encyclopedia Americana* under "Nepal" (New York: Americana Corporation, 1963), Vol. 20, p. 100.

2Hugh B. Wood, *The Development of Education in Nepal: Studies in Comparative Education* (Washington: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, 1965), p. 1.

3A. L. Pradhan, *Nepalese Economics* (Kathmandu: Naya Nepal Prakashan, 1962), p. 131.

> 'At present there are reported to be 279 miles of motorable roads, of which 158 are in the tarrai region and 79 in Kathmandu Valley.' . . . In the tarrai there are two short narrow gauge (2'6") railroads, the most important extending from Raxaul to Amlekhganj, a distance of 30 miles. . . . There is an aerial cable-way from Bhimphedi above Amlekhganj to Kathmandu covering a distance of about 14 miles and this electrically-operated rope-way carries only frieght into the Kathmandu Valley and is said to have a capacity of 8 tons per hour. However, all these systems of transport are just drops of water into a vast desert in consideration to topographic conditions with high and irregular mountainous ranges. It may be remarked that the difficulty of transport is the main crux of all problems of development in Nepal today.(1)

The above picture given in 1955 was slightly changed after the addition of more roads, and other means of communication. In 1961 a Highway (the Mechi-Mahakali Highway running from the east to the west of Nepal - 500 miles long) was under construction. Without it, His Majesty The King Mahendra of Nepal says, "the refreshing and tonic air of prosperity" [cannot] "circulate throughout the country."(2)

Lastly, geogical surveys have revealed no substantial deposits of mineral resources. In the absence of treasure hidden in the heart of the land the only remedy lies in the maximal tapping of what lies above the crust of the earth.

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[1]Y. P. Pant, Planning in Underdeveloped Economies (Allahabad: Indian Press (Publications) Ltd., 1955), pp. 85-87.

[2]Pages of History: A Collection of Proclamations, Messages and Addresses Delivered by His Majesty King Mahendra, Series III (Kathmandu: HMG, Nepal, Ministry of Publicity and Broadcasting, 1962), p. 111.

B. The Historical Setting

Mysteries shroud the early history of Nepal. Dynasty succeeded dynasty but there is confusion as to the historical continuity. However, it is believed that a relatively advanced civilization had flourished some 5,000 years ago. Recorded history begins from the 6th and the 7th centuries A.D.. These two centuries are regarded as the "Golden Ages of Ancient Nepal".

The modern history of Nepal begins from the 18th century with the Gurkha Conquest. In 1768 Prithvi Narain Shah, the King of Gorkha, the most powerful Kingdom to the west of the Kathmandu Valley, where the present capital is situated, conquered the three little Kingdoms of the Kathmandu Valley.[1] Later on, he and his successors went on consolidating smaller principalities sprinkled throughout the present Nepal. The military activities were checked by the rising British power in India during the war of 1814-16 in which Nepal was defeated. The Treaty of Sugauli which followed (1816) reduced the Kingdom into two-thirds of its original size.[2]

Before the new nation could stabalize itself, the Valley and the Palace were torn by factionalism. This

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[1]Before the Gurkha Conquest the three kingdoms of the Kathmandu Valley went by the name of "Nepal", after the Conquest the name "Nepal" stood for the whole of the Kingdom of Nepal.

[2]Baburam Acharya, "History of Nepalese Education," Naveen Sikshya, I (Shravan, 2014) (July-August, 1957),p. 6.

brought another turn in the history of Nepal. In 1846 Jung Bahadur Rana, one of the warring lords of the Palace, seized power through a strategem which resulted in a bloodshed and became the prime-minister of Nepal. He also established the Rana-premiership by role succession, the seniormost brother of the Rana clan automatically becoming the prime-minister of Nepal. For 104 years - from 1846 to 1951- this family premiership continued. From 1768 to 1846 the Kings of Nepal both ruled and reigned. From 1846 to 1951 they never ruled, and it is doubtful if they reigned either. For they were made prisoners within the Palace, and the Ranas recognized them as the de jures sovereigns of the state only when some legal necessity arose.

The 104 years of the Rana rule was autocratic. As a son of the prime-minister could not succeed his father but had to wait in the line of role-succession in accordance with his seniority of age, premiership passed from brother to brother. This made the prime-ministers seize the national treasury for the ease and comfort of their children ; this led the Ranas to conspire to remove the prime-minister from power in order to get themselves earlier to the power. Thus, a prime-minister was sometimes killed or exiled as a result of such conspiracies. The Rana-relation with the people was analogous with the Czar-relation with the people in the pre-Communist Russia.

In the early thirties of the twentieth century Asia was in ferment. The Indian struggle for independence and

the revolution in China were great historic forces that increased the Nepali consciousness and alertness. The Nepalese soldiers who returned from the battle fields of Europe in the two World Wars brought home new visions of the democracies of Europe. The Rana policy of supression was reaching a culminating point. Meanwhile in 1950 King Tribhuwan, father of the present King, declared a revolution against the Ranas which overthrew the Ranarchy, and a constitutional monarchy was declared in 1951.

For nine years the new monarchy sought the political co-operation of the various political parties which, unfortunately, were more interested in tangible gains for themselves rather than for the people. Nepal followed France in the rate of cabinet changes. The first general election of 1959 created a parliamentarian type of government. But the party which won power could not restore peace and order in the country. King Mahendra, thereupon, dissolved both the Cabinet and the elected Parliament, ruled the country under the emergency power given by the Constitution of 1959 in order to preserve the country's "unity, national integrity, and sovereignty". In 1962 the King withdrew the Constitution of 1959 and proclaimed a new Constitution which incorporated the Punchayat Democracy system.[1] This democracy follows the

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[1]This system is based on the Village or Town Councils (Punchayats), and goes up in a hierarchial way to the District Councils and then to the Zonal Councils. The Zonal Councils elect representatives for the Parliament - with two houses. The King appoints the Ministers for the Cabinet from the Parliament. For details see Constitution of Nepal (English translation) (Kathmandu: HMG,Nepal, Ministry of Law and Justice, 1963).

political philosophy of King Mahendra and is founded on communal ideals of ancient Nepal which are believed best suited to the temper of the Nepalese people.

Looking at it historically, Nepal's political process has revolved around four tenets of statesmanship: "diplomacy", "endowment", "discrimination", and "punishment". These four terms represent the tenets of Nepali statesmanship and their use either singly or in combination explains the political process in Nepal. "Diplomacy" means tact, "endowment" means bestowal of gifts, "discrimination" means prejudice of the one against the other, or stealing the secrets of the enemy, and "punishment" means war upon the enemy or bad treatment towards the people.

Most times, the kings and statesmen of Nepal played "diplomacy" to keep Nepal's identity between two mighty forces - China and India-, and seldom they played "discrimination" of the one against the other. If "diplomacy" failed, "endowment" was resorted to. For example, the Prime Minister, Amsuburman (6th century A.D.) "endowed" his daughter to the Chinese Emperor Sron-tsgam Sgampo who was Nepal's enemy. It was Bhrikuti, the 'endowed daughter of Nepal', who took priests and holy books with her and then "conquered her barbarous husband to her faith. . . . Conquered Nepal took her captor captive." [1] It was through "diplomacy" vis-a-vis "endowment" that the Prime Minister saved Nepal. The priests

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[1] K. B. Chhetri, "Ancient Nepal," The Nepal Guardian, I (Spring, 1954), p. 28.

and the holy books were Buddhist. For the second time when the British were striking deeper roots in India the statesmen of Nepal "endowed" the British with the use of the Gurkha troops to fight for them as their "dedicated merecenaries"[1] in Asia and Europe during the world wars. Here again it was "diplomacy" vis-a-vis "endowment" that made the British not the enemy of Nepal.

At home, in relation with the people, there had been seldom a king who used "discrimination" and "punishment"; but the Ranas used both. The Gurkhas came like conquerors and adopted "diplomacy" and "endowment" by accepting the institutions of the society they ruled.

Upraity comments on the political process in Nepal:

> Lying between India and China, Nepal occupies a strategic position on the map of Asia. The steering of its course through the rivalries of these two powers over the past centuries has been the story of this country. What Landon said about King Mana Deva in the fifth century, that 'strength and tact were equally needed if a precarious sovereignty was to be maintained,' holds true for King Mahendra today.[2]

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[1]Richard Hughes, "The Gurkhas are upon You," Readers' Digest, Vol. 86 (May 1965), p.31.

Chandra Shumsher, the most astute Rana Prime Minister (1901-29) had facilitated British use of the Nepali soldiers in World War I in the hope, it is said, of getting back some of the territories lost in the war with the British India in 1814-16. But he was betrayed. The British, instead, formally recognized Nepal's status as an independent state, a fact which goes contrary to the status of Nepal as an independent state since 1768.

[2]Upraity, op.cit., pp. 176-77. Percival Landon had written a history on Nepal in two volumes. See Nepal (London: Constable and Co., 1928), p.28.

A Nepalese educator, Khanal, derives implications from the strategic position of Nepal on the map of South East Asia:

> Living under the most primitive conditions as a result of being bled for centuries by what the Western writers usually term as oriental despotism and squeezed in by two giants, China and India, the people of Nepal must find a formula of survival through education in a world in which Darwin's terrible law of the survival of the fittest still applies with all its force and ruthlessness.(1)

Evidently, Khanal hints to the need of strengthening Nepal educationally more than militarily.

Looking at its history in general, Nepal seems to have lacked a stable monarchy. While stability can be detected throughout yet it can be said that this was, to a large extent, a reflection of a separate way of life for the various Nepalese communities rather than a result of integration of the population and their satisfaction with one way of life and one political system. This lack of integration, reinforced by physical barriers, remains one of the major problems of Nepal.

C. The Ethno-Demographic Setting

1. The Ethnic Diversity.- Nepal has been described as a garden of four castes and thirty six sects,(2) exhibiting an extremely heterogenous population. This ethnic

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1Y.N.Khanal, "Some Suggestions to be Taken into Consideration Prior to Formulating an Educational Policy for Nepal," The Nepal Guardian, op.cit., p.35.

2This saying is from King Prithvi Narain Shah, the Conqueror and Founder of Nepal, and reflects his farsightedness to accept the traditions and values of each group - a genius in trying to win the hearts of the vanquished people.

composition has been largely determined by the position of the country between two great Asiatic cultures: the Mongoloid culture of Central Asia and the Aryan culture of Central and Nothern India. Wave after wave of migration from these areas intermingled with the indigenous stock inhabiting Nepal. This indigenous stock, an authority says, was the Nepar ethnic group of the Kiranti family.(1)

Along the southern slopes of the Himalayas live the world famous climbers known as the Sherpas, the Thakses, and the Bhotias, all of purely Tibetan origin and retaining the lingual, social, and even mental characteristics of their trans-Himalayan brethren. Below this region live the Gurkhas, and the Gurungs, probably the in-bred stocks of the Rajputs of Central India and the Mongoloid of Central Asia. In a recent article of the Readers' Digest the Gurkhas are described as infantry warriors,"probably the best in the world".(2) Scattered in the far east are the villages of the Rais and the Limbus, terribly sensitive but equally devoted and faithful. In the Terai regions there are a number of ethnic groups of Indian origin. The Chhetris, the Brahmins, and the Newars are sprinkled throughout the land, the third group concentrated mostly in the capital.

All of these ethnic groups have distinct ways of life, thoughts and values, with different degrees of vulnerability for national programs.Each of them thinks of itself as an

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[1]Baburam Acharya, "History of Nepalese Education," Naveen Sikshya I (Marga,2014) (November-December, 1957),p.8.

[2]Hughes, op.cit., p. 31.

ethnic group first and as a Nepali second. In a recent study on the economic development of Nepal, Pant refers to this phenomenon:

> ... In any study of Nepal's demographic trends certain aspects, like the racial strata of the Himalayan people need careful consideration. ... Any effort at improving the living standard of the people is rendered difficult owing to certain reasons. First, the population is evidently heterogeneous and contains Tibetan Buddhists and some Lepchas who are animists. Second, the immigrants have developed a certain kind of aloofness among themselves, and third, though majority of the population is Hindu there are strict caste differences in the community, particularly in the hilly regions. ...(1)

Another source states:

> Tribal and caste factors have tended to keep the various ethnic groups separate, and these divisions still play an important role in the social and political life of the country.(2)

2. The Linguistic Diversity.- According to the population census of 1952-54 there were 36 mother tongues in Nepal spoken by different ethnic groups, excluding some other languages which could not be identified. The major mother tongues were distributed as follows:(3)

Nepali	48.7%
Maithili Pradesh Dialects	7.5%
Eastern Terai Dialects	5.6%
Newari	4.7%

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[1]Y.P.Pant, Economic Development of Nepal (Allahabad: Kitab Mahal Private Limited, 1965), p. 17.

[2]Encyclopedia Americana, op. cit., p. 100.

[3]Census of Population, Nepal, 1952-54 A.D.(Kathmandu: HMG,Nepal, Department of Statistics, 1958), Table 11, p. 46.

The remaining 33.5 per cent was distributed among thirty two languages, ranging from 0.5 per cent to 4.4 per cent.

The greater percentage in favor of the Nepali language may be a little biased ; for, any non-Nepali lingual group which knew Nepali as a second language was classified, so the rumour goes, as a Nepali lingual group. Nevertheless, the balance remains in favor of the Nepali language as the most common language in the country. This is the second greatest contribution of the Gurkha Conquest, the first being the building of Nepal as a nation. The Nepali language was made the state language since 1708. An authority says that this language was not a contribution of the Gurkhas ; rather it belonged to a Khas tribe of the Kiranti family, the aborigineees of Nepal.(1) But the Gurkhas were the group that polished and improved this Khas dialect, and it was through this language that gave Prithvi Narain Shah support in unifying the country.(2) In 1957-58 there was a language agitation demanding the recognition of languages other than Nepali as the national language. This agitation partly arose out of the ethnic affiliation of some lingual groups to the foreign soil.

There are three languages that have literature - Nepali, Newari, and Maithili - the Devanagari script being

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[1]Baburam Acharya, A Brief Account of Nepal (Kathmandu: Pramod Shumsher and Nir Bikram, 1965), pp. 127-29.

[2]Ibid.

the same for all.[1] At present importance is given to making Nepali as the medium of instruction right from the primary level in order to create a national spirit through the use of a common language in the schools. Though this emphasis has an inherent value from the point of view of nationalism, many children of the non-Nepali lingual groups face difficulties in the schools. Apart from this, the shortage of teachers with adequate knowledge of Nepali in some parts of the country has become a great obstacle in the implementation of a national curriculum. The literature of some lingual groups does not reflect the sounds and colors of Nepal, but rather the 'local color' of India.

D. The Social-Cultural Setting

The culture of Nepal is many centuries older than the state of Nepal. Nepalese culture is an admixture of two Asiatic civilizations: the Tibeto-Burman of the North and the Indo-Aryan of the South. Two distinct worlds of race, thought, and civilization are blended together to form a Nepali character with a distinct identity of its own.[2] So what is Indian or Chinese has "a different perspective in the Nepali framework of social life".[3] In this sense, a

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[1]Newari has a distinct script but popular use of the common script - the Devanagari - has caused the loss of scriptural identity of the Newari language. To a certain extent the Rana's watch-over policy towards the literature is responsible for the loss of the script of the Newari language.

[2]Rishikesh Shah, Nepal and the World (Kathmandu: Nepali Congress, 1955), p. 15.

[3]Upraity, op.cit., p. 172.

French historian said half a century ago:

> Three countries alone have preserved the memories of their past; to the South Ceylon surrounded by the sea, to the North Kashmir and Nepal. . . . Separated from India, they can never be parts of the sub-continent and they pursue their destinies by themselves, cut off from their surroundings.(1)

1. The Caste System(2).- The caste system is a specialty of Hinduism with more ramifications than the "denominations" in Christianity. A denomination denotes only the differences in religious beliefs and practices and has less distinct economic and social limitations. A caste denotes practically no difference in religious beliefs and practices but has many economic and social implications. The Christian denominations are vertical in nature, while the Hindu castes are both horizontal and vertical, horizontal in the sense that the castes are sub-divided further into layers and sub-layers, and vertical in the sense that these layers form a hierarchical pattern.

But yet the Sudras or the "untouchables", the lowest in the caste system, are not a creation of the religion

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[1]Sylvan Levi, quoted in Chhetri, op.cit., p. 23. Levi had written a history on Nepal in French: Le Nepal, Etude Historique d'un Royume Hindou, Annales du Musse Guimet (Paris: Ernest Leraux, 1905-08).

[2]The four-fold division of the Hindu caste system is: Brahmin, Chhetriya, Vaishya, and Sudra with respective functions of priesthood, statesmanship and warfare, industry and trade, service to the upper castes. The fourth caste is the untouchable. The caste system reflects a consistent philosophy. For different interpretations see R. P. Masini, "Caste and the Structure of Society," in ed., G. T. Garret, The Legacy of India (Oxford: At the Clarendon Press, 1938), pp. 124-61.

itself but of historical conditions. Masini traces this divisional cult to the early days of the Indo-Iranian unity when the Aryan people living under the King Yima of Iran learnt it from Iran and transplanted it in a modified form to India where they migrated.(1)

The Nepali Constitution of 1962 banned the practice of caste system and a law was passed in the same year to effect the same. But social facts are not regulated and transformed by laws. Caste-ism is an institution with hundreds of side manifestations affecting the human nature. Unless the familial idealisms which favor caste-ism, and the enlightened pragmatisms which, perhaps, may disfavor it, become compatible, no law can replace the present social order. Perhaps a new economic order must arise led by those whose social status is achieved through merit, rather than by those whose social status is inherited by virtue of the caste. Perhaps, an educational policy in favor of the untouchable would capitalize on the humanistic elements expressed in the Constitution and the law of 1962.

2. The Geographical Segregation.- The waves of immigrants in the past tended to occupy a definite locality in the land of Nepal. As such, many places go by the name of the tribe which inhabited them. Thus a tribal psychology permeates some parts of the country, leading to misunderstanding, distrust, jealousy, and even bias towards national programs - from those planned by the Ministry down to those

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[1] Ibid.

planned by the schools. This psychology was accentuated by the biased policy during the last two centuries towards certain tribes or geographical groups in the recruitment for the army, the police, and to a lesser extent in the administrative structure. A writer remarks on this state of affairs:

> The people are divided into different tribes and communities, of which the most important are Gurkhas, Parvate [including Pahari] , Newars and Madhises, a threefold division which reminds us of the threefold division of the British into the English, the Scot and the Welsh, but which is much more real and serious because of the lack of time-honoured common institutions and general diffusion of national prosperity.(1)

E. The Economic Setting

1. Agriculture.- A Western writer once remarked that the low-level poverty of the general masses of people of Nepal presents a contrast to the majestic heights of the Everest, the highest mountain in the world.(2) The country is predominantly agricultural. Nepal's agriculture involves 93 per cent of the population, compared with her neighbors, India (66%) and Pakistan (71%).(3) The ratio between person occupied in agriculture and the cultivated land does not

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[1]Khanal, "Some Suggestions to be Taken into Consideration Prior to Formulating an Educational Policy for Nepal," op.cit., p. 41.

[2]Dorothy Woodman, "Nepal", The New Statesman and Nation, September 30, 1951, quoted in Y. P. Pant, Planning in Underdeveloped Economies, op.cit., p. 80.

[3]Nepal Industrial Development Corporation (NIDC) et.al, Economic Handbook on Nepal (Kathmandu: NIDC, 1965), p. 16.

exceed 1:1.5 acres. This implies that the per capita land is "too small to utilize fully the latent potentialities of labour".(1)

A defective system of land cultivation, lack of irrigation facilities, the feudal system of tenancy effective till late, ignorance and exploitation of this ignorance - all have directly and indirectly tended to arrest agricultural growth. Thus, Pant says that the yield from agriculture in Nepal is low judged even by the Indian standard.(2)

In all the development plans of Nepal higher priority is given to the development of agriculture. Of the many measures of land reform two stand prominent: (1) The Land Reform Act of 1957, and (2) The Birta Abolition Act of 1959.(3) The first gave the peasants the security of tenure and the facilities of paying a moderate rent to the money lenders; the second abolished the personal ownership of land by the richer people without paying any rent to the State. However, all such measures despite their good intents are ad hoc, and in the face of the"problems rooted deep in the age-old institutions of the agrarian economy" they are just "scratching on the surface".(4)

1B. P. Shrestha, An Introduction to Nepalese Economy (Kathmandu: V. P. Shrestha at Nepal Press, 1962), p. 45.

2Pant, Planning in Underdeveloped Economies, op.cit., p. 87.

3Birta lands are rent free lands given generations ago as gifts or rewards to persons for their loyalty or for some other reasons. They are of various categories. By the Act of 1959 they were converted into rentable lands under the ownership of the State.

4B. P. Shrestha, op.cit., p. 55.

The agricultural sector contributes nearly 64.5% to the gross national income, food grain constituting at least 64% of the total agricultural income. Of the national exports agriculture contributes 95 per cent.[1] Some parts of the country where food grains grow in plenty have communication and transport facilities with India rather than with Nepal. This situation causes a flow of the surplus food grains to the Indian market rather than to the interior parts of Nepal where there has been persistent shortage of food grains.

2. Industry.- Nepal's industrial history begins in 1936. A few medium sized industries chiefly of jute, textile, sugar, matches, and rice mills grew up in response to the economic blocade created by World War II. Within a decade after the War most of such industries died, and those which survived failed to become an organic part of the economy. The national millionaires, especially the Ranas, were reluctant to undertake any industrial venture; thus, most of the industries of Nepal were entrepreneured by the Indian nationals, who hardly tried to extend the industries to the hills.

Nothing singular happened in the industrial fields till 1960 when the policy of the government was introduced providing facilities for the promotion of large and small scale industries, and lending incentives for foreign and national capital investment. The Nepal Industrial Develop-

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[1]Nepal Industrial Development Corporation et.al, op. cit., p. 9.

ment Corporation has been offering medium and long-term industries financial assistance and technical advice including research of potential markets. Four large scale industries under foreign aid - Paper Factory and Cement Plant under the Chinese aid, Cigarette and Sugar Factories under the Russian aid - will be the new features.

Whether all the industries will be able to break through the agrarian economy is doubtful for at least some years to come. Industry (which now contributes 12% of the national income and involves only 2% of the population) will not be in a position, in view of the growing population, to make in the near future a substantial shift in the occupational composition of the country as a whole.

One thing, however, is crucially significant: the geographical distribution of the country's industries may continue to be biased in favor of the Terai regions. At present not less than 80% of the medium sized industries and 75% of the large-scale industries are located in the Terai. As the Terai regions have relatively easy transportation, industry may enter there. This may cause persisting backwardness in many parts of the hills creating vexing problems of social, educational, economic, and political nature.[1]

3. Per Capita Income and Development.- Heilbroner's map of underdevelopment shows Nepal, India, Pakistan, Burma, Afganistan, Indonesia, China, Thailand, and Outer Mongolia -

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[1] B.P.Shrestha, op.cit., p. 129.

the South East Asian Nations - brushed in dark black color, representing countries having per capita incomes below US $ 100.[1] An American economist, Thweatt, has estimated that the national per capita income of Nepal was about US $ 40 or NC Rs. 304 in 1954, the lowest in the world at that time.[2] Another source reduces further this estimate:

> Since the high concentration of wealth is in the top income brackets, and the average cash income is probably less than $ 12 a year, it is apparent that the large majority of the Nepalese people live on a marginal basis.[3]

Thweatt has further estimated the net national production and the per capita income of Nepal for as far ahead as 1991. He based his estimates on the figures of Pakistan and concluded that the per capita income of Nepal should be Rs. 396.60 for 1965, Rs. 416.20 for 1970, Rs. 456.00 for 1975, and Rs. 509.20 for 1980. In 1991 the per capita income of Nepal is estimated at Rs. 623.20 or $ 82.[4] After making these estimates Thweatt has made the following statement:

> Since Rostow places the per capita income level at the conclusion of the take-off period at between

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[1]Robert L. Heilbroner, The Great Ascent: The Struggle for Economic Development in Our Time (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1963), p. 6.

[2]William O. Thweatt, The Concept of Elasticity and Growth Equation (With Emphasis on the Role of Capital in Nepal's Economic Development) (London: Asia Publishing House, 1961), pp. 40-73.

[3]Wood, The Development of Education in Nepal, op.cit., pp. 6-7.

[4]Thweatt, op.cit., pp. 40-73(Tables VI to IX). The figures given by Thweatt in terms of US dollars are converted into Nepali Rupees at the ratio of US $ 1: NC Rs.7.60.

> US $ 150-300, the per capita income figure for the Nepal of 1991 fails far short of the level necessary to carry Nepal onward to the stage of self-sustained growth.(1)

Thweatt's main stress is on trebling the domestic savings, on increasing governmental resources, and on attracting back financial holdings floated abroad. Failing to achieve these conditions Thweatt warns that ". . . economic development may by-pass Nepal".(2)

Another economist, Lobachev, challenges Thweatt's estimates of the National income of Nepal:

> They [Thweatt's calculations] are mechanistic; they do not take the changes in the Nepali society into account; his reasoning leads to a conclusion of impossibility to seriously base the Nepal's economic development on internal savings, which certainly cannot be agreed to. Such economic theories can only disorient the public and be an obstacle against successful development of the country.(3)

There is an element of truth in what Lobachev says. The per capita income as the sole criterion of development is very misleading as evidenced from the following quotation:

> It may be said, perhaps somewhat paradoxically, that one of the troubles of the underdeveloped countries is not so much that there is not enough investment but rather that there is too much unproductive investment. Practically all investment which occurs in underdeveloped countries is investment in the feeding and bringing up of a new generation for productive work instead of investment in economic development. If

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[1] Ibid., p. 72.

[2] Ibid., pp. 49-50.

[3] N.F. Lobachev, "On Possible Ways of Nepal's Economic Development," The Economic Affairs Report, III (May, 1965), p.8 (mimeographed).

> this spending on the young is included as investment - as it should be - it may be well found that investment in underdeveloped countries is higher in relation to national income than in more advanced countries with their low birth rates and low death rates, perhaps even higher on a per capita basis.(1)

The Second Five-Year Plan of Nepal (1965-70) aspires to double, through subsequent plans, the national income in fifteen years.(2) If successful this would be a great achievement.

To conclude this chapter one may remark that the picture of the land and the people as presented conveys the parts and not the gestalt. This picture is in fact only a background account to serve the main purpose of this study pointing out to the challenges that must be met.

This picture may be too brief and perhaps vague. Nevertheless, its elements are reducible to relatively distinct terms: the roots of Nepal's underdevelopment are not only economic but social, cultural, and political as well. Even those who pursue economic reasoning in terms of capital resource development acknowledge that, after deducting the contribution of "labor" and "capital" from the factors of production, a certain thing remains, often called "the residual", which is presumbly the educational.(3) It is

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[1] H. W. Singer, International Development: Growth and Change (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company Inc., 1964), p. 80.

[2] Economic Affairs Report: Special Five-Year Plan Issue, III (March, 1965), p. 2. (mimeographed).

[3] This concept is shared by many economists. For a repre-

estimated that this "residual" contributes one-third to the factors of production. His Majesty King Mahendra of Nepal gives the greatest of importance to this "residual". He says:

> In an underdeveloped country of ours when we are in a position demanding progress on all fronts the greatest of progress has to be achieved in the field of education because without education any progress is difficult to achieve.(1)

The above statement is the greatest indication that in Nepal education is being regarded as an agent for change. In this spirit, universal primary education is the broad base from where this change may start. The well-being of every Nepali child, and hence the well-being of the nation as a whole, necessarily depends upon letting him go, full-fledged, and without obstruction, as far as his ability and ambition lead him along the educational highway of Nepal. But this cannot be possible if the child does not have access to the school.

In the next chapter whether the school can be made available or not will be investigated, particularly since 1951, a year which was a landmark in the political history of Nepal.

Footnote continued from the previous page

sentative view see John Vaizey, "The Role of Education in Economic Development," ed., Herbert S. Parnes, Planning Education for Economic and Social Development (Paris:O.E.C.D., 1965), p. 39.

[1]H.M. The King Mahendra's Address to the All Nepal Secondary School Teachers Conference, Report of the All Nepal Secondary School Teachers Conference (Kathmandu: NSSTO, Padmodaya High School, 1961), p. 8.

CHAPTER III

HISTORICAL REVIEW OF EDUCATION IN NEPAL[1]

The purpose of this chapter is threefold: (1) to investigate the factors involved in the educational changes in Nepal, (2) to describe in brief the kinds of education that have come down through the ages, and (3) to examine the prospect of UCFPE through the ages in general and after 1951 in particular.

A. Educational Systems of Nepal

Education is a social process. "The relation of education and society is the relation of one social process with a larger social process."[2] An educational system reflects, to a large extent, the character and ethos of the people of a country. But in Nepal a national system of education hardly flourished till the second half of the twentieth century. Before then many systems of education appeared in Nepal most of which developed independently.

These systems are: (1) the Gompa, (2) the Sanskrit, (3) the English, (4) the Vernacular, and (5) the Basic. A brief account of each of these follows.

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[1]For a detailed chronological study of the development of education in Nepal see Upraity, op.cit., pp. 18-69.

[2]A.K.C.Ottaway, Education and Society (London: Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1962), p. 17.

1. The Gompa and the Sanskrit Systems of Education.- The Gompa and the Sanskrit systems were those of the Buddhist and the Aryan Brahminism of the Hindu religion respectively. Both existed side by side before the dawn of the Christian era. The Gompa system survives at the present time on the nothern borders of Nepal,[1] while the Sanskrit system permeates the whole spectrum of the present national system of the country. Buddhism was not in favor of the caste system, while Brahminism was; the first, unlike the second, opened its schools to all. Buddhism originated in Nepal and served its parent country in weakening her opponents by means of its universal appeal. But it was a historical paradox that gradually Buddhism began to lose its hold in its own parent country. The Aryan Brahminism got so much of state support that Buddhism lost its true identity and began to accept the institutions of the Aryan Brahminism. As a result the potentialities of Buddhism for universal education were lost. The Gompa system passed into monasticism and the Sanskrit system into scholasticism, while the general mass remained untouched by both of them.

At the elementary level the Gompa system put stress on religious training in the form of reading of the Buddhist holy texts, vocal music, and painting. At the higher level

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[1]As early as the 8th century A.D. Tibet had developed three great university towns: Dre-pung (housing about 7,700 teachers and students), Sera (housing about 5,500 teachers and students), and Ganden (housing about 3,300 teachers and students). These universities had innumerable affilitated monasteries of varying sizes all over Tibet and also in the nothern regions of Nepal. See for detail NEPC, op.cit., pp. 14-15.

it aimed at preparing monks. The Sanskrit system consisted of language, grammar, and some arithmetic at the elementary level with the main stress on memorizing religious books and a very complicated grammar. At the higher level it consisted of literature, astrology, logic, and philosophy, and was designed primarily to prepare priests and scholars. In both the Gompa and the Sanskrit systems the learning of the local languages was discarded. Sanskrit language was highly glorified as the medium of instruction, a language as difficult as Latin to the English people.

Both systems had their heyday, especially when scholars from China and India came and settled down in Nepal, the Chinese scholars regarding the land of Nepal as the fatherland of Buddhism, the Indian scholars regarding Nepal as the land where the Aryan Brahminism was saved from the onslaught of Islam in the 7th century. When the Islamic onslaught reached its peak in India in the 14th century King Jayasthiti Malla (1382-1395), then king of the Kathmandu Valley, took two steps to bring changes in the society: (1) he divided the whole population into sixty seven major occupational groups, and (2) prescribed strict religious rules to the followers of both religions. As a result a majority of the craftsmen followed the Buddhist religion; rulers, warriors, and the elites followed the Aryan Brahminism. Jayasthiti's arrangement had threefold objectives: (1) to create a bulwark against the influence of Islam, (2) to bring economic prosperity through the wide-spread deve-

lopment of crafts, and (3) to bring social changes. In all the three he succeeded.

Jayasthiti's arrangement made education more correspondent with the occupational needs of the country. Educational opportunity was extended to wider limits than before and vocational education was introduced on a mass scale. Thus, while the Gompa system was meant to prepare monks, and the Sanskrit system to prepare priests and scholars, Jayasthiti's arrangement was designed to prepare for life. "If education is to be interpreted as a preparation for life, Jayasthiti Malla had made provision for everyone."(1)

But Jayasthiti's scheme had adverse educational consequences as well. By dividing the population into different occupational categories he established a horizontal division in the society to be added to the already existing vertical divisions. Gradually, this stratification became rigid so much so that a child had almost no chance of following any occupation other than that of his father. Education, in this light, remained a specialty of the family, and as such, tended to perpetuate the caste cult itself. It is this rigidity which now stands, in certain sections of the population, as a barrier to social mobility.

The activities of Jayasthiti Malla had caused decline in both the Gompa and the Sanskrit systems of education. With the conquest of the Kathmandu Valley by the Gurkhas in 1768 both declined further. Prithvi Narain Shah, the Gurkha

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[1]Upraity, op.cit., p. 25.

Conqueror, gave education a military color. For about half a century, after the formation of the Nepali nation, military activities distracted the people from educational activities. Military prowess was more stressed and military values became the aims to pursue. It appeared as if the ancient Spartan ideals became transplanted into the Himalayas. The properties of many educational institutions were confiscated to meet the military and war expenses. A few educational institutions which survived did so with little meaning attached to them.

2. The English System of Education.- After the conquest of Nepal the Shahs ruled for seventy eight years (1768-1846) during which educational activities were at a low ebb. In 1846 power passed from their hands to the hands of the Rana family. The Rana rule lasted for 104 years (1846-1951) during which educational activities were largely suppressed.

However, this Rana period laid down the foundations of a Western system of education in Nepal. In 1853 Prime Minister Jung Bahadur Rana (1846-1877) imported the English system of education in Nepal from Britain. The Prime Minister was attracted by this British system of education while he visited England in 1849 and he thought it to be a better system of education for his children. Other reasons are given: the Prime Minister felt that the English system would make his successors more cunning;(1) the Rana dynasty had a

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[1]P. B. Bajracharya, "History of English Education in Nepal," Education Quarterly, VIII (December, 1959), p. 35.

tradition of bowing down to their British "lords" at Delhi to guarantee the safety of their familial premiership;(1) and the British themselves put obstacles to hinder the development of a national educational system in Nepal.(2)

Whatever the motive was, the Ranas established in 1953, under a British tutor, the Durbar School (Palace School) in the compounds of their palace. In 1891 this school was made available to the sons of the commoners. But what happened as a consequence is quite interesting: while the Ranas felt insulted at having to study with their subjects, the latter felt demoralized to study the language of a people who they felt had no belief in the gods and the castes.(3) To add fuel to the fire, the people also felt that the introduction of the English language would be followed by the introduction of their Bible, and then their bayonets.(4)

Against such cultural prejudices the Ranas promoted the establishment of the English schools but after some time they began to fear that, if the English system spread widely, it would mean the grave for them. This may have been because:

> On the average, the end products of the English system of education look more liberal and more critical than those of the Sanskrit system of education. Even in respect of attachment to life and in respect of contact with the thought-current

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[1]Upraity, op.cit., pp.36-37.

[2]Acharya, A Brief Account of Nepal, op.cit., p. 131.

[3]Bajracharya, op.cit., pp. 35-36.

[4]Ibid.

> of the world the former are relatively in a better position. So for the educated to come to the level of international consciousness the English system of education has been more helpful than the Sanskrit system of education.(1)

However, the English system of education did not come to India gratis. The words of Macaulay who made a model of the English system of education for India express the true purposes:

> We must at present do our best to form a class who may be interpreters between us and the millions we govern - a class of persons Indian in blood and colour, but English in tastes, in opinions, in morals and in intellect.(2)

Towards 1910 when the Durbar High School was affiliated with the university of Calcutta (India) this English system of education in Nepal had become an admixture of Indian and British elements. The comments of Wood on the curriculum of the primary schools of Nepal still applies at present with little modification to the curriculum of the secondary schools:

> Much of the curriculum is oriented towards India and Great Britain. The pupils study Indian and British history, and until recently there was no textbook for Nepali history. Problems in arithmetic are based upon data from Western culture; stories read in language classes come from Western legend and literature.(3)

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[1]Y.N.Khanal, "In Search of a Philosophy of Education," Naveen Sikshya, IV (Bhadra-Aswin,2017) (August-September),p.3.

[2]H. Sharp, Selection from Educational Records, Part I (1781-1830) (Calcutta, 1920) (pp.168-70), quoted in Mohammad Shamsul Huq, Compulsory Education in Pakistan (Paris:UNESCO, 1954), p. 26.

Thomas Babington Macaulay (1800-59) was the President of the Committee of Public Instruction for India (1829-33), and also a great English historian, essayist, and politician of his time.

[3]Wood, The Development of Education in Nepal,op.cit.,p.29.

But inspite of these drawbacks the English system of education has remained the most popular system of education in Nepal. Some changes were introduced, for example, English was eliminated from the primary schools, and in the secondary schools two papers on English are required, while at the college level students are given the option of writing their answers in Nepali. In post graduate study English is the sole medium. The University Act of 1959, however, has made provisions for making Nepali as the medium of instruction after fifteen years, i.e. in 1974.

3. The Vernacular System of Education.- The English system of education which started as an elite system made some headway but it was met with opposition. This opposition came rather in the form of emphasis on universal education. In 1901 Prime Minister Deva Shumsher Rana had a plan for the expansion and reform of education. Deva believed that neither the Sanskrit nor the English systems of education was suitable for fulfilling the needs of Nepal. He threw open the Durbar School for those wishing to enter the English system, established a free boarding Sanskrit school for 130 students, and substantially increased the number of Bhasa Pathsalas (Vernacular Schools) for the provision of universal primary education in the country. Within 113 days of his rule he opened 150 Bhasa Pathsalas at a ratio of one teacher for each fifty students - 50 in the capital and 100 in other districts.

It may be said that these Bhasa Pathsalas formed the nucleus of the national system of education, the first of its kind in the history of Nepal. The curriculum consisted of the Three R's, history and geography, and much stress was put on teaching what was Nepali.

But Deva's activities were contrary to the autocratic interests of his clan-members. To have Deva continue as the Prime Minister encouraging such liberal attitudes meant, probably, a prelude to the discontinuation of the Rana regime. As a consequence, Deva was forced to resign and was sent to India for exile. His successor closed all the Bhasa Pathsalas except a few and did not pay salary to most teachers. With the exile of Deva the prospect of universal education was crushed for nearly another half a century.

4. The Basic System of Education.- The Basic system of education - also called the Gandhian system of education or Adhar Sikshya Pranali - was founded in India on the socialistic principles of the great Indian leader, Mahatma Gandhi. With a craft-centred curriculum it was pragmatic to the core. Its aim was to provide self-sufficiency to the Indian villages through training children in different crafts and in agriculture. The basic communication skills and the fundamentals of living were taught while teaching crafts. The children contributed to the support of schools by selling their products which consisted mostly of spinning and weaving work.

This system was imported to Nepal in 1947 with some modifications. By 1959 the number of Basic schools was 74,

including primary, middle and high schools. In 1947 a teacher training institution, the first of its kind in Nepal, was established to train Basic teachers for the primary and the secondary schools. Its description will follow in due place.

The curriculum of the Basic schools in Nepal included the craft work covering four main areas - spinning, weaving, woodworking, and agriculture -, language, arithmetic, social studies (history, geography, and civics), physical training, and village improvement projects. All these subjects were to be learned from problems centred on the pupils' craft experience.

The introduction of the Basic system of education in Nepal was not prompted by a well-studied educational policy. When the British left India in 1947 the Ranas had to adjust their relationship with the new government there. Meanwhile, agitation had started at home under different garbs. There were more demands for more schools. Finally, in 1948 the Ranas were forced to give a Constitution which recognized some fundamental rights including the right to education. Under these situations the Ranas chose to please all; thus the introduction of the system of Basic education.

The Ranas were aware that, if the Basic system of education should be allowed to flourish with the ideals of Gandhi, it would influence the people to adopt many liberal ideas, and this was not favorable to Ranarchy itself. They were also aware of the fact that this system would, in the long run, affect change in the Nepali society, bringing

their feudal authorities to an end. To forestall such consequences the Ranas managed to import "the label than the contents".[1] It was the intention of the Prime Minister Padma Shumsher Rana (1940-48), who had given the people the Constitution, to make education universal through the Basic system. But other Ranas conspired and drove him to exile in India. His successor had no earnest desire to implement the Constitution; nevertheless, the right to education remained with the people like a Magna Charta.

Whether Basic education was suitable to Nepal or not is debatable. Wood comments that the Ranas' concern with this system of education was unnecessary because it was unpopular:

> Basic education has not become popular in Nepal . . ., largely because it is designed for the "common" people and has a vocational emphasis. It does nor fit the image of education as "scholarly learning" and thus lacks appeal for those who seek to be lifted out of their village into government jobs (and hence economic security) rather than to improve lot in the village.[2]

Wood has rightly pointed out the apathy towards vocational education in Nepal.

From this survey of the development of education in Nepal it must have become clear that this development was haphazard, if not chaotic. Thus, one may safely conclude that education failed to act as a unifying force for the people. Most of the "systems" were imposed from above and rarely were they able to infiltrate to the masses.

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[1]Upraity, op.cit., p. 37.

[2]Wood, The Development of Education in Nepal, op.cit., p. 31.

Table 1 shows how heterogeneous the educational system of Nepal was as late as 1959. Under the five systems of education, right at the primary level, the Nepalese children were exposed to five different curricula. It should be noted from Table 1 that a heavier emphasis was given to the English type of schools at the cost of the Vernacular schools. But the national schools (the same as the Vernacular schools) do not yet carry curricula that can be described as national.

TABLE 1

CLASSIFICATION OF SCHOOLS ACCORDING TO CURRICULAR EMPHASIS, 1959[a]

Type of School	Emphasis	Number				Percentage
		Primary	Middle	High	Total	
English	English Language	965	263	96	1,324	60.5
Sanskrit	Sanskrit Language	113	8	4	125	5.6
Vernacular	Nepali Language	487	179		666	30.5
Basic	Teaching of Crafts	41	28	5	74	3.4
Total:-		1,606			2,189	100.0

[a]Source:- T. N. Upraity, Financing Elementary Education in Nepal (Eugene, Oregon: The American-Nepal Education Foundation, 1962), Table III, p. 76.

A fifth type of schools isthe Gompas. How many of such schools were in Nepal in 1959 is not known. However, it is estimated that some 50 schools at the maximum existed along the nothern borders of Nepal. The curricular emphasis of the Gompas is on religious training and to a lesser extent on the practical aspects of everyday life. For details see National Education Planning Commission, Education in Nepal (Kathmandu: Bureau of Publications, College of Education, 1956), pp. 14-15.

Much effort has to be made to make the educational system of Nepal truly representative of Nepal. In the next section the writer will explore such efforts as reflected in educational planning.

B. The Planning Phase in Education

After the overthrow of the Ranas in 1951 the Interim Government Act of 1951 brought a government that favored the diffusion of education. The age-long desire to educate children now burst forth in full force. Schools now became the status symbol of the villages and colleges the pride of the districts. Political parties also played a great part in the spread of education. As a great many educational institutions rose without a framework of objectives they intensified the already existing confusion. Planning was felt necessary.

The purpose of this section is to present and examine the idea of planning in education as it started to be considered by various educational authorities in Nepal. Special attention will be given to the following aspects in this connection: universal primary education, the educational ladder, the educational streams, and other related aspects of educational planning.

1. The Nepal National Education Planning Commission.- In 1953 a Board of Education was set up to advise the Minis- of Education on educational policy. This Board suggested to the government the appointment of a National Commission for

Educational Planning. The Board of Education died but the Commission - The Nepal National Education Planning Commission- that it created in 1954 performed a great historic task. The 56-men Commission with a foreign expert made an extensive survey of the educational facilities as well as the educational potentialities of the country. The Commission submitted its report in 1955.(1)

In fourteen broad type recommendations the Commission formulated a master plan to guide and control the great educational explosion and to gear the future destiny of the nation. Some of the recommendations were:(2)

a) That the first goal of education in Nepal is universal primary education. Thus, the Commission recommended enrolling 300,000 children by 1965, voluntary universal primary education by 1975, and compulsory primary education by 1985.(3)

b) That the educational ladder be made of 5-5-4 to 7 years (five years of primary education, five years of secondary education, and four-to-seven years of college and higher education). Also, that secondary school enrollment should be 20 per cent of the primary school enrollment, and college enrollment should be 5 per cent of the secondary school enrollment.

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[1]NEPC, op.cit., pp. 1-259.

[2]Ibid., pp. 225-33.

[3]At the time of the Commission primary school enrollment was about 5.6 per cent of the primary school-age population; thus for 1965 the enrollment target was about 25 per cent of the primary school-age population (age 6 to 10).

c) That all the secondary schools should gradually be converted into comprehensive high schools (multi-purpose high schools), and that there should be a single stream comprising the core subjects or common learning, the vocational "majors", and avocational subjects. The intention was to put more emphasis on vocational subjects progressively from the very first year of the secondary school.

d) Besides these, the Commission recommended some measures to facilitate future educational planning in Nepal: the establishment of an agency for continuous evaluation and planning of education, the establishment of a statistical and research section, the appointment of an executive organ to implement the recommendations, and so on.

Many of the recommendations of the Commission are implemented at the present time. Even though attempts are often made not to refer to the recommendations of the Commission by subsequent educational bodies, very few newer recommendations, which differed from those of the Commission, appeared since then.

The Commission dug out many hidden educational data and laid a groundwork for future educational plans. But the data were crude and incomplete, thus it needed refinement.

2. The UNESCO-Karachi Conference.- In 1960 Nepal became a member state of the UNESCO-Karachi Plan which was framed by the conference of the Education Ministers of fifteen Asian countries. It was resolved in this conference that each member state was to devise its own national scheme

for providing universal primary education within a period of not more than twenty years, i.e., in 1980. Accordingly, the UNESCO-experts prepared a plan for Nepal in the form of a country extension plan of the Karachi Plan.(1) Some modifications have been made on the original distribution of targets of enrollment in the Karachi Plan but the final target remained the same: universal primary education by 1980. Details will be given in a related chapter.

3. The All-Round National Committee on Education.- In 1961 His Majesty The King Mahendra appointed a 12-men All-Round National Committee on Education to find measures to expedite the progress of education. This Committee was helped in preparing its report by 21 other persons representing the various educational departments and project offices. Unlike the Commission, the Committee had no foreign expert or advisor on it.

Some of the recommendations of the Committee are presented below to be compared with those of the Commission:(2)

The Committee agreed with the Commission on providing universal primary education, but did not specify the time to attain it. The Committee disagreed with the Commi-

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[1]UNESCO, A Working Plan for the Provision of Universal, Compulsory and Free Primary Education in Nepal (Kathmandu: UNESCO, n.d.) (mimeographed). Hereafter both in the text and in the footnotes to be referred to as the Working Plan.

[2]Report of the All-Round National Committee on Education, op.cit., pp. 1-52.

ssion on the educational ladder and the educational stream. The Committee extended the high school career by one more year - from five to six years -, suggested four streams in the secondary school curriculum against the one of the Commission. Moreover, the Committee recommended putting vocational emphasis in the last two or three years of the high school in contrast to the Commission's view of putting the emphasis right from the beginning.

The Committee had many positive ideas, but in only one or two instances did it recognize the existence of the Commission. This is an indication of the lack of continuity so important in educational planning.

4. The UNESCO-Mission.- In 1962 a mission of two UNESCO specialists assessed educational progress in Nepal over a decade and suggested recommendations for future action. The Mission stated at the outset that the recommendations of the Commission should provide the general guide line for Nepal's future educational development.(1) The Mission referred to the Commission because the Commission's plan was more comprehensive than that of the Committee. In fact, one of the members of the Mission, Dr. Hugh B. Wood, was the educational advisor to the Commission in 1954. Thus one finds that the Mission supported many recommendations of the Commission.

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[1]Recommendations of the Mission quoted in Burton, op. cit., pp. 21-26.
As the report of the Mission was available to the writer only for a short time he missed many of its recommendations, but he has quoted such recommendations from different secondary sources.

The following are areas of agreement between the Mission and the Commission and some areas of disagreement between the Mission and the Committee:

The Mission said that compulsory universal education at the primary level was achievable by 1985[1] - the goal of the Commission. The Mission advised against the extension of secondary school to six years.[2] It also rejected the Committee's recommendation to create four streams in the high schools and recommended the conversion of the existing high schools into comprehensive high schools with one single stream, with emphasis on vocational subjects right from the beginning as was proposed by the Commission.[3]

The Mission also made some recommendations which were not made by the Commission; such as, careful screening of the primary students in order to keep the secondary enrollment to 20 per cent of the primary enrollment; dropping the students failing in any of the secondary grades before they reach the S.L.C. Examination in order to reduce the high percentage of failures in that examination.[4]

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[1] Wood and Knall, op.cit., p. 30.

[2] Recommendations of the Mission quoted in Burton, op. cit., pp. 21-26.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Ibid. The percentage of failures in the S.L.C. Examination reached 65 per cent in 1961, the average for the period 1955-61 was 58 per cent, the average before 1955 was 51 per cent. See Wood, Educational Statistics for Nepal (Eugene, Oregon: The American-Nepal Education Foundation, n.d.), p. 15.

On the other hand, the Mission recommended doubling the primary enrollment over five years, from 15.8 per cent of the 6-10 age-group population in 1961 to 31.6 per cent in 1966 and to 35 per cent by 1970.[1]

The recommendations of the Mission are quite drastic and it is difficult to adopt them. If the primary students are to be screened more carefully, i.e., if more rigid system of promotion is to be adopted, then secondary enrollment would drop below the proportion that the Mission desired. It should be noted that the thinner enrollment in the secondary schools was a matter of considerable concern to the Mission.[2]

However, the Mission deserves commendation for recommending the establishment of a National Curriculum Commission and of a Planning, Statistics, and Research Section, for restoring the National Board of Education concerned with educational planning, and for the development of a supervisory service to implement the work of the National Curriculum Commission.[3]

With the efforts of the Mission it can be said that a groundwork for sound educational planning had begun in Nepal.

5. The UNESCO-Tokyo Conference.- In April 1962 another meeting of the Ministers of Education of the Asian Member

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[1]Wood and Knall, op.cit., p. 32.

[2]Wood and Knall, op.cit., quoted in Wood, The Development of Education in Nepal, op.cit., p. 42.

[3]Wood and Knall, op.cit., quoted in Ibid., p. 19.

States participating in the Karachi Plan of 1960 was held in Tokyo, Japan. The purpose of this meeting was to examine the implementation of the Karachi Plan, to discuss ways and means of implementing the Plan in future, to extend the Karachi Plan to the secondary level, and to develop a long-range educational plan. At that meeting the following pledge was signed by the member states including Nepal:

> We realize that the issues at stake for us, as Asian countries, and for our world, are grave. They are the happiness and welfare of our people and the peace of our world. For such high stakes, we are resolved to do nothing than our best. And on that, our best, rest our hopes of seeing the framework we created two years ago at Karachi, put on flesh and blood and colours of life - which is the form and substance of reality - the reality by which men and women, everywhere, grow and live.(1)

It should be remembered that the issues which the above pledge is concerned with are those of providing UCFPE.

6. Mr. Burton's Report.- Mr. Wilfred Burton, a UNESCO Education Planning Expert for Nepal, made an educational tour in Nepal in 1963-64. He studied the recommendations of the earlier educational bodies, namely, the Commission, the Committee, and the Mission, the Constitution of 1962, and the Education Act of 1962. In what follows some of his recommendations are presented:

Mr. Burton was not optimistic about the prospect of universal primary education in Nepal. He agreed with the Committee's proposal to extend the secondary school by one more year but then he stated that that would be useless

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[1]UNESCO, Report of the Tokyo Conference, op.cit.,p. 40.

unless, first of all, adequate provision for training enough qualified teachers is made. He objected to the existence of the Sanskrit system of education which does not include science, physical education, and English in its curriculum. He did not agree with any of the three educational bodies concerning the plan to make the high schools into centres for learning trades and professions as if they were apprenticeship centres. Vocational training, in his opinion, should follow only after a broad general education in the high schools. His chief argument was that the first thing that needed to be done to upgrade the quality of education in Nepal was to train teachers under Foreign Teacher Trainers. His recommendations are of far reaching importance, and they will be dealt with later.

7. The Education Seminar of 1965.- Under the chairmanship of the Minister of Education, HMG, Nepal an Education Seminar was held in 1965 to survey the educational system, to improve the national educational policy, and to incorporate in the curricula of all levels in Nepal the fundamentals of the Punchayat Democracy, so that education will be more influential in strengthening the Punchayat way of life. Some of the recommendations are presented below:

The Seminar recognized that primary education is the right of every Nepali. It confirmed the current system of schooling, namely five years at the primary level and five years at the secondary. It recommended the creation of three streams at the secondary level: Arts, Sciences, and Vocational education. It

advised against opening comprehensive schools until competent teachers can be found. Modernization of the Sanskrit system was emphasized.

The Seminar pointed out the need of establishing a permanent Board of Education which would undertake the formulation of short and long-range educational plans. It stated that the educational edifice of Nepal should be based on the institutions of : (1) nationalism, (2) the Crown, and(3) the Punchayat. It also defined the national goals for education in Nepal as follows:

> The major objective of national education is to strengthen nationality founded on emotional integrity among the Nepalese.(1)

The above objective was broken down into four components:

A. Development of Personality.
B. Development of Civic Virtues.
C. Development of Economic Competencies.
D. Development of Human Relationships and International Understandings.(2)

It is interesting to note that the above objectives were already accepted by the government in 1960.(3)

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[1]Report of the Education Seminar, 1965, op.cit., p. 2.

[2]Ibid.

[3]The National Goals of Present Education in the Kingdom of Nepal (Approved jointly by the Director of Education Materials Production Centre and the Director of Public Instruction, HMG, Nepal on Marga 13, 2016 (November 24, 1960) (Kathmandu: HMG,Nepal, Ministry of Education, 1960), pp. 1-2 (mimeographed).

C. Fifteen Years of Educational Progress in Nepal, 1951-1965

Table 2 shows the progress made by Nepal in the field of education from 1951 to 1965. Educational planning started in 1954.

In three years, from 1951 to 1954, the number of primary schools rose by more than four times, and the proportion of children of the age-group 6-10 enrolled in the schools rose from 0.9 per cent to 5.6 per cent. In 1961 (after seven years of the beginning of educational planning) the number of schools increased by nearly threefold, enrolling nearly three times of that age-group enrolled in 1954. In 1963 the rate of increase slowed down. This was due to the policy adopted in the 1962-65 plan (the Three-Year Plan) that " . . . Education should be 'shelved' for a three-year period to enable other sectors [of the economy] to 'catch up'".[1] During the previous Five-Year Plan (1956-61) education was so emphasized that it took more than its share of the budget (112%), while other sectors of the plan spent only 22 to 65 per cent of their budgets.[2] Thus, while in the period 1954-61 the number of schools increased by 383 per year, this number dropped in the period 1961-65 to 250 per year (see Table 2).

Taken as a whole, a rise from 0.9 per cent to 27.5

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[1]Wood, "Problems of Educational Planning in Nepal," The Educational Forum, (November, 1964), p. 46.

[2]Ibid.

TABLE

GROWTH OF EDUCATION IN

Educational Level	1951[a] Number of- Schools	Pupils	1954[a] Number of - Schools	Pupils
PRIMARY LEVEL				
Gompas- - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	Data not available; estimated			
Sanskrit			243	6,243
English	321	8,970	1,028	49,296
Vernacular			No data - - - - -	
Basic			49	4,975
Total:-	321	8,970	1,320	57,514
% of Age-Group (6-10) Enrolled- - - -	0.9 - - - - - - -			5.6
SECONDARY LEVEL				
Sanskrit	2		5	
English	7	1,215	65	14,777
Basic	2		13	
Comprehensive	0		0	
Total:-	11	1,215	83	14,777
% of Age-Group (11-15) Enrolled - --	0.3 - - - - - - - -			1.6
COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY LEVEL				
Sanskrit				
English	2	250	14	1,320
Total:-	2	250	14	1,320
STUDENTS ABROAD		N.A.		2,000

[a] Source:- Hugh B. Wood, The Development of Education in Nepal (Washington: U.S.Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, 1965), Tables I - III, pp. 35-53.

2

NEPAL, 1951-1964/65

1961[a] Number of - Schools	Pupils	1963[a] Number of - Schools	Pupils	1964-65[b] Number of - Schools	Pupils
25 to 50 schools -					
4,001	182,533	4,913	191,620	5,001	344,000
4,001	182,533	4,913	191,620	5,001	344,000
- - - - -	15.8 - - - - - - - -		15.9 - - - - - - - -		-27.5
10 144 0 2	21,115	182	33,340	242	54,850
156	21,115	182	33,340	242	54,850
- - - - - - - -	2.1 - - - - - - - - -		-3.1 - - - - - - - - -		5.2
2 31	5,143	N.A.	N.A.	30	6,127
33	5,143	N.A.	N.A.	30	6,127
	3,740		N.A.		N.A.

[b] Source:- The First Circulated Educational Statistical Data (Kathmandu: HMG,Nepal, Ministry of Education, Planning, Statistics and Research Section, 1965), Tables 1-5. The above figures are according to those figures compiled by the Ministry of Education till April,1965. For details see Table 6 in the next chapter.

per cent in 15 years is quite spectacular[1] and is not equalled anywhere among the member states of the Karachi Plan.[2] By contrast, the proportion of total population enrolled (not age-group) in schools in Nepal is nearly the lowest among them.[3]

At the secondary level the progress made between 1951 and 1965 is not as impressive as the progress made at the primary level. The increase has been substantial, from 11 high schools in 1951 to 242 high schools in 1965 but these schools enrolled only about 5.2% of the secondary school-age population (11-15) in 1965.[4] The proportion of high schools to primary schools was 1:21, a low proportion in view of the government's policy in 1961 of opening one middle school for every five primary schools, and one high school for every three middle schools, i.e., one high school for every fifteen primary schools.[5] This low proportion will have an effect

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[1]This percentage seems a little bit high; reasons will be given in a related chapter.

[2]During 1950-60 the average annual rate of increase in the primary schools of Nepal was 51.3, the highest among the fifteen Asian countries under the Karachi Plan; the country next to Nepal was Cambodia (18.9). But when the percentage of the total population enrolled in schools is considered Malaya took the lead (18.4%), and Nepal's position (2.8%) was just before the last, Afganistan (1.37%). See UNESCO, The Needs of Asia in Primary Education (Paris:UNESCO,1961), Table 3, p. 11.

[3]Ibid.

[4]Divide 54,850 (see Table 2) by 10.56 per cent of the 1965 total population of Nepal (see Table 5), 10.56% being the proportion of the 11-15 age-group population to the total population in the 1961 census (quoted in Wood, Educational Statistics for Nepal, op.cit., Table II, p. 7).

[5]Report of the All-Round Committee on Education, op.cit., p. 89.

on the supply of teachers for the primary schools, which will be treated later.

At the college and university level the enrollment was very high; according to both the Commission and the Mission only 5 per cent of the secondary students should be enrolled at the college and university level. Table 2 shows that this proportion was nearly 12 per cent in 1965.

Both the Commission and the Mission recommended that 20 per cent of the children enrolled at the primary level should enter the secondary level, and 1 per cent should enter the university level (or 5 % of those at the secondary level). Table 2 shows that enrollment at the secondary level is 15 per cent of that at the primary level (lower by 5%), and that enrollment at the college level is 1.7 per cent of that at the primary level (higher by 0.7%). This means that the educational pyramid is bulging at the lower and the higher levels, while the middle portion is disproportionate to both ends of the pyramid.

On the whole, the great educational achievement made in 15 years is an indication of the growing educational consciousness of the people and of the conscientious efforts of HMG, Nepal. This growth promises a good future. Universal education at the primary level, on this basis, can be attained. It is only a question of time.

D. Prospect of UCFPE in Nepal

The idea of universal education in Nepal was so far reviewed historically, and the views of various educational

bodies on universal education was brought to focus. In this section the prospect of UCFPE in Nepal will be examined with the attempts to assign a target date for its achievement.

1. Constitutional Basis of Universal Education.- The legal history of universal education finds its beginning in the Constitution of 1948 which the Ranas were forced to give to the people. Under the Fundamental Section of this Constitution explicit reference was made to universal education. Leo Rose has summarized these Fundamental Rights:

> The Constitution included a list of fundamental rights and duties, which 'subject to the principle of public order and morality' guaranteed to citizens freedom of person, speech, press, association, discussion, and worship . . . universal free and elementary education . . .[1]

After giving the Constitution, however, the Ranas conspired again and suspended the Fundamental Rights altogether. Later, when the Interim Government Act of 1951 came no reference was made to universal education. It was in 1954 that the Commission referred to primary education as "the inalienable right of every child to free education",[2] and legislation on UCFPE was strongly recommended. However, when the new Constitution of 1959 was announced, "it totally ignored the people's right to UCFP-education and made no reference to education whatsoever".[3] The elected Parliament (1959-61) which passed more than three dozen bills did

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[1]Leo Rose, Nepal: Government and Politics, quoted in Upraity, op.cit., p. 227.

[2]NEPC, op.cit., pp. 219-33.

[3]Upraity, op.cit., p. 227.

not pass any bill on universal education. Some of the ministers of the elected government even contradicted one another on matters of educational policy.

The year 1962 was a turning point; eleven years after the removal of the Ranas the Constitution of 1962 stated in Part 4 under the section of "Objectives and Principles of Social Policy" the following with respect to UCFPE:

> . . . Free and compulsory primary education may be provided as soon as possible.(1)

Thus, for the second time universal primary education was stipulated in the Constitution in an equivocal manner. To implement this stipulation the Ministry of Education issued the UCFPE-Rules in 1965.(2) A year before the formulation of these UCFPE-Rules the government started the UCFPE-program in some twenty Town and Village Punchayats. In 1965 the number reached forty. No reports on the working conditions of these Punchayats with respect to UCFPE and of other pilot researches are available as yet. Two sources, however, shed some light on the situation of the UCFPE-program there. Mr. Burton visiting various educational institutions in different districts of Nepal (probably the schools under the UCFPE-program) writes the following:

> It is the Government's intention, at least up to the end of primary stage, that all pupils whether male or female and irrespective of any other differences will have the right to free education. It is of course only an intention and

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[1] The Constitution of Nepal, op.cit., p. 10.

[2] UCFPE-Rules, op.cit., pp. 1-6.

there is no stipulation as to how soon the objectives will be achieved.(1)

In the report of the Education Seminar of 1965 the following appears:

> It has come to light that as a result of the aim of His Majesty's Government to spread free and compulsory primary education some forty Village Punchayats have implemented this program. But to set up a school does not mean to confine children in it. Failing to impart real education to the children would be an injustice to them. It would cheat the future generation. Hence, along with spreading free and compulsory primary education His Majesty's Government should manage to provide the following things:
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> 1. School building and furniture suitable to the children,
> 2. A competent teacher to impart real education to the children rather than the one who just engages them,
> 3. Adequate educational materials for study along modern educational system,
> 4. Good administrative organization, scientific educational inspection, and technical assistance.(2)

While the Education Seminar under the chairmanship of the Minister of Education recommends that the aforementioned provisions should be extended to the communities, by the government, Clause 12 of the document issued by the Ministry of Education says the following:

> The concerned Punchayats must manage by themselves for textbooks, educational materials, furniture, school building, teacher, peon and other necessary materials.(3)

In contrast Clause 23 of the same document says:

> In areas where this UCFPE-program is implemented His Majesty's Government, if it thinks appropriate, may provide the following facilities:

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[1]Burton, op.cit.,p. 27.

[2]Report of the Education Seminar, 1965, op.cit.,p. 11.

[3]UCFPE-Rules, op.cit.,p. 4.

(1) School Buildings, (2) Games and Sports Materials, (3) Furniture, (4) Textbooks, and (5) Other Educational Materials.(1)

From the above it is clear that while educational authorities stressed that the government should take up the lead in providing necessary things for the schools under the UCFPE-program, the government, on the other hand, stressed that the lead should be taken up by the communities. Furthermore, the government document in one place says that the management of all things rests upon the communities, while in another place the same document says that the government may provide all things "if it thinks appropriate". But the time which the government thinks "appropriate" is not specified in the UCFPE-Rules. There is confusion as to who should take the major role - the government or the communities.

Furthermore, there are two more limitations in the UCFPE-Rules. UCFPE-program has three aspects identified by the UNESCO as (1)universal provision, (2) universal enrollment, and (3) universal retention.(2) According to Harbison the third component, universal retention, is neglected in the underdeveloped countries.(3) This may be the first limitation in the UCFPE-Rules. The experience of India in this connection is relevant. Saiyidain writes about the Bombay

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[1]Ibid.,p. 6.

[2]UNESCO, The Needs of Asia in Primary Education, op.cit., pp. 40-41.

[3]F. Harbison and C. Myers, Education, Manpower, and Economic Growth: Strategies of Human Resource Development (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1964), p. 80.

experiment of 1925-39:

> Compulsion does not, of course, mean straining after the last truant, but if the authorities refuse penal powers as a matter of fact of principle, the dividing line between compulsory education and expansion on a voluntary basis disappears altogether.(1)

The second limitation in the UCFPE-Rules is connected with whether it is at all possible to implement these rules in view of the poverty of the parents. The following quotation refers to the experience of India in this regard:

> In view of the conditions prevailing in India, this expenditure [expenditure on UCFPE-program] will have to be divided into three categories: (a) the direct expenditure on compulsory education, (b) the cost of supplying books and other educational materials and at least one free meal to the children of destitute parents, (c) compensation to such parents for the loss of children's earnings.(2)

The question of free meal to the children of destitute parents and the question of compensation to parents who have to forego their children's earnings would create problems of more than financial import to the local authorities of Nepal. These problems are deeply connected with the socio-economic stratification in the Nepali society. Unless measures are adopted by the State to ensure social and economic security the line demarcating voluntary enrollment and compulsory enrollment may become very thin indeed.

2. Some Counter-Committments and Counter-Statements on UCFPE.- The experiments carried on in the forty Village and Town Punchayats described earlier will help in scheduling the

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[1]K.G.Saiyidain et. al., Compulsory Education in India (Paris: UNESCO, 1952), pp. 32-33.

[2]Ibid., p. 106.

enrollment targets for the UCFPE-program in Nepal. The results of these forty experiments should give many clues for future lines of action with regard to the UCFPE-program.

With regard to the target-dates it was the Commission, from among the various educational bodies in Nepal, which assigned 1985 as the target-date for attaining UCFPE. Other national bodies did not commit themselves in terms of time. International bodies, however, like the Karachi Conference, the Tokyo Conference, differed with the Commission and set the target at 1980. It was only the Mission among the international bodies that conformed with the Commission. But there are counter-committments or counter-recommendations in some of the pronouncements of these educational bodies with regard to a time target for UCFPE.

There is an instance where the wordings of the UNESCO-Karachi Plan give the impression that its authors themselves did not realistically expect that the member countries would succeed in achieving UCFPE:

> . . . It may be said that the major problem in this region [the region under the Karachi Plan] at present is not the enforcement of compulsory education, but the provision of adequate facilities for children who are knocking at the school doors. There has been tremendous awakening among the people of this region and the desire for education has spread widely. Unfortunately, economic progress has not kept pace with this growth of public hunger for education and consequently, all governments in this region are being hard pressed to provide the necessary teachers, buildings, and equipments for the rapidly expanding programme of primary education.(1)

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[1]UNESCO, Report of the Karachi Conference, op.cit., pp.8-9.

The above quotation implies a position in favor of education on a voluntary rather than compulsory basis, and this is not the same as asking for free compulsory education at the primary level by 1980.

The confusion in this regard is due to the difficulties of matching aspirations with material realities in the underdeveloped countries. In the underdeveloped countries, like Nepal, provision of universal primary education is much more costly than in the developed countries. In the developed countries such provision is possible because their economies have attained self-sufficiency. In the underdeveloped countries education must be promoted in order to help the economy arrive at the "take-off" stage. Thus, the underdeveloped countries face a serious vicious circle: they need education in order to promote the economy ; yet to provide education they need a viable economy. Usually 3 to 5 per cent of the gross national income is required for the education sector to help the economy attain the "take-off" stage. But Nepal has been able to give only 0.75 per cent of its gross national income to education. This is an extremely low proportion ; for even India, for example, spends 1.5 to 2.0 per cent of its gross national income on education. On the basis of this the Mission said the following with regard to educational investment in Nepal for achieving the stage of the economic "take-off".

> . . . Nepal's modest education budget [5 to 8 per cent of the total development budget from 1951 to 1965] cannot be considered too generous ; in fact,

> in the immediate years ahead it must expand in proportion to other developmental costs. By comparison, Nepal's education budget may be too low to assure full preparation for the eventual 'economic take-off'.(1)

While the Mission says this, at the same time it expects that UCFPE can be attained by 1985.(2) Furthermore, following the reference made by His Majesty The King in the Parliament in 1959 to universalize primary education the Education Minister of 1960 made the following statement in the Parliament:

> His Majesty The King, and all of us have hopes and aspirations to make universal, compulsory, and free primary education available in this country. But the attainment of this goal is not possible, at present, even at the expense of the whole of the national income for this purpose. So long as the country is not industrialised, and our financial position is not strengthened this pious aspiration may not be a reality.(3)

One critical comment on UCFPE in Nepal made on individual basis by a person associated with the Commission is of significance to this study:

> The pronouncement of the National Education Planning Commission (1954), with respect to the importance of education and the rights of the people to education, were likewise expression of an enlightened group of Nepali leaders and were in no sense a reflection of the understanding of the mass of the Nepali people. To the tradition bound masses, UCFP-education was a deviant off-shoot of the educational process which is linked to the origin of English education. They look at it as something to be desired and as opening the avenues to the upper classes or strata of life in

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[1]Wood and Knall, op.cit., p. 133.

[2]Ibid., p. 30.

[3]Upraity, (trans.), Gorkha Patra (Nepali), July 23, 1960, quoted in op.cit., p. 7.

> Nepal and as a way to enter governmental service. They do not view it as a human right. In such a society the demand for a program of universal education must, if it is to exist, be created and stimulated.(1)

At a more recent date, the Minister of Education, HMG, Nepal, referred to the prospect of universal education in an international gathering:

> The hunger of the people of Nepal becomes insatiable.. . . To make this tremendous hunger of the millions for education meaningful and contributory to an all-round economic development of the country, we require enormous resources in men and materials. The aim of His Majesty's Government to make primary education compulsory in Nepal by 1980 for example, entails not merely a certain high level of planning but also the continuous availability for a certain numbers of years of large financial resources. Either one or both of these factors are beyond the best efforts of a developing country for at least some years to come.(2)

The reader will note that the UNESCO-Karachi Conference had recommended to the member states the attainment of UCFPE in their respective states by 1980. The above statement of the Minister expresses Nepal's helplessness in attaining UCFPE at least not by 1980. It should be noted that at the UNESCO-Tokyo Conference held in 1962 the Education Secretary of HMG, Nepal had made, on behalf of Nepal, the pledge to abide by the decision which the member states of the Karachi Conference had made in 1960: ". . . To do nothing than our best . . . of seeing the framework we crea-

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[1]Upraity, op.cit., pp. 210-11.

[2]H.E.Kirti Nidhi Bista (Head of the Delegation) in a speech delivered to the thirteenth session of the general conference of UNESCO, Paris, 1964 (Kathmandu:HMG, Nepal, Ministry of Education, 1964), p. 1 (mimeographed).

ted . . . put on flesh and blood and colours of life . . ."[1]

Thus, one sees that the plan to attain the UCFPE-program by 1980 is supported by the government, but that it is weakened by the lack of means and resources.

3. Re-definition of the UCFPE-Program.- The recommendations of the various educational bodies and experts vary on vital issues of education. For example, the secondary period is sometimes recommended to be five years, sometimes six years. The Education Act of 1962 decided on a six years' duration but the Act is not implemented. The S.L.C. Board of Examination examines the secondary school students on a curriculum of five years which puts stress on memorization rather than on the personality growth of students and their ability to use knowledge to solve life's problems. The country needs the immediate establishment of streaming techniques but the streams themselves are as yet undefined; the secondary schools are still following the traditional English curriculum sending a greater percentage of their graduates into liberal arts at the cost of teacher education in particular, and technical education in general.[2] All these have profound effects on the education system as a whole.

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[1]UNESCO, Report of the Tokyo Conference, op.cit.,p. 40. For the full pledge see p. 53.

[2]Data shows that close to half (46.4%) of all students enrolled in colleges and university in Nepal are in the arts fields, one quarter (25.3%) in the science fields, a little less than one quarter (23.8%) in the commerce fields, and a negligible proportion in education and law fields (2.5% and 2.0 respectively). See The First Circulated Educational Statistical Data, op.cit., Table 5.

The delay in setting up a National Board of Education is causing much havoc. The Board of Education which was created in 1953 died after two meetings. It is said that it did not function well due to personal animosities among its key members, and then ". . . It was left to die even without notice to its members."[1] It is to be noted further that almost all the educational bodies of Nepal as well as various international agencies have strongly recommended the revival of the National Board of Education. But this has not taken place. This is one of the disheartening aspects of the educational scene in Nepal. It appears that if such a board were re-established it would clash with some interests, probably with some vested interests. Because it is not revived, ". . . Educational planning in Nepal today tends to be sporadic, sometimes opportunistic, and occasionally non-existent".[2] The natural consequence is that "Much of the planning and administration of education is carried out on the basis of day-to-day operational decisions by staff officers without the benefit of advising and policy making bodies".[3] In a country like Nepal where Ministers of Education change too often the National Board of Education can maintain stability.

T.N.Upraity has shed considerable light on the question of providing UCFPE in Nepal in the shortest possible

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[1] Upraity, op.cit., p. 57.
[2] Wood, The Development of Education in Nepal, op.cit., p.18.
[3] Ibid.

time, i.e., 1980.[1] He examined the fiscal demand of UCFPE if any of the four proposals were to be applied: (1) the HMG Plan with the target to be attained by 1980, (2) the Ten-Year Plan with the target to be attained by 1970, (3) the UNESCO-Karachi Plan with the target to be attained by 1980, and (4) the Commission's Plan with the target to be attained by 1980 (Upraity brought down the target-year from 1985 to 1980 in order to test the fiscal possibility corresponding to the target-year of the other two plans, i.e., No. 1 and No. 3). The least fiscally-demanding plan, Upraity concluded, was the HMG Plan with the target set at 1980. Regarding this least-demanding HMG Plan he said:

> If, then, the writer's assessment is accurate, and HMG plan cannot be fully implemented within the resources available or likely to be made available, one of the two alternatives suggested by the National Education Association (USA) seems indicated:
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> 'If the goals of the desired educational program cannot be adequately financed with the revenue available, then one of the two steps must be taken: (a) restate the goals in terms of the revenue available or (b) obtain additional revenue'[2]

He ruled out, on the basis of his fiscal calculation, the possibility of obtaining additional revenue and preferred the second: restating the goals in terms of revenue available. He concluded:

> Hence, it would seem that efforts might now be made to redefine the nature of the program to be made available to all of Nepal's children so that it is susceptible of achievement within the resources that are available or can be made

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[1] Upraity, op.cit., pp. 1-329.

[2] Ibid., p. 312.

> available, and within a reasonable time limit. In the redefinition of the problem one must be aware of both the resources and policy incident to UCFP-education. The policy matters are deep-seated in the culture of Nepal and cut across the socio-economic and political strata of life.[1]

The writer has undertaken this study primarily because of the unique conditions of Nepal. He was further prompted by Upraity's suggestion as to the need for redefining the program. The writer in redefining the program offers the following:

Limit the program to less than 100 per cent of enrollment by the year 1980. In other words, the writer proposes a plan for enrolling 75 per cent of the population which would be of primary school-age by 1980. Rather than exploring the workability of this proposal in fiscal terms, as Upraity did, the writer in this study works out an estimate of the number of teachers needed to achieve this target by 1980.

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[1] Ibid., p. 313.

CHAPTER IV

PLANNING ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN NEPAL, 1965-1980

After stating the purpose of this study, namely, to estimate the number of teachers needed to provide for the enrollment of 75 per cent of all primary school-age children by 1980, this chapter proposes to do just that, utilizing, first, all the relevant data on population, school enrollment, by way of laying down the foundations upon which the estimates will be made.

This chapter will give: (A) estimates of the number of children of school-age to be enrolled in schools during the period 1965-80, and (B) the number of teachers needed to achieve the above enrollment objectives for the same period.

A. The Number of Children of Primary School-Age, 1965-1980

One of the many causes of underdevelopment of many nations of the world is over-population. "Over-population by definition lowers the national per capita, and is thus, also by definition, an antidevelopmental factor."[1] In most underdeveloped countries birth control, to use the words of

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[1]Singer, op.cit.,p. 73.

Galbraith, "is still in the hands of the philosophers and prophets."[1] In Nepal, to a great majority of the people, control over human fertility means defying the dieties. In this light, the growth in the population in Nepal demands a broad program of social and economic development linked with practical population policies. But, paradoxically, a policy of controlling population is not possible without an energetic program of educational development. This is due to the fact that to propagate population checking measures among the illiterate masses would mean preaching to go against nature; an enlightened people would at least understand that children are not necessarily planned by God. But checking the population growth is not the surest way to development. Education has both direct and indirect impact upon the size of the population, and hence it could be very effective in creating an age distribution which could be favorable to the expansion of the economy. Elridge points out the importance of a vigorous educational program to combat the population increase:

> Birth control is not a panacea. It is only a means to an end and in some ways a negative means. Surely, the chief object is to build a modern, literate, well nourished, technologically competent society in all the presently underdeveloped areas of the world.[2]

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[1] J. K. Galbraith, Economic Development (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1964), p. 7.

[2] Hope Tisdale Elridge, "Population Growth and Economic Development," ed., Lyle W. Shannon, Underdeveloped Areas (New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1957), p. 68.

1. The Population Structure in Nepal.- Table 3 gives the age distribution of the population of Nepal according to the 1961 census. At the present time primary school-age in Nepal is 6 to 10, but the primary schools have in fact children above 10. Children may begin school career late, may fail in any grade and repeat it, leave the school temporarily for economic reasons and come back again. So, for the sake of planning one has to take these facts into consideration.

In 1954 the proportion of the 6-11 age-group population to the total population was 14.3 per cent, and in 1961 it was 15.5 per cent.(1) This increase makes the writer assume that the proportion of the 6-11 population will constitute 16 per cent of the total population for the period 1965-80. With regard to the 6-10 population the census of 1961 shows that this age-group constituted 11.91 per cent of the total population.(2) For rounding the figure the writer assumes that this age-group will constitute 12 per cent of the total population throughout the period 1965-80.

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[1]Based on the application of the following international formula on the population by age-group-distribution of 1954 and 1961:

P= 0.736 X + 0.568 Y-0.104 Z, where P stands for population aged 6-11, X for population aged 5-9, Y for population aged 10-14, and Z for population aged 15-19.

For the formula see H.N.Thakur, Population Projection for Nepal, 1955-75 (Kathmandu: HMG, Nepal, Ministry of Economic Planning, Central Bureau of Statistics, 1963), p. 23 (mimeographed).

For the population of 1954 see Census of Population, Nepal, 1952-54 A.D., op.cit., p. xvii and for that of 1961 see Table 3.

[2]Quoted in Wood and Knall, op.cit., Table C (Appendix).

TABLE 3

POPULATION OF NEPAL BY AGE-GROUP, 1961 CENSUS[a]
(in thousands)

Age-Group	Male	Female	Total	Percentage
0 -4	660	677	1,337	14.2
5 -9	687	668	1,355	14.4
10-14	563	497	1,060	11.3
15-19	408	400	808	8.6
20-24	366	423	789	8.4
25-29	386	427	813	8.6
30-34	336	371	707	7.5
35-39	298	287	585	6.2
40-44	222	249	471	5.0
45-49	194	191	385	4.1
50-54	171	186	357	3.8
55-59	113	113	226	2.4
60-64	103	128	231	2.5
65-69	51	55	106	1.1
70 & Over	68	83	151	1.6
Age Unknown	10	22	32	0.3
Total:-	4,636	4,777	9,413	100.0

[a]Based on Census of Population of Nepal, 1961 (Final Report) (Kathmandu: HMG, Nepal, Ministry of Economic Planning, Central Bureau of Statistics, 1966) (mimeographed).

The educational significance of the proportion of the school-age group to the total population is very great. In 1980 the number of children of compulsory school-age whether in the 6-10 or the 6-11 age-bracket would be nearly 1.4 times as much as it was in 1965.[1] It is obvious that in terms of children of school-age the added burden is significant.

a) Rate of Population Growth.- There are many estimates on the future population of Nepal made by different persons and agencies. Most of them are conflicting. Instead of relying on them the writer has taken the trends in the rate of population growth between two censuses - the 1952-54 census and the 1961 census - and produced his own estimates. In 1954 the population of Nepal was estimated to be 8,445,000.[2] The census of 1961 gives a figure of 9,413,000 (see Table 3). This establishes a rate of 1.64 per cent increment annually between 1954 and 1961. On this basis, the writer assumes that for the period 1960-65 the rate of the annual increase of the population would have been, on the average, 1.8 per cent; for the period 1965-70 it would be 2.0 per cent; for the period 1970-75 it would be 2.2 per cent; and for the period 1975-80 it would be 2.4 per cent. The rate of accelerated increase is assumed by the writer on the following grounds:

The rate of population growth at 1.64 per cent annua-

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[1] See Table 5 in the later section of this chapter.

[2] Census of Population, Nepal, 1952-54, op.cit., p. xvii.

lly is not as high as, say, that of 2.0 per cent or over characteristic of many underdeveloped countries of Asia and Africa.(1) Thus, accepting a rate of 1.64 per cent for the period 1954-61 does not mean that this rate will remain constant throughout the period of this study (1965-80). Some factors contribute to an increase in this rate. First fertility rate in Nepal is higher than it is in India.(2) In Nepal, much less than in India, birth control is not very strongly emphasized. Second, the rate of emigration from Nepal would most probably fall because of improved employment at home. Third, measures of health improvement of the people are increasing, at least on the preventive side. Formerly, epidemics like cholera, small-pox, malaria, and tuberculosis used to claim heavy tolls of life. With vaccination the death rate would most probably fall.

b) Estimates of the Population of Nepal, 1965-80.- On the basis of the above assumptions the writer has estimated in Table 4 the size of the population of Nepal for the period 1965-80. He has compared his estimates with the estimates or projections made by different persons or agencies. It should be mentioned in this connection that the United

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[1]The annual rate of population increase during 1960-63 for the world as a whole was 1.9 per cent, for Africa 2.5 per cent, for East Asia 1.4 per cent, and for South Asia 2.4 per cent. See United Nations, Demographic Year Book: Sixteenth Issue, Population Census Statistics III (New York: Statistical Office of the United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 1965), Table 2, p. 111.

[2]Thakur, op.cit., p. 28.

TABLE 4

DIFFERENT POPULATION ESTIMATES OF NEPAL, 1960-80
(in thousands)

Estimate/ Projection	Population Group	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980
The Writer's Estimate[a]	a) Total	9,261	10,109	11,161	12,444	14,011
	b) 6-11	1,435	1,617	1,786	1,991	2,242
	c) b as % of a	15.50%	16.00%	16.00%	16.00%	16.00%
	d) 6-10	1,102	1,213	1,339	1,493	1,681
	e) d as % of a	11.91%	12.00%	12.00%	12.00%	12.00%
Upraity's Estimate[b]	a) Total	9,186	10,041	11,100	12,250	13,507
	b) 6-11	1,196	1,307	1,443	1,594	1,759
	c) b as % of a	13.02%	12.92%	13.00%	13.01%	13.02%
The United Nations' Projection[c]	a) Total	9,100	9,800	10,700	11,700	13,100
	b) 6-11	1,810	1,960	2,140	2,320	2,600
	c) b as % of a	20.00%	20.00%	20.00%	20.00%	20.00%
Thakur's Projection[d]	a) Total	9,341	10,099	11,121	12,461	14,030
	b) 6-11	1,810	1,960	2,140	2,320	2,600
	c) b as % of a	15.83%	15.99%	15.54%	15.79%	16.00%

[a] Based on the assumptions made in the text.

[b] Based on Upraity, op.cit., Appendix, pp. 314-15.

[c] Based on United Nations, The Population of Asia and the Far East (Future Population Estimates by sex and Sex, Report IV) (New York,1959), quoted in UNESCO, The Needs of Asia in Primary Education (Paris:UNESCO, 1961), p. 9. Both the UNESCO-Karachi Plan and the UNESCO-Working Plan have assumed that the 6-11 population of Nepal would be roughly equal to 20% of her population as estimated by the United Nations.

[d] Based on the average of Thakur's High Mortality Projection and Low Mortality Projection. Thakur does not have figures for 1980; the writer has produced these figures by applying r = 2.4 in the following formula given by Thakur:

$P_x = P_o (1 + r)^x$, where P_x stands for the population of 1980, P_o for the population of 1975, r for rate of population growth, and x for the number of years between 1975 and 1980. See H.N.Thakur, Population Projection for Nepal, 1955-75 (Kathmandu: HMG, Nepal, Ministry of Economic Planning, Central Bureau of Statistics, 1963), pp. 12-23 (mimeographed).

Nations estimated that the population of Nepal in 1960 would be 9,100,000, while the census of 1961 showed that the population of 1960 was in fact 9,261,000.(1) Thus, adopting the census figures for 1961 as a base, the estimates of the writer for the year 1980 differ substantially from those of the United Nations. In this sense, the United Nations' estimates turn out to be low as compared with those of the writer. The writer's estimates come closer to Thakur's Medium-Mortality-Assumption Projection.(2) Except for the year 1980 the estimates of Upraity (take only the total figures in Table 4; others will be explained later) and those of the writer come closer.

The size of the 6-11 age-group as estimated by the UNESCO-Karachi Plan and the UNESCO-Working Plan is excessively over-estimated. Both assumed that for an eight-year period of compulsory education 20 per cent of the total population would be in the primary school-age population. This proportion was adopted for many Asian countries as a whole, but strangely enough it was applied for Nepal where primary education consists of five years. This was done to

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[1]The population of 1960 was estimated by deducting 1.64 per cent of 9,413,000, which is the figure for 1961, from 9,413,000, the rate of population growth being 1.64 per cent.

[2]Thakur has not made Medium-Mortality-Assumption Projection. The name is given by the writer to the average of Thakur's two projections: the High Mortality Projection and the Low Mortality Projection. Thakur prefers the latter for similar reasons given by the writer in the previous section. For details see Thakur, op.cit., pp. 17-28.

make financial estimates for the Karachi Plan. Since the United Nations' estimates of the total population of Nepal for 1980 came out to be low as shown above, the UNESCO-estimates based on the United Nations' figures came out very high for the age-group 6-11. It was only at the time of the UNESCO-Tokyo Conference that a proportion of 12 per cent of the total population of Nepal was considered appropriate for the size of the school-age population in Nepal.(1)

Upraity's estimates of the total population of Nepal are more or less consistent with the writer's estimates (except for the year 1980), but his estimates of the size of the 6-11 population are lower than the writer's estimates. This is natural because instead of applying the internationally accepted formula(2) for finding the size of the 6-11 age-group he estimated it arithmetically.(3) The writer's estimates tally very closely with the average of Thakur's two projections described above, and as such, may be realistic.

The writer has included his estimates for the 6-10 and the 6-11 age-groups in Table 4 for purposes to be mentioned later.

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[1]UNESCO, Report of the Tokyo Conference, op.cit., p. 9.

[2]For the formula see page 75.

[3]Upraity subtracted one-fifth from the 5-9 age-group, substituted the subtrahend by one-fifth of the 10-14 age-group, and applied a 2 per cent rate of growth from 1964 onward. See Upraity, op.cit., Appendix, p. 315.

c) Zonal Population Estimates.- After estimating the population of Nepal as a whole the writer has in Table 5 further estimated the population of each of the fourteen zones into which Nepal is divided for the sake of general and educational administration. He has assumed that the rate of population growth and the proportion of school-age population to total population applicable to Nepal as a whole would be the same for the individual zone as well. For the sake of more reliable planning at the zonal level, data showing trends in the zonal population are necessary. Such estimates are the first to be produced so far. What is available are some trend indexes showing the rate of population growth for the Census Areas which are not the same as the Administrative or the Educational Zones - the latter overlap with the former. But irrespective of these irregularities the writer chose to rely on the rough estimates made by an authoritative body[1] so as to know the relative enrollment position of each zone, and also to show the relative educational needs of each zone.

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[1] A Committee on Zonal Division was formed in 1962 by the decision of the Cabinet, HMG, Nepal, with the purpose of dividing the country into administrative units. The Committee also estimated, on the basis of the census figures of 1952-54, the size of the population in each of the 75 districts which form 14 zones. The writer has taken the ratio of the population of each zone to the total population of the country and has applied the same ratio in estimating the population of each zone for the period 1965-80. For the division of the population by district and by zone see the Report of the Committee on Zonal Division (Kathmandu: HMG, Nepal, Ministry of Publicity and National Guidance, 1962), pp. 23-26.

TABLE 5

PRIMARY SCHOOL-AGE POPULATION OF NEPAL BY ZONE
1965-80
(Age-Groups: 6-11 and 6-10)[a]
(in thousands)

Zone	% of Total Pop.	Popu-lation Group	Year			
			1965	1970	1975	1980
1 2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I Mechi	4.57	Zonal	462	510	569	640
		6-11	74	82	91	102
		6-10	55	61	68	77
II Koshi	6.34	Zonal	641	707	790	889
		6-11	103	113	126	142
		6-10	77	85	95	107
III Sagarmatha	11.50	Zonal	1,161	1,282	1,433	1,612
		6-11	186	205	229	258
		6-10	139	154	172	193
IV Janakpur	11.36	Zonal	1,148	1,267	1,415	1,593
		6-11	184	203	226	255
		6-10	138	152	170	191
V Bagmati	13.21	Zonal	1,336	1,474	1,646	1,850
		6-11	214	236	263	296
		6-10	160	177	198	222
VI Narayani	8.54	Zonal	864	955	1,052	1,193
		6-11	138	153	168	191
		6-10	104	115	126	143
VII Gandaki	9.85	Zonal	1,057	1,166	1,303	1,465
		6-11	169	187	209	234
		6-10	127	140	156	176

TABLE 5 (Continued)

Zone		% of Total Pop.	Population Group	Year			
				1965	1970	1975	1980
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
VIII	Lumbini	9.85	Zonal	996	1,100	1,227	1,381
			6-11	159	176	196	221
			6-10	119	132	147	166
IX	Dhaulagiri	2.63	Zonal	266	294	326	268
			6-11	42	47	52	59
			6-10	32	34	39	44
X	Rapti	7.47	Zonal	755	834	930	1,046
			6-11	121	133	149	167
			6-10	91	100	112	126
XI	Karnali	2.08	Zonal	210	232	259	292
			6-11	34	37	42	47
			6-10	25	28	31	35
XII	Bheri	4.60	Zonal	465	514	573	645
			6-11	74	82	92	103
			6-10	56	62	69	77
XIII	Seti	4.70	Zonal	475	525	585	659
			6-11	76	84	94	106
			6-10	57	63	70	79
XIV	Mahakali	2.70	Zonal	273	301	336	378
			6-11	44	48	54	61
			6-10	33	36	40	45
	Total	100.00	Total	10,109	11,161	12,444	14,011
			6-11	1,617	1,786	1,991	2,242
			6-10	1,213	1,339	1,493	1,681

[a]Based on the same sources used for Table 4 (the writer's estimate) and on assumptions made in the text.

2. School Enrollment in Nepal, 1965.- For formulating a plan of enrollment it is necessary first to obtain the latest enrollment figures of the country. The 6-10 population of Nepal for the year 1965 as estimated by the writer in Table 4 and 5 is 1,213,000, while the number of children enrolled in the primary schools in 1965 was 334,000.(1) Thus, 72.5 per cent of primary school children aged 6 to 10 were not in the schools in 1965.(2)

Table 6 shows the wide variation in the geographical distribution of the school-age population among the fourteen zones, the number of pupils enrolled, and the enrollment

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[1]Based on The First Circulated Educational Statistical Data (Kathmandu: HMG,Nepal, Ministry of Education, Planning, Statistics and Research Section, 1965), Tables 1 and 2.

[2]The above figure needs to be carefully taken. Table 2 shows that in 1963 there were 4,913 primary schools (actual) enrolling 191,620 children (estimates) and in 1965 there were 5,001 schools (actual) enrolling 344,000 children (estimates). These figures show that while the number of primary schools increased by 88 during 1963-65, enrollment rose from 15.9 per cent to 27.5 per cent (see Table 2) - a very high enrollment with the addition of a very few number of schools. The average annual increment in the age-group enrolled from 1951 to 1961 is 1.5 per cent, but the average increment from 1963 to 1965 is nearly double of the above rate - a very abnormal thing. This can mean one of two things: either earlier estimates for the period 1951-63 are low or the estimates for 1965 are a bit high. Wood states that the 1963 data (quoted in Table 2 of this study) were somewhat low, and estimates that,according to the trends in enrollment,about 230,000 primary school children should have been enrolled by that date, instead of 191,620 children (See Wood, The Development of Education in Nepal, op.cit., Table 1, p.35).Even accepting Wood's estimates the enrollment rate between 1963 and 1965 is still high. The writer, for want of reliable statistics, was unable to detect the error in the estimates of enrollment from 1951 to 1965. This confusion, however, does not affect the writer's target of enrollment for 1970, which follows in a section in this chapter.

TABLE 6

DIFFUSION OF PRIMARY SCHOOL ENROLLMENT IN NEPAL BY ZONE, 1965[a]

	Zone	School-Age Population (6-10) (in 000)	Pupils Enrolled (in 000)		Age-Group Enrolled Total (in %)
			Total	Female	
1	2	3	4	5	6
I	Mechi	55.0	20.4	3.5	37.1
II	Koshi	77.0	32.6	6.1	42.3
III	Sagarmatha	139.0	35.9	3.9	25.8
IV	Janakpur	138.0	25.5	3.1	18.4
V	Bagmati	160.0	52.8	11.7	33.0
VI	Narayani	104.0	24.4	3.5	23.5
VII	Gandaki	127.0	44.0	5.3	34.6
VIII	Lumbini	119.0	33.3	4.4	28.0
IX	Dhaulagiri	32.0	10.6	1.4	31.1
X	Rapti	91.0	13.8	1.7	15.2
XI	Karnali	25.0	4.6	0.2	18.4
XII	Bheri	56.0	11.4	1.0	20.4
XIII	Seti	57.0	13.5	0.6	23.7
XIV	Mahakali	33.0	10.9	0.9	33.0
	Total:-	10,109.0	334.0	47.4	27.5

[a]Column 3 based on column 5 of Table 5; columns 4 and 5 based on The First Circulated Educational Statistical Data, op. cit., Table 2; column 6 derived by dividing column 3 by column 4. The figures in columns 4 and 5 are based on the inflated figures of the aforesaid document. The Ministry of Education had sent a questionnaire to all the schools of Nepal. By April 1965 seventy per cent of them had reported the data on school enrollment.

position of each zone. Rapti enrolled 15.2 per cent of its total number of school-age children, whereas Koshi enrolled 42.3 per cent. Seven zones out of the fourteen zones have enrolled less than the national average taken to be 27.5 per cent. This means that great efforts have to be made to bring the enrollment in the various zones nearer to the national average.

Table 6 further shows that in terms of number of pupils (column 4), Bagmati and Gandaki enrolled the largest numbers, but in terms of percentage of their respective school-age population, these zones enrolled nearly the same proportion as the thinly enrolling zones like Mahakali and Dhaulagiri. Further, in terms of age-group enrolled, it is the Koshi zone which has taken the lead, not Bagmati where the capital is situated (42.3 per cent as against 33.0 per cent).

This means that schools were opened at random. Those zones which asked for schools were given schools, those which did not were not encouraged to have schools. A very crucial thing is that the gap between the enrollment figures of the various zones will remain about the same in 1970 as it was in 1965. This is because according to the Second Five-Year Plan (1965-70) 750 primary schools are going to be opened at the rate of ten primary schools for each of the seventy five dis-

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Footnote to Table 6 continued:
On the basis of the reported figures the total enrollment for each zone has been inflated by estimating zonal average enrollment for all the schools that had not reported by that time. Some of the schools returned the questionnaire giving the data for 1964 and in most cases the data for 1965. For want of accurate data for 1964 and 1965 separately the writer has assumed the above data to be applicable for 1965. Generally, schools in Nepal open in February-March; so, the above data may represent the data for 1965.

tricts under the fourteen zones. Although such a policy has the supposed virtues of non-discrimination, very frequently planning necessitates discrimination in favor of the less fortunate districts or zones.

A major reason for this wide gap between the enrolling capacities of the different zones is their educational maturity and physical facilities. But schools have been opened from 1951 onward as a response to a pressure from a certain minister in a certain district, or from a certain leader of a certain district in the parliament. And, as such, the gap does not reflect the inherent lack of motivation within the districts.

In summary, the perpetuation of the gap would lead to immediate educational consequences, and to social and political unrest in the long run. It would be difficult to achieve universal education if the gap continues.

3. Wastage, Dropouts, and Over-Age at the Primary Level.- Any plan must necessarily consider the pattern of retardation and age-composition of the school children. The following sections are meant to describe these symptoms at the primary level.

a) Wastage and Dropouts.- In Table 7 enrollment figures from grade 1 to 5 as well as percentages of the composition of the grades are shown. During 1959-65 the proportion of students in grade one out of the total enrollment in the primary schools has increased (the reader should, however, note

TABLE 7

INDEX OF DIFFUSION OF ENROLLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION IN NEPAL, 1959-65
(in thousands)

Year	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Total
1959[a]	N = 15.0	N = 7.7	N = 5.6	N = 3.4	N = 2.2	N=33.9
	44.3%	22.7%	16.5%	10.0%	6.5%	100.0%
	100	100	100	100	100	
1963[b]	N = 134.2	N = 51.8	N = 35.0	N = 22.0	N = 13.5	N=257.4
	52.1%	20.2%	13.6%	8.9%	5.2%	100.0%
	118	89	82	89	80	
1965[c]	N = 191.8	N = 60.6	N = 43.3	N = 34.6	N = 17.8	N=348.1
	55.1%	17.4%	12.4%	10.0%	5.1%	100.0%
	124	77	75	100	78	

[a]Based on Upraity, op.cit., Table V, p. 81. In Upraity's study on "Dispersion of School Enrollment" from grade to 10 based on a sample survey of 593 schools, primary, middle and high, grade 1 to 5 had a percentage enrollment of 38.1%, 19.5%, 14.3%, 8.6%, and 5.7% successively, and the total number of students from grade 1 to 10 was 39,264. For Table 7 above the N for each grade 1 to 5 is found, and the percentage distribution is made again.

[b]Based on Normal School Division Bulletin, Vol. I,No. 6 (January-February, 1963). The figures are estimates.

[c]Based on Kedar Nath Shrestha, Program of Primary Education,1965-66 (Kathmandu: HMG,Nepal, Department of Education, Primary School Division, 1965), p. 2 (mimeographed).

that the N's do not represent the actual number of pupils enrolled; all of them are estimates or sample populations). Enrollment in grade one in 1965 increased by 24 per cent over that of 1959. But in grade two enrollment decreased; for example, in 1963 it decreased by 11 per cent and in 1965 by 23 per cent. This rate of decrease applies more or less as well to grades three and five. Only did the enrollment in grade four in 1965 reach the same level as that of 1959.

Taking the figures grade-wise enrollment goes on decreasing from grade to grade in each of the selected years. In 1959, 44.3 per cent of primary school children were in grade one; in grade two the percentage fell to nearly half as many; and in grade five it became one-seventh of what it was in grade one. In 1963 enrollment in grade five was nearly one-tenth of what it was in grade one. In 1965 enrollment in grade five was a little less than one-tenth of what it was in grade one.

This means that even though the number of children in the schools as well as in each of the primary grades has increased from 1959 to 1965, the rate of dropout from the first to the last grades in the primary schools appears to have increased during the same period. A source comments on attrition at the primary level:

> The present number of students indicates a drop out from 191,840 first grade students to 17,803 fifth grade students. There are numerous reasons for this condition. The major reasons for this high loss are: (1) one-teacher schools, (2) teachers unable to teach in grade 4 -5, (3) stu-

> dents involved in family economy, and (4) testing program eliminating a high percentage of students.(1)

It is clear that if the above rate of attrition persists universal education will remain a dream.

b) Repetition and Over-Age at the Primary Level.- Table 8 shows the age-distribution of the pupils in the primary schools of Nepal. Of the 2,33,670 pupils in grades 1 to 5, 31.0 per cent were in the proper grade-ages, six and seven for grade one, seven and eight for grade two, eight and nine for grade three, nine and ten for grade four, and ten and eleven for grade five; 10.1 per cent were below these grade-ages; while a great majority, nearly 60 per cent, were above these grade-ages. Further, at each grade level there are between 53 and 67 per cent cases of over-aged students. A child in Nepal is supposed to enter in the first grade at the age of six, continue his school career without break, and complete the primary school at the age of ten. But Table 8 indicates that the pattern of primary school career is not 6-10 or 6-11 but probably 6-12 or beyond. A visitor to some primary schools of Nepal gives the following information:

> There is invariably a wide range in each class of 6 to 9 years among the pupils, due partly to the system of having annual promotion examination but mainly, it is thought, to pupils starting their school careers late.(2)

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[1]Kedar Nath Shrestha, Program of Primary Education, 1965-66 (Kathmandu: HMG,Nepal, Department of Education, Primary School Division, 1965), p.2 (mimeographed). The figures are estimates.

[2]Burton, op.cit., p. 40.

TABLE 8

AGE-DISTRIBUTION IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF NEPAL, 1965[a] (in percentages)

Grade	Below Age	Right Age	Over Age	Total
One	12.8	34.5	52.7	100.0 (1,13,982)
Two	5.6	27.7	66.7	100.0 (42,895)
Three	6.5	26.8	66.7	100.0 (33,031)
Four	9.0	27.4	63.6	100.0 (24,383)
Five	11.5	29.9	58.6	100.0 (19,379)
Total:	10.1 (23,569)	31.0 (72,540)	58.9 (1,37,561)	100.0 (2,33,670)

[a]Based on The First Circulated Educational Statistical Data, op.cit. Right ages for grades one to five were taken as 6 and 7, 7 and 8, 8 and 9, 9 and 10, and 10 and 11 successively.

In the light of the above, the significant conclusion is that retardation is a feature of the primary schools of Nepal, though its extent is not exactly known. In the face of such irregularities, planning can be frustrating. However, the writer takes such irregularities into consideration in his estimates of the size of the school-age population for the period 1965-80.

4. Revised Estimates of School-Age Population for 1965-80.- Had each of the primary grade-ages been defined in terms of a single year, for example, age six for grade one, age seven for grade two, and so on, the proportions of chil-

dren in the proper grade-ages, below the grade-ages, and above the grade-ages would have been easily ascertained to make as bases for planning. But as seen in Table 8 the grade-ages are expressed in terms of two years, for example, ages six and seven as the proper ages for grade one, ages seven and eight as the proper ages for grade two and so on. There is two much over-lapping in the specification of the grade-ages in such fashion. To add complications, there are about 60 per cent of over-age cases. Hence, the writer bases his planning for enrolling children during 1965-80 on the data of the 6-11 population, rather than on the data of the 6-10 population. It should be noted that the 6-11 population is 25 per cent more than the 6-10 population.(1) This is as good a way as any in the absence of reliable data on the exact rates of over-age and retardation. The writer assumes that by planning enrollment for the 6-10 age-group on the basis of data for the 6-11 age-group, all cases of retardation and over-age during 1965-80 will be taken care of. It should be noted that most probably this estimate would turn out low, rather than high in view of the ages of children who join the primary schools of Nepal - a pattern which may extend even to the age-group 6-12 or beyond.

5. Targets of Enrollment, 1965-80: A Hypothetical Plan.- In Table 9 the enrollment position of Nepal for the year

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[1]Based on the writer's assumptions on the proportions of the 6-10 and the 6-11 populations, namely 12 per cent and 16 per cent of the total population respectively. See page 75.

1965 and the targets of enrollment for the period 1965-80 are given. The enrollment position of Nepal by 1965 in terms of the 6-11 age-group population is 20.7 per cent (see footnote to Table 9). The reader should note that in terms of the 6-10 population the enrollment position of Nepal by 1965 was 27.5 per cent, but since the writer is basing his plan on the data of the 6-11 population, he will not refer any more to the 6-10 population. In making the estimates for the years 1970, 1975, and 1980 the writer adopts the principle of progressive enrollment, i.e., the proportion of the age-group to be enrolled goes on increasing in successive years. Accordingly, in view of the enrollment position in 1965, a target of enrolling 32 per cent of the primary school-age children is proposed for 1970, 50 per cent for 1975, and 75 per cent for 1980.

TABLE 9

ENROLLMENT TARGETS FOR 1965-80: A HYPOTHETICAL PLAN
(in thousands)

		Targets of Enrollment		
	1965	1970	1975	1980
(a) Total Population (6-11)	1,617	1,786	1,991	2,242
(b) Proportion to be Enrolled	20.7%	32.0%	50.0%	75.0%
(c) No. of Pupils according to (b)	334.0	571.5	995.5	1,681.5

[a]See Table 5 for the 6-11 population for 1965-80.
[b]Derived by dividing 1,617,000 by 334,000.
[c]See Table 6 for the number of pupils enrolled in 1965.

6. The Writer's Targets and Others' Targets.- After formulating the targets it is necessary to compare these targets with those of other plans. In Table 10 four plans on UCFPE in Nepal are presented in juxtaposition to the writer's.

In reality, the HMG-Plan does not cover a long-range period with targets ofenrollment defined in terms of time schedules for attaining UCFPE by a certain date. The HMG-Plan is the name given by the writer for a series of enrollment targets specified in the short-range development plans of Nepal. At the latest, the Second Five-Year Plan of Nepal (1965-70) has aimed to enroll 40 per cent of children aged 6-11 by the end of the plan period, namely, by 1970. Accordingly, 714,400 pupils would have to be enrolled by that date. In other words, the HMG-Plan aims to nearly double the enrollment position of 1965 - from 20.7 per cent to 40 per cent - by 1970. The writer's target is to attain 32 per cent in 1970. This means that the writer's aim is less ambitious than that of the HMG-Plan for the period 1965-70.

The Ten-Year Plan was also a HMG-Plan. Following the address of His Majesty, The King of Nepal, to the Parliament in 1959 in which he referred to the UCFPE-program in Nepal, much talk appeared in the political circle to provide for at least one school to every constituency within a period of ten years, i.e. within 1970. Even the government was influenced by it, but no steps were taken to implement this plan. It must be said that it was an extraordinarily ambitious

TABLE 10

TARGETS OF ENROLLMENT FROM 1960 TO 1980
(Age-Group: 6-11)
(in percentages)

	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980
The Writer's Plan[a] (1965-80)	..	20.7	32.0	50.0	75.0
The HMG-Plan[b] (1956- ...)	12.5	29.0	40.0	..	..
The Ten-Year Plan[c] (1960-70)	11.5	50.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
The Commission's[d] Plan (1955-85)	12.5	22.9	Voluntary universal education by 1975 and compulsory universal education by 1985.		
The UNESCO-Working[e] Plan (1960-80)	9.5	17.5	31.5	56.5	100.0

[a]See text.

[b]The targets of enrollment for 1960 and 1965 are calculated by Upraity in line with the targets under the First Five-Year Plan (1956-61) and the Second Five-Year Plan (1961-65). However, the Second Five-Year Plan was replaced by a Three-Year Plan (1962-65) which set the target at 25%, lower than the original target. The target of enrollment for 1970 is specified in the Second Five-Year Plan (1965-70). For details see Upraity, op.cit., pp. 134-56; Report of Meeting of Ministers of Education of Asian Member States Participating in the Karachi Plan, (Tokyo, 2-11 April, 1962) (Bangkok: UNESCO Regional Office for Asia, n.d.), p.40; Economic Affairs Report, III (March, 1965), p.16.

[c]These targets were those of Upraity, op.cit., pp. 134-56.

[d]These percentages were calculated by Upraity, Ibid.

[e]The writer, for obtaining the above figures, has taken the figures reported in UNESCO, A Working Plan (Kathmandu: UNESCO, n.d.) (mimeographed), pp.3-6. and multiplied them by 5.

plan - a jump from less than 15.8 per cent enrollment in 1960 to 100 per cent in 1970 !

The Commission did not specify the percentages of students it would like to enroll in the future. It simply stated that by 1975 universal education should be realized on a voluntary basis and by 1985 on a compulsory basis.

The UNESCO-Working Plan is the only long-range plan that gives the enrollment schedule from 1960 to 1980. As it was the country extension plan of the UNESCO-Karachi Plan, it revised the enrollment schedule of the Karachi Plan, but its final target remained the same, namely to attain 20 per cent enrollment of the total population of the country in 1980, which meant universal education. But as described earlier, Nepal needs to enroll only 12 per cent of her population to attain universal primary education. In Table 10 the writer has translated the enrollment targets of the Working Plan in terms of the 6-11 population. Below are given both the Karachi Plan for the Asian region as a whole and the Working Plan for Nepal (in terms of percentages of the total population):[1]

	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980
Karachi Plan (for the Asian region as a whole)	1.9	11.0	14.0	17.0	20.0
The Working Plan (for Nepal)	1.9	3.5	6.3	11.3	20.0

[1] UNESCO, A Working Plan, op. cit., pp. 3-5.

Had Nepal enrolled 11 per cent of her population in 1965 (she could enroll only 3.3 per cent of her population[1]), the Karachi Plan would have been more realistic than the Working Plan. The Karachi Plan had put more emphasis on the period 1960-65, i.e., it recommended the enrollment of more proportion of students during 1960-65, while the Working Plan shifted the emphasis to the period 1975-80 (from 11.3 per cent to 20.0 per cent). The writer has done the same, but there is one difference - the writer's aim is not universal enrollment in 1980, whereas the Working Plan's is.

B. The Number of Required Teachers, 1965-80

The purpose of this section is to estimate the number of teachers required under the hypothetical plan of enrollment formulated in the previous section of this chapter.

When education is conceived as a planned attempt to bring economic and social development, the demand for and the supply of teachers are not, and should not be, identical with the "demand" and the "supply" in the economic sense. In the economic vocabulary the two terms imply that under perfect market conditions the interplay between the forces of demand and supply tend to settle, in the long run, the price of the commodity in question. In the educational sphere neither the demand nor the supply can be left at the whim of the market

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[1]Obtained by dividing the total population of Nepal for 1965 by the total number of children enrolled by that date. See Tables 5 and 6.

place. Specifically, in the underdeveloped countries both of them should be created, stimulated, and co-ordinated.

The rise in the demand for teachers is closely related, however, to the increase in the percentage of the school-age population. The supply of teachers depends, to a large extent, on the production of teachers from the training centres in particular, and from the secondary schools in general. The co-ordination between demand and supply is maintained by producing what is required.

The purpose of this section is to estimate the number of teachers required commensurate with the target of enrollment set up in the previous section, and to estimate the required number of trained teachers in line with the proportion established in Chapter I.

An estimate of the number of teachers needed in the future should take into consideration two things: (1) the number of pupils assigned to each teacher as optimum, and (2) the number of teachers needed to replace those who leave the teaching profession. In the following sections the ratios for both will be worked out.

1. Teacher-Pupil Ratio in the Primary Schools of Nepal.- The teacher-pupil ratio is an important index of the educational system of a country. A low ratio, say of 1:20 or 1:25, can be established in economically well-off countries. In the underdeveloped countries the ratio can be as high as 1:50 or 1:60. But in Nepal this ratio is low. Table 11 gives the

TABLE 11

TEACHER-PUPIL RATIO IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF NEPAL[a]
1964-65

	Zone	Reporting Percentage[b]	No. of Teachers	No. of Pupils	Teacher-Pupil Ratio
I	Mechi	82.7	602	16,465	1:27
II	Koshi	46.1	643	15,475	1:24
III	Sagarmatha	64.2	970	23,112	1:24
IV	Janakpur	82.7	807	21,279	1:26
V	Bagmati	58.0	1,027	31,321	1:30
VI	Narayani	84.6	786	20,380	1:26
VII	Gandaki	64.0	1,007	28,107	1:28
VIII	Lumbini	95.6	1,061	31,670	1:30
IX	Dhaulagiri	69.6	245	7,345	1:30
X	Rapti	51.2	260	6,995	1:27
XI	Karnali	98.9	140	4,554	1:33
XII	Bheri	84.9	313	9,655	1:31
XIII	Seti	63.8	283	8,779	1:31
XIV	Mahakali	86.7	416	9,432	1:23
	Total:- (National Average)	70.7	8,550	234,569	1:27

[a]Based on The First Circulated Educational Statistical Data, op.cit., Table 1 for the number of pupils (grade 1 to 5), Table 4 (columns 7,8,12, and 13) for the number of teachers. Estimated number of pupils and teachers for the whole country are 334,000 and 12,000 respectively (of these 500 are female teachers). For details see Table 6.

[b]"Reporting Percentage" means the percentage of schools covered out of all the schools in the zones.

teacher-pupil ratio in the primary schools of Nepal of the latest date, 1964-65. This low ratio is not caused by giving more teachers to fewer students. Table 6 showed that the total number of students from grades 1 to 5 was 334,000 in 1965. Table 11 shows that the total number of primary school teachers was 12,000 in 1964-65 (see footnote). These two figures give a teacher-pupil ratio of 1:28, which is nearly the same as that reported by a sample of 70.7 per cent of all the schools in the country (see Table 11).

In Table 6 it was seen that the heavily enrolling zones were Bagmati (52,800), Gandaki (44,000), and Sagarmatha (35,900), while the poorly enrolling zones were Karnali (4,600), Dhaulagiri (10,600), Mahakali (10,900), and Bheri (11,400). Table 11 shows that in the heavily enrolling zones the teacher-pupil ratio ranges from 1:24 to 1:30, while in the thinly enrolling zones it ranges from 1:23 to 1:33.

An optimum teacher-pupil ratio of 1:40 is recognized by HMG, Nepal as the proper ratio for the whole country and 1:25 as the minimum ratio. Table 11 reveals that all the zones fall below the optimum ratio. It is also interesting that the zonal average in the thinly enrolling zones is higher than it is in the heavily enrolling zones. This may be due to the fact that in the thinly enrolling zones, which lag educationally, teachers are not available. But even then the ratio is below the optimum.

This whole thing boils down to one conclusion: to adopt

a high teacher-pupil ratio as a basis for estimating the number of teachers required in each of the five-year periods, from 1965 to 1980, would lead to an unrealistically low estimates of the number of teachers.(1)

The Working Plan has adopted the ratio of 1:32 for estimating the number of teachers required for the UCFPE-program in Nepal.(2) The ratio of 1:35 is the ratio recommended by the Karachi Plan for its member states.(3)

Thus, inspite of the fact that the ratio 1:35 is rather high the writer, in conformity with the Karachi Plan, adopts it as a basis for estimating the number of teachers needed during 1965-80.

2. The Rate of Replacement.- There is no study made on this aspect of teacher demand in Nepal where no record of the appointment and resignation of the teachers is kept. Only the government teachers (about 400 out of 12,000 at the primary level) are registered.(4) As most of them do

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1The past trends show low ratio. In 1959 Upraity found out that the national average teacher-pupil ratio was 1:30, and schools which had more than two teachers showed a tendency of having less than the ratio of 1:40. See Upraity, op.cit., pp. 88-90. Similarly, in 1962 the UNESCO Mission found out that the national average teacher-pupil ratio was 1:25. See Wood, Educational Statistics for Nepal, op.cit, Table II, p. 7. The Mission recommended to raise the ratio to 1:30 in the minimum and 1:40 at the maximum. See Wood, The Development of Education in Nepal, op.cit., p. 36.

2UNESCO, A Working Plan, op.cit., p. 6.

3UNESCO, "Supporting Document to the Working Papers," Report of the Karachi Conference (Paris:UNESCO,1962), p.107 (mimeographed).

4In Nepal there are two kinds of primary school teachers - the governmental primary school teachers working in the primary schools wholly run by the government, and the non-

not leave profession the attrition among them will not be useful for this study. So the writer makes an assumption accepted by the Working Plan: a 5 per cent attrition rate on the preceeding year's stock of teachers.(1) This rate when applied cumulatively amounts to 32 to 33 per cent in each of the five-year periods from 1960 to 1980.(2) For the sake of this study the writer adopts a 32 per cent replacement rate on the previous five-year period's stock of teachers.

3. The Annual Rate of the Production of Teachers.- Accepting 1:35 as the teacher-pupil ratio and 32 per cent as the replacement rate the writer has estimated the number of teachers needed for each of the five-year periods from 1965 to 1980 (see Table 12). In arriving at these estimates the following methods are used:

a) Under "Teachers Required" is given the number of teachers needed to take care of those children who are to be enrolled in different five-year periods according to the targets of enrollment proposed in Table 9.

b) Under "Increment" is given the number of additional teachers needed to take care of the additional num-

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Footnote continued from the previous page

governmental (also called the public school) teachers working in the primary schools aided by the government. Their status differs; it will be treated in Chapter VII.

[1]UNESCO, A Working Plan, op.cit., Table 5 and pp. 6-7.

[2]Ibid.

ber of children to be enrolled in different five-year periods.

c) Under "Replacement" is given the number of teachers needed in different five-year periods to replace those who, during the preceeding five-year period, may have left the profession.

d) Under "Total" is given the number of teachers needed in different five-year periods both for coping with the increased enrollment of children and for replacing teachers who may have left the profession in the preceeding five-year period.

e) Under "Production Target:Average Per Annum" is given the annual rate of production of teachers needed for the different five-year periods.

f) Under "Production Target:Total Required" is given the number of teachers needed in different five-years including teachers required to meet the target of enrollment and teachers required for replacement.

Accordingly, 19,300 teachers would be needed for the period 1965-70 to enroll 32 per cent of the school-age children; 33,600 teachers for the period 1970-75 to enroll 50 per cent of the school-age children; and 57,100 teachers for the period 1975-80 to enroll 75 per cent of the school-age children. To achieve the above goals the average annual rate of production of teachers should be 2,000 for the period 1965-70, 3,500 for the period 1970-75, and 5,700 for the period 1975-80..

TABLE 12

ESTIMATES OF TEACHERS REQUIRED, 1965-80
(in thousands)

Period	Teachers Required	New Teachers			Production Target	
		Increment	Replacement	Total	Average Per Annum	Total Required
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1960-65	9.5	-	-	-	-	9.5
1965-70	16.3	6.8	3.0	9.8	2.0	19.3
1970-75	28.4	12.1	5.2	17.3	3.5	33.6
1975-80	48.0	19.6	9.1	28.7	5.7	57.1

Column 2: derived by dividing row (c) in Table 9 by 35 (the teacher-pupil ratio.

Column 3: difference of column 2 of two periods for example, 12.1 is the difference of 28.4 and 16.3.

Column 4: 32 per cent of the figure in column 2 of the preceeding period for example, 6.8 is 32 per cent of 9.5.

Column 5: total of columns 3 and 4.

Column 6: column 5 divided by 5.

Column 7: total of columns 2 and 4.

4. Proportion of Trained Teachers for 1980.- In Chapter I the writer had proposed that 50 per cent of all primary school teachers in Nepal should be trained by 1980. In Table 13 the writer has shown how he arrived at this proportion. The Committee recommended that all untrained teachers working in the

TABLE 13

PROPORTION OF TRAINED TEACHERS FOR 1980

(a) Teachers required for the 75 per cent enrollment at the primary level by 1980	57,100
(b) Out of (a) number of teachers to be trained in line with the Committee's recommendation	33,600
(c) (b) as the ratio of (a)	58.8%
(d) Ratio adopted by the writer for the sake of this study	50.0%
(e) Number of trained teachers working in the schools in 1965	2,500
(f) Number of teachers to be trained out of (d) from 1965 to 1980 (28,550 - 2,500)	26,050
(g) Average annual rate of training 26,050 teachers from 1965 to 1980	1,736

(a): Refer to column 7 in Table 12.

(b): Same as above. For the recommendation of the Committee see page 5, and for details see the text.

(e): See for this estimate Table 16.

primary schools should get training within a period of five years from the date of their appointment in the schools. In Table 13 the writer has translated this recommendation of the Committee in numerical terms. In doing so he has based his calculation on the data he used for estimating the number of children and teachers during 1965-80.

Following the recommendation of the Committee and the figures of the requirement of teachers for the period 1965-80, it is seen that, if training is made compulsory to all tea-

chers needed by 1980, then 57,100 teachers will have to be trained. But the Committee allowed five years within which a teacher, if untrained, should receive training. Accordingly, all teachers needed by 1975 should receive training by 1980 at the latest. So the number of teachers who need training would be not 57,100 but 33,600,i.e., out of 57,100 teachers the number of teachers in need of training will be 33,600, a proportion of 58.8 per cent of trained teachers by 1980. The writer regarded this proportion a bit high, and he reduced it to 50 per cent. When the number of trained teachers working in the schools in 1965 is subtracted from 28,550 (50 per cent of 57,100) the number of teachers that should be trained between 1965 and 1980 will be 26,050, or alternatively, the average annual rate of training teachers between 1965 and 1980 should be 1,736.

The next task for the writer is to see whether the above number of teachers can be trained or not. To avoid complications, he will not work out the proportion of teachers that need to be trained for each of the intermediary years between 1965 and 1980; he will only be concerned with the final date of this study, namely, 1980. The rest of this study will be devoted to this purpose.

CHAPTER V

APPROACHES TO THE TRAINING OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN NEPAL

Nepal like all countries needs able recruits to the training centres so that qualified teachers would be produced. The purpose of this chapter is: (1) to introduce each of the approaches to the training of primary school teachers in Nepal (the approaches so far appeared in Nepal), and (2) to evaluate each approach. In what follows each is introduced.

A. Some Approaches to Teacher Education in Nepal

1. The Basic Education's Approach.- As pointed out earlier the history of teacher education in Nepal is very recent. It started in 1949 with the establishment of a Basic Teacher Training Centre at Kathmandu. The purpose of this training centre was primarily to produce teachers able to teach children craft work and other subjects centred around craft in line with the tenets of Basic Education. In its curriculum there was less emphasis upon training the teachers in modern principles of child growth and development, and methods of teaching. As Basic Education did not become popular in Nepal this training centre could not serve the country substantially. It,however, remained a herald to teacher education, which grew into a much wider scale later on, and also a symbol

of the State's recognition of teacher education as a part of the educational system.

2. The Commission's Approach.- In 1954 when the Commission was formed one of the gravest of problems was that of shortage of teachers. The Commission calculated that for a minimum expansion of primary education some 50,000 teachers would be needed. At that time not even 550 students could pass the S.L.C. Examination, partly because secondary education was not expanded and partly because the failing percentage was high (in 1954 out of the 1,415 candidates only 544 passed). With that meagre lot Nepal had to provide students to enter the higher studies. It was impossible to tap the S.L.C. graduates. The Commission saw in those who failed the S.L.C. Examination and those who dropped from the secondary grades the main resource for training teachers. The Commission reasoned as follows:

> It . . . becomes obvious that we must seek elsewhere for candidates. How about the 700 who fail the high school leaving examination each year ? And those who drop out in the eighth and ninth grades ? Does the inability of these students to memorize information to pass the present type of examination detract from their potential ability as primary school teachers in the new schools where emphasis is to be placed on normal child growth and development rather than academic memorization ? Can they be taught to teach children, if not the subject matter ? Perhaps this is the source that must be tapped if we are to staff our primary schools with trained teachers.(1)

The Commission's short-range target was to produce 1,000 trained teachers per year, and its long-range target was to train 4,000 teachers per year after thirty years (by

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[1] NEPC, op.cit., p. 162.

1985). With this end in view it recommended the conversion of the Basic Teacher Training Centre into the National Teacher Training Centre aiming to train the aforesaid number of teachers. This new institution was similar to the Normal Schools found in other countries. In 1954 and 1955 this institution trained 503 teachers including in-service teachers (less than the target because of unavailability of recruits).

In 1954 the training started with a three-month course for the in-service teachers and with a six-month course for the intending teachers. In 1955 the training was extended to 9 months and in 1961 to 10 months. In 1963 a program lasting for two years was introduced.

The immediate aims of teacher education in Nepal were threefold: to arrive at or introduce a common curriculum in all the primary schools of Nepal (the reader will have noticed that there were five types of primary curricula as late as 1959), to produce teachers to attain universal primary education by 1985, and to produce leadership personnel for the villages of Nepal (the primary school teachers were also to act as adult educators). Greater emphasis was put on the first aspect, namely the conversion of the heterogeneous schools into national schools. It took nearly a decade to develop a national image in education and the credit for this goes to the work of the Commission.

3. The Committee's Approach.- The Committee of 1961 recommended that the duration of the training course should

be extended to one year, that the training centres, instead of being mobile, should be housed in permanent buildings (mobile training centres were set up temporarily in different districts for eight to ten months in order to train the local people to serve in the local schools ; its description will follow in due place). It emphasized compulsory training for all the untrained teachers within a period of five years of their appointment in the schools.

The Committee said that, in principle, the recruits to the training centres should be the S.L.C. graduates but that, since they were not available, candidates with lower educational qualifications would have to be recruited. Indirectly, it supported the approach taken by the Commission.

The Committee also recommended some steps to be taken to increase the supply of qualified teachers. The following are some of them:

The Committee recommended that the retired soldiers should be given training for teaching in the primary schools. In 1959, before the Committee had recommended this, some ex-soldiers (about 100) were given training. They were better persons because of their maturity, but because of the fact that they were disciplined in military rules and regulations it is doubtful that they could teach democratic methods of life and decision making as younger teachers could be taught to do. In any case, training of ex-soldiers has discontinued.

The Committee also recommended that a two-years' social service be made compulsory to all persons intending to enter

the government service, and that this social service should consist of teaching in the primary schools. This policy could have created an additional pool of qualified teachers, but the recommendation remained only in blueprint.

The Education Secretary of HMG,Nepal, as one of the members of the Committee, proposed, in a dashing spirit,to increase the number of qualified teachers. He said that without harnessing the entire manpower of the country in nation building activities the development of the nation is not possible. He then proposed that all high school leavers (the S.L.C. graduates) should be obliged to teach in the primary schools for two years as a part of social service.(1) His scheme was, in some sense, analogous to the program followed in Iran, known as the Education Corps Program, according to which a part of the period of compulsory military service is devoted to teaching in the primary schools. But this scheme too remained in the pages of the report of the Committee.

4. The Mission's Approach.- In 1962 the UNESCO-Mission recommended that the training centres should remain mobile until the multi-purpose secondary schools (comprehensive high schools) would be able to take up the responsibility of training the primary school teachers. The Mission agreed with the Committee's recommendation to plan the training course for one year. With this new feature the Mission confirmed the approach taken by the Commission.

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[1]Kulshekhar Sharma, quoted in the Report of the All-Round National Committee on Education, op.cit., p. 112.

5. Mr. Burton's Approach.- Mr. Wilfred Burton, a UNESCO Education Planning Expert for Nepal, after visits to the educational institutions of Nepal in 1963-64 including the teacher training centres, came forth with a vigorous program of teacher education. His chief complaint was that the quality of teaching was wretchedly poor in all the schools of Nepal, particularly in the primary schools. The teachers seldom engaged the children in activities like art work, handwork, music, nature study, physical activities, and organized games. Oriented towards a dull curriculum for five years, the children came out of the schools with foundations laid for lack of manual skills, dislike of physical activities, and lack of initiative. He put the blame on the Commission for the whole state of affairs:

> The teacher is the crux of the situation and it is certain that there is little chance of ever producing teachers competent to do the work for which they are employed. The Commission must bear a large part of the responsibility for this situation since it recommended that the failures and the drop outs of the secondary schools were good enough materials to turn into primary school teachers. .....
> .....
> According to the Commission the failures were to be trained in a course lasting six months with the possible extension later, not only to teach in primary schools but also in literary classes. They were to teach not only the children but also their parents. They were in fact to be the keystone of the new education structure which the Commission designed. It is a great pity that the Commission did not spend more time on considering the necessary minimum qualification for such important work. Then perhaps it would not have made such a harmful recommendation.(1)

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[1]Burton, op.cit., pp. 56-57.

Mr. Burton's visits to the teacher training centres gave him the impression that the efficiency of the teacher trainers was low, that the course-contents of the training was too ambitious (he realized that the course-contents usually take two or three years to be covered in developed countries), and that the maintainance allowances given to the trainees were extremely low. In his words the conditions were "wretched":

> Seeing the wretched conditions of these Normal Schools [training centres] one cannot think how hollow sounding are all the noble words on the teacher and primary education in the National Education Planning Commission's Report "Education in Nepal".(1)

Mr. Burton's comment on the recommendation of the Commission as to the entry qualification leads the writer to reiterate that in 1954 the number of the S.L.C. graduates was less than 550. It was not a question of who is responsible for the poor standards of the recruits but rather a question of the availability of recruits of good standards whom nobody could tap in 1954.

There is a big difference between the thinking of the Commission and that of Mr. Burton on the aspect of teacher training. As already mentioned the Commission's aims of teacher training were threefold, one important item being the provision of UCFPE by 1985. But Mr. Burton does not believe that the government is making serious efforts to achieve it - the government has this only as an intention.(2) Mr. Burton's approach is to bring improvement in the educational system as

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[1] Ibid., p. 45.

[2] Ibid., p. 27.

a whole, and for this he stressed the training of qualified recruits for a longer period.

Mr. Burton's recommendations are: (1) S.L.C. should be the entry qualification for the training of primary school teachers, (2) the training course should last for two years, (3) training should be residential (this implies training centres should cease to be mobile), (4) the teacher trainers should be trained by foreign teacher trainers, and until they become efficient the primary school teachers should be trained by the foreign teacher trainers, and (5) stress should be given on how to teach the primary school teachers the methods of engaging the primary school children in nature study, art work, handwork, physical exercises, and music.

Mr. Burton pushed his point further by saying that it was useless to talk of qualified teachers without reviewing, first of all, the entrance qualification, the training course, the salary, and other benefits to the teachers. "This step", he said, "will require courage and determination on the part of the government, but it is essential if a start is to be made in reforming primary education."(1)

6. The Seminar's Approach.- With a force equal to that of Mr. Burton the Education Seminar of 1965 stressed that the time had come to emphasize quality in training rather than quantity alone.(2) Like the Committee the Seminar recommended

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[1] Ibid., p. 60

[2] Report of the Education Seminar, 1965, op.cit., p. 23.

that training should be made compulsory for all the primary school teachers. But the Seminar too seems to have realized that to recommend the S.L.C. qualification for entry in the training centres would be too ambitious. In this respect it supported the recommendation of the Commission though not in expressed form. It pinpointed, however, that the urgent need was to improve the teaching profession.

B. Evaluation of the Approaches

After introducing all the approaches to the training of teachers it is necessary to investigate the potentialities of each of them. From the discussion one may conclude that there are two approaches to teacher education in Nepal: (1) the first looks at the question from the angle of the type of the training centre for example, whether they should be mobile or be stationary in specific places, and (2) the second looks at the question of qualification for entry into the training centres for example, whether only the S.L.C. graduates or others with lower qualifications should be taken. The following sections deal with both of them.

1. Mobile Training Centres Versus Stationary Training Centres.- When it was seen in 1956 that trained persons would not go to teach in the primary schools of districts other than their own, the National Teacher Training Centre in Kathmandu was converted into Mobile Normal School with branches in other districts. These Normal Schools were temporarily set up in different districts for eight to ten

months in order to prepare teachers locally. From 1956 to 1965 these schools covered 28 distircts (out of 75 districts), training 5,123 primary school teachers in 89 sessions.

Mobile training centres have one advantage: a greater number of people may be attracted. But they have many disadvantages, chief among which are: (1) unsuitable buildings (rented buildings or thatched constructions), (2) inadequacy of instructional materials, (3) difficulties of transportation of school furniture from place to place, (4)difficulties for supervision and disbursement of the necessary money for the training centres (banking facilities are not available in every district of Nepal), (5) sheer want of a corporate life among the trainees (the trainees have to live in rented rooms whatsoever they may be for want of housing facilities in the training centres), and (6) even difficulties in obtaining food articles in some food-deficit areas (in one training centre food-rationing had to be resorted to).

To a great extent, all the above difficulties will be removed by having permanent training centres housed in well-equipped buildings. Four such buildings are under construction, and the tendency is towards having permanent centres located in important parts of the country. It is clear that permanent training centres will greatly reduce the cost of producing a teacher; for it is better to have an adequate number of trainees for a training centre than to have many training centres each with an inadequate number of trainees.

2. The Admission Requirements.- It is to be noted from the foregoing description of the approaches to the training of primary school teachers that it is only Mr. Burton who recommended acceptance of the S.L.C. for entering the training centres. At the time of his recommendation in 1964, 1,886 students passed the S.L.C. Examination. This number is too low, indeed, for a country like Nepal which has hundreds of needs especially for technicians. Besides this, the colleges also need students. It is evident that all the S.L.C. graduates cannot be absorbed into the teacher training institutions.

Mr Burton notes that the Committee had made recommendation similar to his.[1] But it seems he was misled regarding the S.L.C. entry requirement for the training of primary school teachers.[2] The Committee said in one place:

> In principle, the primary school teachers should have at least the School Leaving Certificate (S.L.C.) and also the training certificate from the Teacher Training Centres (Normal Schools). But due to the unavailability of persons with the S.L.C. qualification others with lower qualifications had to be taken.[3]

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[1] Burton, op.cit., p. 60.

[2] Mr. Burton quotes in his report, in support of his recommendation, that the Committee had also recommended the S.L.C. requirement for entering the training centres. He quotes p.18 ofthe English translation of the Committee's report. It appears that a serious mistake had been made in the translation. Mr. Burton himself writes: "In several parts of the Committee's report it is not easy to understand the exact intention of the Committee. It appears therefore that this eminent body was either badly served in the way its decisions were recorded, or else the record of its recommendations has suffered in being translated into English." See Ibid., p. 15. There is no such recommendation in the original document in Nepali.

[3] Report of the All-Round National Committee on Education, op.cit., p. 27.

This was not a recommendation but a regret that such S.L.C. graduates were not available for the training centres. Since the Committee did not recommend the S.L.C. for admission, indirectly it confirmed the recommendation of the Commission.

Nevertheless, Mr. Burton's recommendation has probably resulted from his good intention for educational reform in Nepal. Many educated persons of Nepal wish that the primary school teachers should have more academic background than they have at present. But wishful thinking is not equivalent to planning. Any planner must have his feet firm on the ground under him.

However, Mr. Burton's recommendation can be implemented under one condition: instead of removing the third division in the S.L.C. Examination altogether as was recommended by the Committee[1] it can be retained and the students passing in this division may be directed toward the teacher training institutions. In 1962 the Mission also reported

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[1]The Committee had recommended that the third division in the S.L.C. Examination should not be kept because it had no value. See Ibid., p. 2. There are three categories of passing the S.L.C. Examination: students securing 60% average pass in the first division, students passing with 45% average pass in the second division, and students passing with 36% average pass in the third division. In 1965 of the total number of passing students (3,222) 72% passed in the third division, from 1956 to 1965 of the total number of examinees (not passing students) 21% to 37% passed in this third division. Usually students passing in this third division are not admitted in the science colleges; however, they are admitted in the arts and commerce colleges. For the numbers of S.L.C. graduates placed in different divisions see Summary of the S.L.C. Examination Results, 1934-65 (Kathmandu: HMG, Nepal, Controller of Examinations, 1965) (typewritten).

that college enrollment had increased to an extent beyond the 5 per cent limit recommended by the Commission to 25 per cent of the secondary enrollment.(1) The Mission also indicated that there were some 500 unemployed college graduates, most of them in economics, political science, or history.(2) The tendency of this type of unemployment is increasing.

A policy of refusing admission of the students passing the S.L.C. third division to the colleges could be adopted as a means to check congestion at the college level and also as a means to provide enough students for the teachers' institutes by way of implementing the recommendation of Mr. Burton. But its cost would be too high. First, many colleges, especially the arts colleges of the districts (and some colleges of the capital too) are mostly dependent on those who pass the S.L.C. Examination in the third division. To close the doors of these colleges to them could mean the closing of the colleges altogether. Second, the fact that those of the third division passed in the third division and not in the first or the second division is due to many reasons, one being that the examination system itself is somewhat unrealiable as a true measure of the ability of the students. The ability to memorize plays a great role in this

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[1]Wood and Knall, op.cit., quoted in Wood, "Problems of Educational Planning in Nepal," The Educational Forum, op. cit., p. 48.

[2]Ibid., quoted in Wood, The Development of Education in Nepal, op.cit., p. 53.

examination.[1] Third, lack of qualified teachers in some schools leads to failure on the part of the students. For instance, only a few leading high schools in the whole country have qualified teachers.

In the light of the above facts, one may conclude that for the implementation of a good recommendation like Mr. Burton's one has to wait until the time is ripe,i.e., until there would be high enrollment at the secondary level leading to the production of enough S.L.C. graduates and until efficient techniques of testing the ability of the students are established.

The other recommendations of Mr. Burton are very helpful in bringing reform in the primary schools. For example, he has stressed that the primary school teachers should learn from the training centres how to engage children in educationally playful and non-academic learning activities like nature study, art work, handwork, and music. For this the teacher trainers should be trained, if necessary, by foreign teacher trainers, or should be sent to foreign countries for training.

The discussion in this section shows that the Commission's approach seems a realistic one to meet the present needs of Nepal, though teachers with long academic careers would be unavailable for the primary schools of Nepal for more years to come.

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[1] There is a general complaint against the system of the S.L.C. Examination. For a representative view see the quotation from the Commission on page 109,and things have not changed since the time of the Commission.

C. Evaluation of a Decade's Teacher Education in Nepal, 1954-65

1. Achievement in Teacher Education.- Teacher education in Nepal has been carried on more or less along the lines suggested by the Commission. In 1951 there were in the whole country only 17 teachers trained in foreign countries (mostly in India) - one M.Ed. (Master in Education), 6 B.T.'s (Bachelor in Teaching equivalent to B.A. in Education), and 10 Basic Education Teachers. With the efforts of the Commission the picture has changed. In 1957 the College of Education, a degree granting college, was established. From 1957 to 1965 it had enrolled many students,but due to heavy attrition rate about 200 received their B.Ed. degree (equivalent to B.A. in Education). The College of Education now runs three types of programs: a two-year program for the S.L.C. graduates terminating in an I.Ed. (Intermediate in Education); a two-year program for the Intermediates (two years of college courses) terminating in a B.Ed.; and a one-year program for the graduates (arts or sciences or commerce) terminating in a B.Ed. The College trains secondary school teachers, teacher trainers for the teacher training centres at the primary level, and educational administrators. In 1965 an M.Ed. class was started at the Tribhuwan University of Nepal and a program of training the S.L.C. graduates on the teaching of the primary school courses was incorporated in the program of the College. The College is an integral part of the university. One

extension college of the College of Education was established in 1964, and one more is going to be established in the near future.

The progress made in teacher education at the primary level is shown in Table 11. From 1954 to 1965 the total number of trained teachers was 5,626. The Mobile-Normal-School program started in 1956 and by 1965 it trained 5,123 primary school teachers in 89 sessions. The magnitude of the task is evident from the 89 sessions in 28 districts in 10 years particularly in a country where communication facilities are very scant, and where "intellectual regionalism"[1] is widespread. The team of teacher trainers (composed of two to eight) were the first group of intellectuals who broke with this "intellectual regionalism" by working in the interior parts of the country. They had to work under many hardships; they, however, assisted greatly in the spread of new thinking and practices in the remote parts of the country, and thus gave impetus to the spread of primary education.

It is seen from Table 14 that while the number of centres fluctuated from year to year the number of trainees remained about constant (in proportion to the number of centres). It is only in 1963 that the number fell down.

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[1]His Majesty, The King of Nepal, while addressing a mass rally of teachers in 1963, pointed out that the intellectuals should realize the educational needs of every nook and corner of the country and stressed that the teachers should give up the tendency to prefer to work only in the facilitated parts of the country. See the Report of the All Nepal Secondary School Teachers Conference, op. cit., p. 18.

TABLE 14

TRAINING OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN NEPAL
(1954-66)[a]

Year	Number of Training Centres	Total Trained
1954*	1	118
1955	1	385
1956	2	124
1957*	7	591
1958	6	582
1959*	11	513
1960	14	697
1961	15	610
1962	12	435
1963*	8	377
1964*	7	598
1965*	7	596
Total:	91	5,626
1966*	5	Undergoing Training 745

[a]Source:- HMG, Nepal: Division of Primary School Teacher Training.

*Denotes the in-service training program run side by side with the pre-service training program. About 850 in-service teachers are trained up to 1965.

Of the total trained (5,626) teachers it is estimated that 350 are females; up to 1964 the total number of females was 324.

In Table 15 a very interesting phenomenon is observed. The year 1954 is regarded as the base year both for the number of primary schools and for the number of trained teachers. During 1954-65 the rate of growth of primary schools was slower than the rate of producing trained teachers for the primary schools. The growth in the number of trained teachers was 12 to 15 times as much as the growth in the number of primary schools. But inspite of this spectacular achievement in teacher education, if the new teachers are distributed evenly among the various schools, each will receive less than two teachers on the average. The implication is that, if new teachers are to be given to new schools that are to be opened, the rate of production of new teachers must accelerate more than the rate of opening new schools.

TABLE 15

INDEX OF GROWTH OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS AND TRAINED PRODUCTS IN NEPAL, 1954-65[a]
(Index Year: 1954)

Year	Primary Schools		Trained Products		
	Number	Rate of Growth	Number	Rate of Growth	No. of Trained Teacher for one School
1954	1,320	-	118	-	0.09
1961	4,001	303%	3,620	3,068%	0.90
1963	4,913	372%	4,432	3,756%	0.90
1965	5,001	379%	5,626	4,768%	1.25

[a]Based on the following sources: for the number of primary schools Table 2, and for the number of trained products Table 14.

On the whole, the opening of the College of Education, the addition of elementary-teaching courses to the curriculum of the College, and the starting of teacher education at the post graduate level in the university are good signs of the growing awareness on the part of both the government and the people of the necessity of promoting teacher education. Directly, or indirectly, these measures will raise the quality of primary school teachers.

2. Wastage in the Training Program.- Training of teachers is one aspect, and the absorption of the trained teachers in the schools is another aspect. In Table 16 the number of trained teachers (those trained from 1954 to 1964), the number of trained and untrained teachers working in the schools in 1965, and the number of trained teachers who did not enter the profession are given.(1) The total number of trained teachers is 5,030, and of these 2,532 trained teachers are absorbed in the primary schools, and the remaining 2,498 trained teachers are wasted. In every program a little wastage is tolerable, but in this case the wastage is as high as 50.3 per cent. It is this high rate of wastage that has kept the proportion of untrained teachers in the primary schools very high (78.9 per cent of total).

Table 16 further shows that 3,120 teachers (both trained and untrained) are the holders of the S.L.C. These S.L.C.

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[1]The number of teachers trained in 1965 is not included in the above estimate because these teachers might have been appointed by 1966; the writer's estimate is up to 1965 only.

holders also teach in the secondary grades, especially in those parts of the country where qualified teachers are not available for the secondary schools. This means that the above estimate that nearly 80 per cent of the teaching force at the primary level is untrained may be an underestimation.

TABLE 16

TRAINED TEACHERS IN SERVICE IN NEPAL, 1964-65[a]

	S.L.C.	Below S.L.C.	Total
1. Total number of teachers trained from 1954 to 1964	N.A.	N.A.	5,030
2. Trained teachers working in the schools	996	1,536	2,532
3. Wastage of Trained Teachers	N.A.	N.A.	2,498
Percentage			50.3%
4. Total of both trained and untrained teachers working in the schools	3,120	8,880	12,000
5. Untrained teachers working in the schools	2,124	7,344	9,468
6. Ratio of trained teachers to total number of teachers	31.9%	17.3%	21.1%

[a]Based on The First Circulated Educational Statistical Data, op.cit., Table 4. The estimated total number of primary school teachers (12,000) has been kept intact, the details arethe writer's estimates based on the "Total" figures of the aforesaid source and on the proportion between "S.L.C." and "Under Matric". The percentage of each of the columns 7,8,12, and 13 of the above mentioned source are applied in finding the total figures for each category making N=12,000.

Regarding the percentage of wastage a government document supports the writer's estimate:

> In our country the program of training primary school teachers had started in 1954, and by 1960 two thousand teachers were trained, but owing to many defects of that time 50 per cent of the teachers joined other professions.(1)

The government document did not specify the defects but the Committee specified them:

> Due to the administrative inefficiency, lack of co-ordination between the training program and the placement program, and other factors, many trained teachers are not employed.(2)

Utilization of trained teachers in the primary schools of Nepal depends upon many things, and this subject will be treated separately later (Chapter VII). But at this stage it is appropriate to point out that the program of teacher education in Nepal seems to be independent of the program of opening new schools or training the in-service teachers. It would not be an exaggeration to say that people took teacher education as a U.S. "gift" but failed to realize that in every three-dollar "gift" from the U.S. there was a very costly Nepali rupee.(3) Put in terms of money, the loss

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[1]A Glimpse on the Development of Education in Nepal (Kathmandu: HMG, Nepal, Ministry of Punchayat, Department of Publicity, 1963), p. 10.

[2]Report of the All-Round National Committee on Education, op.cit., p. 27.

[3]When the training program started in 1954 under the HMG/U.S.O.M. Joint Fund Program the ratio of the contributions from HMG,Nepal and the U.S.O.M. was Re.1: $ 3. See Six Years of Educational Progress in Nepal (Kathmandu: Bureau of Publications, College of Education, 1959), p.62.

caused by the unemployed trained teachers amounts to at least Rs.1,373,900.[1] Aside from this monetary loss this wastage caused spiritual loss as well - a skeptical outlook on the teacher training program appeared everywhere, from the parliament down to the layman in the street.[2]

Since 1954 the trainees were required to sign a contract saying that they would serve in a school for five years after graduation. But they have been avoiding it. Penal power given by the contract - taking back the money spent on the trained teachers in case they do not fulfil their pledge - may be used, and by this method the government may come out successful in many cases. But this would have adverse effects on the size of future enrollment in the training centres.

As for this study, the writer is primarily interested in finding out to what extent the current approach to teacher training may guarantee the production of the needed number of trained teachers by 1980. In the following chapter he takes up this aspect.

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[1]Based on the lowest of unit costs of Normal Schools, that is Rs.550 for the Fiscal Year 1957-58. See Wood, Educational Statistics for Nepal, op.cit., Table XI, p. 14. For the total costs and the unit costs of the training program from 1957 to 1965 see Table 20.

[2]In the sessions of the elected Parliament of Nepal (1959-61) a member spoke disparangingly on the teacher training program but did not suggest any solid line of action for its improvement.

CHAPTER VI

POTENTIALITIES OF THE CURRENT APPROACH TO TEACHER PRODUCTION IN NEPAL

The current approach to teacher education in Nepal is the Commission's approach in a modified form. The modifications have taken place in the recruitment procedure, the duration of the training period, the nature of the course-contents, and others. Whether this modified form of the Commission's approach is effective enough to produce the required number of trained teachers depends upon a number of things. A well known figure in teacher education in present-day America says in this respect:

> . . . In any state, all efforts to upgrade teacher education, or indeed any aspect of public school program, must take into account the funds, facilities, and personnel available within that state.[1]

These three components - funds, facilities, and personnel - determine also the effectiveness of the current approach to the production of trained teachers for the primary schools of Nepal. Making these three components as bases the writer will explore in this Chapter the potentialities of the current approach for providing at least 50 per cent of the needed teachers by 1980 with professional training.

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[1]James B. Conant, The Education of American Teachers (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1963), 32.

In this connection, the term 'personnel' is broken down into: (1) the teacher trainers, and (2) the trainees or the recruits. 'Funds' relate to the budget of the training program, and 'facilities' relate to those aspects which help promote the efficiency of both the teacher trainers and the trainees, and to the conditions that are conducive to attract more recruits. For the sake of convenience, these three components will be dealt with in reverse: first the 'personnel', second the 'facilities', and third the 'funds'.

A. 'Personnel'

1. The Teacher Trainers.- With the exception of a very few teacher trainers, the teaching staff of the training centres in Nepal are the college or university graduates. In 1963 the teacher trainers, 41 in number, had the following academic qualifications:[1]

Master's Degree	9.8 %
B.A. Degree	26.8 %
B.Ed. Degree	39.0 %
B.A. Degree & B.Ed. Degree	7.3 %
Others	17.1 %
	100.0 %

Those who had a Master's degree graduated from the Tribhuwan University of Nepal or from a university of India majoring in the humanities (Literature, History, Economics, Political Science etc); the holders of B.A.'s graduated from the arts colleges; the holders of the B.Ed. degrees graduated from the College of Education; the holders of two degrees (B.A. and B.Ed.) took their B.Ed. degrees before or

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[1]Based on Normal School Division Bulletin, I (Kartik, 2020) (October-November, 1963) (mimeographed).

after they took their B.A. degrees.[1] The "others" include Agriculture Specialists, Arts Specialists, and the like.

Since 1963 all new appointments of teacher trainers are made from among the graduates of the College of Education. This means that the above proportions are changing in favor of professionally trained teacher trainers (B.A. and B.Ed. degrees holders or B.Ed. degree holders). Those who were appointed before 1963 were given training in workshops which started since 1956, and which constitute an organic part of the training program at the present time. These workshops are held at the end of the program of the training centres when all the teacher trainers assemble at Kathmandu. The purpose of this workshop training is to find solutions to the problems that might have cropped up in the different training centres, to make continuous evaluation of the training programs in the light of field experience. Another purpose is to gear the program of training teachers to the changing needs of the primary schools in the country. Primary school textbooks are evaluated, and methods of teaching of different subjects at various grade levels are discussed.

The high rate of turn over is the main problem concerning the training personnel; experienced hands move away from the training centres. This is partly because they do not get the same service benefits such as pension and provident fund like other government servants.[2] Each year some of them are

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[1]The College of Education runs two kinds of B.Ed. programs: a One-Year Course for the B.A.'s and a Four-Year Course for the S.L.C. graduates.

[2]In Nepal there are two categories of civil servants:

sent to foreign countries for further education or training, and the Ministry of Education absorbs most of them when they return. These two factors have caused the high rate of turn over among the training personnel.

2. The Trainees.- Before 1963 the recruitment formula was exactly like the one recommended by the Commission, i.e., to recruit into the training programs those who failed the S.L.C. or dropped out of the secondary schools. In 1963 some changes were introduced according to which the training program was not any more made accessible to anybody having the above mentioned qualifications but rather it was changed to include those who were sent by the Inspector of Schools of the various districts. The Division of Primary School Teacher Training (the central organ responsible for the training of teachers) sends to all school inspectors the number

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Regular and Developmental. The Regular Civil Servants get service benefits like retirement pension, provident fund (a certain proportion of the civil servants' salaries is deducted and deposited each month in a fund known as the Provident Fund and they get back their money together with interest when they leave the employment). But the Developmental Civil Servants do not get these privileges. Some of them get the privileges of 'Gazetted Officer'. There are three categories of the rank 'Gazetted Officer'. The term is a status giving term too, it is the degree of the government's recognition of the services of the civil servants. The salaries are determined according to the employment classifications and ranks. In the Non-Gazetted come the teacher trainers who have served for less than five years. In other departments of the government persons with similar qualifications get the Gazetted rank without having had to wait for five years for it. Conferring of a Gazetted rank on the teacher trainers with five years of service has taken place recently (1965). A major cause of discontent among the teacher trainers is their feeling that this governmental policy is discriminatory against them.

of seats alloted for their respective areas. This is called the quota system of recruitment.

The training consists of two types: Pre-service training and In-service training. Pre-service training is meant for those candidates who have teaching experience for less than two years or have no teaching experience at all, while in-service training is meant for those who have teaching experience of more than two years. Each category of training is further divided into a one-year and a two-year courses. The placement of the candidates in either of the two categories is done on the basis of their academic qualifications. Those who have completed grade 8 and above are placed in the one-year course, those who have not completed grade 8 are placed in the two-year course.

There are also variations in placement of candidates in terms of the areas they come from. For this purpose, four categories of areas are defined: the capital and the town area, the Terai area, the hill area, and 20 far-flung regions which are educationally underdeveloped. Those who come from the capital and the towns have to meet the highest qualification, namely S.L.C. class (grades 9 and 10) or preferably the S.L.C., while those who come from those 20 regions are accepted with the very minimum qualification, namely primary school certificate. All, however, have to be fifteen years of age or above.

In practice, there are only two types of classes whether for the in-service or the pre-service. The first year

of the two-year program is devoted to academic preparation which attempts to cover the topics given in grades 6, 7, and 8 of the high schools including a little English. The second year of the two-year program is devoted to profe-ssional preparation. For the one-year group the entire year is devoted to professional training. Practical training takes place at the end of the training period and lasts for four to five weeks.

The above arrangement is definitely an improvement over the previous one when anybody from any place could take the training. But when the question of placement would come up, such trainees would refuse to go to places other than their own. Under the quota system school inspectors are held responsible to meet the demand of their areas with the teachers so trained. They have the penal power to take back the money in case the trainees decline to work in the areas selected for them. However, there are many points of escape, and even the teachers trained under this quota system are avoiding their obligation. The major reason is that after the training they are not immediately placed. But compared with the earlier system this new system is an impr-ovement.

Though this quota system has an advantage over the previous system, it suffers from the shortage of recruits to the training centres. The school inspectors are unable to fill the quotas assigned to their areas. In some places there are no candidates to be recruited, in other places

the candidates that they find are not willing to join the training centres.

Table 17 is presented to show that even under the quota system of training there is the problem of the wastage within the quotas. The figures for the period 1958-62 are for the training program under the previous system of recruitment, those of the period 1963-66 are for the training program under the new quota system. The program target is set up according to the development plans of Nepal like the First Five-Year Plan. It is seen that the highest proportion of candidates turned up in 1960, and the lowest in 1962, the average recruitment for the period 1958-62 comes to 60 per cent of the target. On the achievement side the highest proportion of those who passed the program was in 1960, and the lowest in 1962, the average for the period 1958-62 comes to nearly 57 per cent. Under the quota system, between 1963 and 1965, the highest proportion of recruitment was in 1965. The important thing is that under the new quota system the target was raised from 1,000 to 1,600 teachers per year. But the average proportion of recruitment remained about 60 per cent. The net result is that a larger number of teachers completed the program after 1963 than before.

Mention has to be made of the program target for 1966. Nearly all the quotas are filled (97 per cent). But it is to be noted that the quota was brought down from 1,600 to 785. It is said that the government did so in order to co-

ordinate the program of training teachers with the program of opening new schools. From the study of the past trends it is doubtful whether, had the program target been kept at 1,600, more than 785 candidates would have turned up for training. Thus the percentage of recruitment for 1966 is not as high as it seems in Table 17.

TABLE 17

PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM IN NEPAL - TARGET AND ACHIEVEMENT[a] (1958-66)

Year	Program Target	Trainees Turned Up	Trainees Passed	% of Target
1958	1,000	62 %	582	58
1959	1,000	54 %	513	51
1960	1,000	73 %	697	70
1961	1,000	64 %	610	61
1962	1,000	46 %	435	44
1963	1,600	49 %	707[c]	45
1964	1,600	62 %	901[c]	57
1965	1,600	70 %	1,007[c]	63
1966	785	97 %	Undergoing training	

[a]Source:- HMG, Nepal: Division of Primary School Teacher Training.

[b]Data not available; the above figures are the writer's estimates derived by assuming 5 % attrition rate for the period 1958-62, and 10 % attrition rate for the period 1963-65. Higher attrition rate for the period 1963-65 is assumed because of the probationery period (two months) of the trainees and periodic examinations, both of which cause dropouts.

[c]The figures also include trainees of the two-year group passing in their first year.

The writer looked into the reasons that make the trainees join the training programs. In Table 18 the reasons for joining the training course are shown in terms of the respondents' reasons listed in first, second, and third degrees of importance. 63.8 per cent of them stated that the most important reason for joining the program was that they believed in the value of training for teachers; 23.8 per cent joined to help their families with the money they get at the training centres; 4.3 per cent came for more education, thinking that any education is better than remaining idle at home; only 1.1 per cent joined because they were advised by the School Secretaries or the School Inspectors to take up training; the remaining 7 per cent gave other reasons (see footnote, Table 18). The second most important reason given by 39.2 per cent was the desire to obtain more education and kill their idle times; 30 per cent of them stated as their second most important reason their feeling that training is necessary to become teachers.

From Table 18 it can be inferred that a little less than two-thirds (63.8%) of the intending teachers have professional committment. Further, a great number of them join training to compensate for some deficiency in their education; for most of them are primary school graduates or middle school graduates.[1] The third emphasis is on money.

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[1]Data covering all the trainees of the 1965 sessions not available at the time of this study. But the questionnaire returns showed that out of 169 trainees who indicated their qualifications 146 (86%) were primary school graduates

TABLE 18

TRAINEES' REASONS FOR JOINING THE TRAINING PROGRAM
(in percentages)

Motive	First Reason	Second Reason	Third Reason
1. "To help my home financially."	23.8	1.3	7.3
2. "Training is necessary to become teachers."	63.8	30.0	3.3
3. "The Inspector of Schools and my School Secretary advised me to be trained."	1.1	13.7	9.8
4. "To have any education is far better than to have little or no education."	3.2	24.8	18.7
5. "This training at least will relieve me from remaining idle at home."	1.1	14.4	26.8
6. Other reasons[a]	7.0	15.8	34.1
Total:-	100.0 (185)	100.0 (153)	100.0 (123)

[a]"Other reasons" include service to the nation, spreading education in the community, opening a school, bringing reform in the school, to get respect in the community,"I was jealous of the trained teachers working with me in the school", "Trained teachers have more prospect in the future though not at present", and the like.

The returns to the questionnaire further showed that some 20 per cent of the trainees had no intent of becoming teachers but rather they intended to join some other profession. Nearly two-thirds of them had higher educational

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or middle school graduates (the writer has regarded trainees who had not passed the S.L.C. Examination as middle school graduates). See Table 26.

aspirations beyond the S.L.C. level. These two factors tend to show that, compelled by circumstances, even if they work as teachers a certain percentage of them may not remain in the school even for five years although they are bound by a contract to teach for five years.

Table 19 shows the responses of the pre-service trainees and the in-service trainees to the writer's question: "How long would you like to serve in the school ?" On the surface it seems that there is no marked difference between the pre-service and the in-service trainees in terms of intentions to teach beyond five years. Whereas 61.8 per cent of the pre-service trainees said that they would serve for more than five years, a little more (78.4%) of the in-service trainees had a similar answer. But when their answers are subjected to a Chi-Square Test it is found out that more of the in-service trainees intend to serve for more than five years than the pre-service trainees.[1] It can be said with a confidence level of 95 per cent that in-service trainees tend to remain in the teaching profession more than the pre-service trainees.

It should be remembered that out of 189 trainees 22 did not answer at all and 5 answered that they did not

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[1]The Chi-Square value of the N's given in Table 19 comes to 6.607. The Null Hypothesis is that there is no difference between the pre-service trainees and the in-service trainees intending to teach for more than five years. The above value of Chi-Square is significant at .05 level, for it requires the Chi-Square value at less than 5.991 to reject the above Null Hypothesis with 2 df. Hence, the above Null Hypothesis is rejected with a confidence level of 95 per cent.

TABLE 19

TRAINEES' INTENT TO SERVE IN THE SCHOOLS
(in percentages)

Trainees	Do not intend to serve at all	Intend to serve for five years	Intend to serve for more than five years	Total
Pre-service	4.9(5)	33.3(34)	61.8(63)	100.0(102)
In-service	0.0(0)	21.6(14)	78.4(51)	100.0(65)
Total:-	3.0(5)	28.7(48)	68.3(114)	100.0(167)

intend to teach even for one year while the rest replied that they intended to teach either for five years or for more than five years. Since all trainees had signed a bond to teach for at least five years most of them specified a minimum of five years. This could be due to their fear of making any written confession contrary to the bond. There is no means to check whether they would actually serve for five years or not.

However, at this stage it is seen that nearly 68 per cent of the trainees had an intention of serving the schools for more than five years. But this too must be said with reservation because "other things" affecting their intention of serving the schools for "at least five years" are supposed to remain favorable to them. These "other things" will be treated in a related chapter.

B. 'Facilities'

Most of the trainees come from far-off places . A sum of Rs.75 per month is given to the one-year in-service group,

and Rs.55 per month to other groups. Both amounts are inadequate to those who cannot supplement them with some petty cash brought from home. The training centres do not have housing facilities for the trainees. When the buildings for the training centres would be completed (two are almost completed and two more to be completed by 1968) both the staff members and the trainees would get housing facilities. Only then will the trainees have a better chance of experiencing a spirit of a campus life. At present they live under poor conditions and complain of many difficulties. First aid facilities are given but in long illness they have to bear their own hardships. Books are given on loan during the training period.

The trainees are generally low quality students of the primary schools, the middle schools and the high schools. They bring with them the varying degrees of educational deficiencies, and it is extremely difficult to pay attention to each of them in large classes.A few of the S.L.C. graduates join the training centres where there are facilities of joining the arts colleges either in the morning or in the evening and they also join the same training class. Thus a session would include people of varying standards in which some are advanced and many are flung far behind. This is one of the reasons that they fail and return home.

The poor social and economic background of the trainees, their low educational motivation, the lack of literature for teacher education in the Nepali language and the almost com-

plete dependency upon the lecture, and lack of a corporate life and other things combine to make it impossible to realize, to any significant degree, the basic objectives of teacher education as formulated by the Commission.(1)

The overloaded curriculum adds further impediments to the above factors. The course consists of some child psychology including child growth and development, principles and methods of teaching, lesson planning by units of different subjects and by grades of the schools, craft-work, health education, physical training etc.(2) A greater part of the professional year is spent on how to teach the school subjects and a practice teaching of four to five weeks is done in the neighboring schools.

On the whole, the graduates of the training centres are a changed product if compared to what they were before joining the centres, but as to their efficiency as teachers the issue is doubtful. Much depends upon the interest and effort of the trainees to get profit from the training than

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[1]The Commission stated the objectives as follows:
"First, the teacher should be professionally competent. . . . Second, the teacher should possess a broad general education, to serve him as a teacher and as an adult. . . . Third, the teacher should be personally competent in the basic vocational crafts and in the skill required to teach them. . . . Fourth, the teacher should be well developed personally and skilled in the process of continuously improving himself."
For details see NEPC, op.cit., pp. 163-66.

[2]For details of the current training course see Normal School Workshop: Revised Curriculum of Two-Year and One-Year Normal School Programme (Kathmandu: HMG,Nepal, Normal School Division, 1965), pp. 1-50 (mimeographed).

upon the existing facilities to enrich them. Nevertheless, those who come from the far-flung areas where there is little or no education become great assets to their communities when and if they go back.

C. 'Funds'

1. Budgetary Trends of HMG, Nepal.- In Nepal there are two kinds of governmental budgets, the regular budget and the developmental budget. The regular budget depends on the resources of the government and the developmental budget depends on foreign aid. But there is a lot of overlapping between the two. From 1952 to 1961, of the total governmental expenditure education as a whole got a share ranging from 5 per cent to 8 per cent per year.(1) In the First Five-Year Plan (1956-61) education received 10 per cent of all foreign grants donated to the country, while the greatest of share went to transport and communication (44%).(2) During the Three-Year Plan (1962-65) education as a whole got 6 per cent of the total budget of the plan, the greatest of share again went to transport and communication(35%).(3) In the current Second Five-Year Plan (1965-70) education received 8 per cent of the total budget, transport and communication again getting the biggest share (36.3%).(4)

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[1]Wood, Educational Statistics for Nepal, op.cit., Table VIII, p. 12.

[2]Ibid., Table X, p. 13.

[3]The Three-Year Plan (1962-65) (Kathmandu: HMG, Nepal, Ministry of Economic Planning, 1963), pp. 44-45.

[4]Economic Affairs Report, III (March, 1965), op.cit., Table 4, p. 7.

This pattern indicates that education seems to receive a maximum of 10 per cent of the total governmental budget with or without foreign aid. By 1961, of the total education budget half was given to primary education, 30 per cent to higher education, 10 per cent to secondary education, and the remaining 10 per cent to teacher education.(1) The College of Education takes a part of this 10 per cent and what remains goes to the training program of primary school teachers.

2. Budgetary Trends in the Training Program of Primary School Teachers.- In Table 20 the total cost and the unit cost of teacher training program are given. Total cost (column 2) shows the budget of the training program at different years. The irregularity of this budget from one year to the other is due to many factors. The budget consists of many expenditure items like salaries, wages, scholarship, equipment, supplies, travel, building, and miscellaneous. The training centres are housed either in rented buildings or in temporary bamboo constructions. So buildings do not enter under non-recurrent costs and almost all the expenditure is operational costs. Thus, the irregularity in the budget is due to changes in the cost of these from one year to another. Another cause is the establishment of different numbers of training centres in different years.

The total cost shows a tendency to rise. In 1958-59

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[1]Wood, The Development of Education in Nepal, op.cit., p. 26.

it rose by 53 per cent over that of 1957-58, the cost index (column 4); by 76 per cent in 1960-61; and finally by 180 per cent in 1964-65. Similarly, the unit cost (meaning the cost of training a teacher) rose by 75 per cent in 1958-59; this rise,however, fell to 14 per cent in 1959-60; but again went up to 87 per cent in 1960-61 and to 78 per cent in 1964-65. The relationship between the cost index (column 4) and the index cost per unit (column 5) is never at an equilibrium, i.e., 100:100. Only in 1959-60 this relationship approaches an equilibrium.

TABLE 20

TRENDS IN TOTAL COST AND UNIT COST IN PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM IN NEPAL[a] (1957-65)

Fiscal Year (July-June)	Total Cost in Rs.000	Unit Cost in Rs.	Total Cost in Index	Unit Cost in Index
1	2	3	4	5
1957-58	356	550	100	100
1958-59	546	960	153	175
1959-60	428	626	120	114
1960-61	629	1,030	176	187
1961-62	n.a.	n.e.	n.e.	n.e.
1962-63	579	819	163	149
1963-64	663	736	186	134
1964-65	993	986	280	178

[a]Based on Wood, Educational Statistics for Nepal (Eugene, Oregon: The American-Nepal Education Foundation,n.d.),Table XI, p. 14 for the figures for the F.Y.'s 1957-58 to 1960-61 and on the expenditure of the Division of Primary School Teacher Training for the F.Y.'s 1962-63 to 1964-65. The unit cost in the latter case is derived by dividing the total expenditure by the number of trainees trained as shown in Table 14.

The disproportional rise in both the total cost and the unit cost is caused by many factors. The scholarships given to the trainees have been raised from Rs.45 to Rs.55 per month or to Rs.75 per month depending on whether the trainees are in the pre-service or in the in-service category; the salary of the staff has also been raised; so was the general improvement cost. In addition, travelling allowances to the trainees, which were not given before, have been provided since 1963.

But in comparison to these rising costs the number of recruits has not risen enough to bring down the unit cost. For example, in 1962 a training centre was run in Doti for eleven trainees, in 1963 another training centre was run in Illam for ten trainees. In theory, each of these trainees cost not more than Rs.550 at the rate of Rs.55 per month, but in practice, he cost many times more than this amount. In short, the training of teachers has been done in an uneconomic manner because of the shortage of candidates.

3. Probable Size of Trained Products, 1970-80.- The above sections on the budget of HMG, Nepal, and on the budget of the training program shed considerable light on the supply of trained teachers for the period 1965-80. The above sections have shown the following trends since 1957:

a) Education as a whole has been getting almost the same proportion of the total governmental budget including or excluding foreign aid, namely 5 to 8 per cent of the total governmental budget.

b) The unit cost in the training program shows a tendency to rise.

c) The budget for teacher education got 10 per cent of the education budget during 1956-61 including a share that went to the College of Education.

On the basis of these trends the writer would like to explore how matters will be in 1980 with respect to the training program. For this he makes some assumptions:

a) The Second Five-Year Plan has already alloted a budget for education as a whole, 8 per cent of the total allocation until 1970. The writer assumes that this proportion would remain constant during the period 1971-80 though its amount in absolute figures will definitely be on the rise.

b) The share of the College of Education in terms of proportion and that of the Department of Training Primary School Teachers would remain the same.

c) The unit cost in the training program which was Rs. 986 in F.Y. 1964-65 (see Table 20) would remain at Rs. Rs. 1,000 throughout the period 1970-80.

d) The Second Five-Year Plan says that the planning agency of Nepal has the objective of doubling, through subsequent plans, the Gross Domestic Product (also called the Gross National Product, that is, the GNP) in fifteen years, i.e., by 1980.[1] The writer assumes that the GNP will be doubled and will reach the same amount during the F.Y.'s 1969-70, and 1974-75 as stated in the above plan (see Table 21).

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[1] The Economic Affairs Report, III (March, 1965), op.cit., Appendix I-III.

e) The budget for training primary school teachers for the F.Y. 1964-65 was Rs.986,000 (see Table 20). The estimated GNP of Nepal for 1964-65 was Rs.4,700,000,000(see Table 21). The ratio of the training-budget to the GNP for the F.Y. 1964-65 was, then, 0.00021, that is, 21 pice in every Rs.1,000 (100 pice make a rupee). The writer assumes that this ratio remains the same for the period 1970-80 (see Table 21).

f) Ninety per cent of the enrolled trainees would pass the training program (see footnote, Table 17).

Within the framework of these assumptions, specifically the last four, the writer has estimated the probable size of the budget of the training program (excluding that of the College of Education), the enrolling capacity of the training program in accordance with the budget, and the probable size of the trained products for the period 1970-80. The reader should note that with the budget of the F.Y. 1969-70 the training sessions are run for 1970, with the budget of the F.Y. 1974-75 the training sessions are run for 1975, and so on.

Accordingly, for the F.Y. 1969-70 the budget would be Rs.1,155,000; for the F.Y. 1974-75 the budget would be Rs.1,461,000; and for the F.Y. 1979-80 the budget would be Rs.1,974,000. With these budgets and with the unit cost of Rs.1,000 the training program would be able to enroll 1,155 trainees, 1,451 trainees, and 1,974 trainees for these respective years. Allowing for a rate of 10 per cent as drop-

TABLE 21

WRITER'S ESTIMATES OF THE PROBABLE SIZE OF TRAINED PRODUCTS, 1970-80

Fiscal Year	GNP in Rs. 000,000	Ratio of Training Budget to GNP	Probable Size of Training Budget in Rs.000	Unit Cost of Training in Rs.	Enrolling Capacity of Training Program	Size of Net Trained Products
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1969-70	5,500	0.00021	1,155	1,000	1,155	1,040
1974-75	6,900	0.00021	1,461	1,000	1,461	1,314
1979-80	9,400	0.00021	1,974	1,000	1,974	1,776

Column 2: Based on Economic Affairs Report: Special Five-Year Plan Issue, III (March, 1965), Appendix 1-III. (mimeographed)

Column 3: Derived by dividing the GNP for the F.Y. 1964-65 (Rs.4,700,000,000) by the budget of the training program for the F.Y.1964-65 (Rs.986,000). For the GNP see Ibid., and for the budget of the training program Table 20.

Column 4: Derived by dividing column 2 by column 3.

Column 6: Derived by dividing column 4 by column 5.

Column 7: Derived by subtracting 10 per cent of the figures in column 6 from the same.

outs the net products from the training program would be 1,040 teachers for the year 1970, 1,314 teachers for the year 1975, and 1,776 teachers for the year 1980.

Table 22 shows the required rate of production of teachers, the probable enrolling capacity of the training program, and the probable net products from the training centres for period 1970-80. It is seen that by 1970 the rate of production of teachers should be 2,000 per annum (during 1965-70),

TABLE 22

ESTIMATES OF THE RATE OF PRODUCTION OF TEACHERS AND THE TRAINING CAPACITY, 1970-80

	1970	1975	1980
a) Required Rate of Production of Teacher Per Annum	2,000	3,500	5,700
b) Estimated Enrolling Capacity of the Training Program	1,155	1,461	1,974
c) Net Trained Products from the Training Centres	1,040	1,314	1,776

[a]See Table 12.
[b,c]See Table 21.

but the training capacity is far less than the required rate of production. Similarly, by 1975 (during 1970-75) the rate of production of teachers should be 3,500 per annum, but the training capacity is still far less than the required rate of production. The gap between these two rates widens all the more between 1975 and 1980.

The above calculation is made on the assumption that all the required number of teachers should be trained. If this is so, then the training program may, under highly favorable conditions, produce the above required number of teachers annually. But since the proportion established by the writer was half of the total 57,100,i.e., 28,550, these 28,550 teachers should have received training by 1980 at the latest. In 1965 some 2,500 trained teachers were working in the schools. This means that 26,050 additional teachers should be trained during the period 1965-80.

To train these 26,050 between 1965 and 1980, the average annual rate of enrollment in the training centres should be 1,736, not including those who would leave. When attrition is included about 1,900 trainees should be enrolled. According to the estimate made in Table 22 the training centres would be able to take this number in 1980. This means that if the budget for the training program is not increased to a higher proportion of the GNP it would be too inadequate to achieve this target.

The above calculation is meant to estimate the enrolling capacity of the training program; it does not take into consideration the "other things" such as that the training centres may not find enough candidates, that those who are trained may not join the profession, that those who join may not remain in the profession for an adequate period of time, and so on. These "other things" are very much connected with the status of the teaching profession. In the next chapter the writer will discuss some of the important issues relating to the status of the teaching profession in Nepal.

CHAPTER VII

SHORTAGE OF TRAINED TEACHERS IN NEPAL

In this chapter the writer will attempt to explore the causes of shortage of trained teachers in Nepal. The information on which this investigation is based are taken from the responses to a questionnaire administered by the writer to the intending teachers who were under training in 1965. At that time Nepal had seven teacher training centres with 1,371 trainees. The questionnaire was administered only in three centres - Kathmandu, Birgunj, and Pokhara. Other centres were not approached because they were too far from the capital. Of the 600 trainees in these three centres a sample of 189 trainees was selected including members from various districts of the country. Also, the sample included the one-year and the two-year program groups, the in-service and the pre-service program groups.

These 189 trainees came from 32 districts out of the 75 districts of Nepal. As such, the respondents may not be representative of the whole country. Moreover, the conclusions that can be drawn from the responses of the trainees should be limited in other ways. For example, the questionnaire was administered by the staff of the training centres in the absence of the writer. So some degree of distor-

tion may have crept in the responses due to some misunderstanding of some items on the questionnaire. It should be also be noted that the questionnaire was the first of its kind administered to the would-be teachers of Nepal. Nevertheless, the returns of the questionnaire have shed considerable light on many things.

A. Sources of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of the Intending Teachers

1. Sources of Satisfaction.- The intending teachers enmumerated ten sources that give them satisfaction in teaching at the primary level. The most important are the following quoted by more than half of them:

Source of Satisfaction	Proportion of Respondents Referring to This Source
1. Teaching as service to the community or the nation.	85 %
2. It is interesting to teach the child.	60 %
3. One can contribute to the development of education in the country by teaching.	88 %

2. Sources of Dissatisfaction.- The trainees described at length the causes of their discontent with the teaching profession at the primary level. Some of these causes are given verbatim:

In a poetic language a trainee of 18 from Gorkha wrote:

> "We the teachers have this experience that we are called upon to make the stream flow which has no

> water, to light the fire for which there is no fuel. The teacher is a responsible person, but half fed. With a stomach half filled nobody can work. The teacher is given the work of five persons [he meant instead of five teachers a single teacher has to cover five grades in the primary schools]. From one point of view the teacher is the highest authority, but from another point of view his position is lower than that of the office peon."

Another trainee of 19 from Syanza commented on the teachers' problem in the complexity of human relationship:

> "In my opinion the teaching profession is a creditless profession, because the School Managing Committee finds fault with the teacher, the Inspector of Schools also does the same, and to crown all, the villagers also lay charges upon him."

A trainees of 18 from Baglung looked at the problem of teachers in another way:

> "The teachers of Nepal are divided into the governmental teachers and the non-governmental teachers. The governmental teachers look after their own interests. They do not like to have relationship with the non-governmental teachers."

Another trainee from the Tanahu district, a man of 21, complained:

> "A teacher gets his monthly salary after six months or a year. He is compelled to resort to agriculture. Hence, he cannot develop the art of teaching the children."

A trainee from the Kaski region of the Gandaki zone - just a boy of 17 - said:

> "The teacher cannot give good education because he cannot maintain a good living from the teaching profession alone. He has to take refuge in other professions too. Hence, it is evident 'No man can cross the river by putting his legs on two boats'. In such circumstances how should the teacher teach ?"

Another trainee from the Kaski region spoke in a statesmanlike fashion:

> "So long as the daily problems of the teachers are not solved no good work from them can be expected. . . . The government is exploiting the primary school teachers. So long as the government will be adopting the policy of 'discrimination' and 'punishment' instead of the policy of 'diplomacy' and 'endowment' towards the teachers nothing good will come from them."[1]

A girl of 18 from Parvat came forth with three basic suggestions to bring reform in primary schools:

> "(1) Adequate pay to the teachers, (2) Uniform curriculum in the country, and (3) Continued professional training of the teachers."

The above extracts are representative views of some of the trainees. When all the trainees are taken together the most important causes of dissatisfaction with teaching at the primary level can be grouped into ten areas. In Table 23 the extent of dissatisfaction is shown in terms of percentage than an item was checked. These figures show that more than 90 per cent of the trainees complained of the poor salary conditions and more than 80 per cent complained of the lack of social security benefits. Nearly t

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[1]These four terms 'diplomacy', 'endowment', 'discrimination', and 'punishment' are the common terms in the political life of the country popular in the sayings of Nepal. It means that a king or a statesman can rule or administer the country by considering which of them would suit the time. Usually, 'diplomacy' and 'endowment' make one policy which is democratic or fitting to a benevolent monarchy. The opposite (non-democratic) is made of 'discrimination' and 'punishment'.

The political process of Nepal in terms of these four terms is described at length in Chapter II.

TABLE 23

SOURCES OF DISSATISFACTION AMONG THE INTENDING PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Source of Dissatisfaction	Reporting Percentage
1. Poor Salary	94
2. Lack of Facilities for Pension and Provident Fund	82
3. Insecurity of Tenure	60
4. Untimely Payment of Salary	64
5. Un-cooperative Attitude of the Villagers	54
6. Lack of Better Treatment from the School Managing Committee	66
7. No Prospect of Promotion	71
8. No Prospect of Further Education	75
9. Low Esteem in the Eyes of the Government	54
10. Lack of Equipment and Favorable Working Conditions in the Schools	68

N = 189

of the trainees complained that there is no security of tenure and another two-thirds reported that in their home areas teachers were not paid on time. The attitude of the School Managing Committee towards the teachers was more frequently identified as a source of discontent than the attitude of the villagers towards the teachers. Attraction to the teachers in the form of promotion or in the form of a chance for further education seems conspicuously lacking. Again, no less than

half of the trainees had the notion that even the government sees the primary school teachers in low esteem. Added to these, the trainees seem to think that the conditions in the primary schools of their home areas are not favorable to them.

B. Choice of Profession of the Trainees

The choice of profession of the intending teachers is matched with three other variables, namely, their parental economic status, their parental occupation, and their educational qualification. This comparison serves to shed light on the relationship between their complaints and their choice of profession.

1. Choice of Profession and Parental Economic Status.- The trainees were asked what profession they would choose assuming that they had complete freedom to do so. They were given the choice of pure teaching, teaching in combination with agriculture, pure agriculture, and others (business or service). In another question they were asked to classify their parents' economic status as 'rich', 'average', or 'poor'. In Table 24 these two sets of information are matched together. It is seen from this table that the trainees whose parents belonged to the 'rich' and the 'poor' categories preferred teaching with or without agriculture a little more frequently than the trainees whose parents belonged to the 'average' category. On the other hand, it is seen that the trainees from the 'average' families chose teaching as a profession connected with agriculture much

more frequently than the 'rich' or the 'poor'. But, taking all trainees, regardless of economic background, it is found that from 73 to 81 per cent of them intended to enter the teaching career as a main or subordinate profession.

TABLE 24

TRAINEES' PARENTAL ECONOMIC STATUS AND CHOICE OF PROFESSION (in percentages)

Parental Economic Status	Choice of Profession				
	Pure Agri-culture	Agricul-ture & Teaching	Pure Teaching	Others	Total
Rich	0	43	36	21	100 (14)
Average	6	51	22	11	100 (112)
Poor	5	42	39	14	100 (41)
Total:-	5 (8)	49 (83)	27 (46)	19 (32)	100 (167)

2. Choice of Profession and Parental Occupation.- In Table 25 trainees' parental occupation and their choice of profession are matched. Those trainees who came from agricultural background chose teaching in combination with agriculture more frequently than they chose teaching independent of agriculture. In the case of the trainees whose parental occupation is 'others' (service and business) the situation is nearly reversed. But still 75 percent chose either teaching in combination with agriculture or teaching alone.

TABLE 25

TRAINEES' PARENTAL OCCUPATION AND CHOICE OF PROFESSION
(in percentages)

Parental Occupation	Choice of Profession				
	Pure Agri-culture	Agricul-ture & Teaching	Pure Teaching	Others	Total
Agriculture	5	53	25	17	100 (147)
Others	5	30	45	20	100 (20)
Total	5 (8)	50 (84)	21 (35)	24 (40)	100 (167)

3. Choice of Profession and Educational Qualification.- In Table 26 the educational qualifications of the trainees and their choices of profession are matched. Trainees, irrespective of their educational qualification, had stronger attachment to 'agriculture and teaching' than to 'teaching' alone. But the trainees with the S.L.C. qualification had stronger tendency to join 'other professions' than those whose educational qualification is below that.

4. Implications.- The popularity of agriculture-teaching combination apparent in Tables 24, 25, and 26 have various implications. On the positive side, this means that the trainees are passing through a process of transition from agriculture to teaching - from the cultivation of land to the cultivation of mind. In this process the combination of teaching

TABLE 26

TRAINEES' EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION AND CHOICE OF PROFESSION (in percentages)

Educational Qualification	Choice of Profession				
	Pure Agriculture	Agriculture & Teaching	Pure Teaching	Others	Total
Below S.L.C.	5	49	28	18	100 (146)
S.L.C.	0	52	22	26	100 (23)
Total	5 (8)	49 (83)	27 (46)	19 (32)	100 (169)

with agriculture is most probably a favorable influence that leads to the promotion of teaching; it may take time, but it will dominate. At this stage agriculture is supporting an innovation.

But, on the other hand, one may conclude that the trainees are still attached to agriculture for lack of financial security. The fault is not that of the teaching job itself but of the poor salary the teachers get. Thus, one may conclude that, if teaching is made attractive financially, more persons will choose to join it, and that after training fewer of them would return to agriculture.

But to say that the little attraction of the teaching profession can be explained in terms of financial reasons alone is a simplification of the problem. It is the writer's opinion that the strong attachment of the trainees to agriculture is not a direct result of the poor pay of the teaching

profession alone, but that it is a symptom of an emotional attachment to the soil. These people, most of whom come from agricultural backgrounds, have grown up tilling and harvesting the fields, year in and year out, with stubborness and and fortitude fitting the nature of a stubborn land. The land promises them something directly connected with their labor, while the school does not ensure them food in a direct way.

In this connection one may comment on the kind of training given to the trainees who come from agricultural backgrounds. This training does not lay emphasis on their interests in land, but rather it is oriented towards teaching the teachers how to teach the children the school subjects which are miles apart from the realities of their life with the land. There are few activities which help promote their efficiency to work in the fields and also teach the children about their life with the land. Because of these reasons the present training course has little challenge to them and makes them better teachers, better farmers, and better craftsmen only to a very limited extent. It is a pathetic paradox that in a predominantly agricultural country like Nepal the training course emphasizes a curriculum fitted to urban society.

C. The Status of the Teaching Profession in Nepal

While the above discussion relates to the would-be teachers of the primary schools of Nepal,it does not explain adequately the causes for the shortage of qualified teachers in the country as a whole. There are many factors affecting

the supply of teachers. At the root of it is the status of the teaching profession itself which is responsible for causing problems in the educational development in the country.

The World Confederation of Organization of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP) which held its first Asian Expert Meeting in New Delhi in 1963 defined the teaching status thus:

> The esteem or prestige accorded by society to a profession . . . vary from country to country for a variety of reasons - historical, geographical, political, social. Status can be assessed only in relation to its environment and changes in society. Such an assessment of the status of the teaching profession can be made by considering: (1) the academic and professional requirements for entry, (2) the financial and other economic benefits, (3) the professional responsibility assumed, (4) the freedom of teachers to take part in public affairs, and (5) the degree of public recognition.(1)

Adopting this definition as a framework one may take each of the above five factors in turn and examine each in the light of what is happening in Nepal.

1. Academic Status of the Teaching Profession in Nepal.- According to the WCOTP academic status depends upon two things: (a) academic and professional preparation for entry into the profession, and (b) in-service programs or improvement programs.(2)

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[1]World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP), Survey of the Status of the Teaching Profession in Asia (New Delhi: WCOTP Asia Office, 1963), pp. viii-ix.

Ibid.

In principle, in-service programs should be accompanied by or followed with academic preparation so that teachers would be able to keep themselves abreast of the body of knowledge incident to teaching at the primary level. But in Nepal these two aspects stand as alternatives. Those who are not teachers for at least two years are given training known as the pre-service training, and those who have teaching experience of more than two years are given training known as the in-service training. But there is no basic difference between the two programs - candidates to either are required to have attained the same educational qualification, then when admitted both are put together, and both go through the same course.

As seen in the previous chapter, the emergency measures taken to meet the huge demand for teachers under the pressure of great expansion of primary education since 1954 was responsible for the low entry requirement for training. These emergency measures continue till the present time.

The educational deficiencies of the trainees could be removed more easily had the training period been of longer duration. An academic year of ten months including about two and half months of holidays is supposed to make up for the academic deficiencies of the trainees. But this time is not enough. Only few trainees are academically up to the 9th or 10th grade of the secondary schools. Nor are the courses designed to remove those academic deficiencies. The courses are designed to give the trainees knowledge in subject-matter

which is only a little above the level of the primary school subject-matter.

This means that a primary school teacher enters the profession with low academic qualifications, which remain more or less low throughout the training period; and for lack of facilities to upgrade himself while on the job, remains low for ever.

On the professional side, the training program is too advanced in comparison with the qualifications of the recruits, the ten months period is too short a period for adequate professional training. Thus it is not amazing that few teachers come out properly trained.

In concluding, it can be said that a teacher once trained in Nepal is trained for ever. There is no continual training, and the certificate of the training centres is the dead end of the training.

2. Economic Status of the Teaching Profession in Nepal.- In view of the low per capita income in the underdeveloped countries teachers generally consume a greater part of the national income than their counterparts in the advanced countries. The Jamaican primary school teachers receive 3 times the per capita income of Jamaica, the Ghanaian primary school teachers 5 times the per capita income of Ghana, and the Nigerian primary school teachers 7 times the per capita income of Nigeria.(1) In comparison, the Nepali

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[1] W.A.Arthur Lewis, "Priorities for Educational Expansion," Policy Conference on Economic Growth and Investment in Education, III: The Challenge to Aid to Newly Developing Countries (Paris: O.E.C.D., 1965), p. 38.

governmental primary school teachers receive 2.7 times the per capita income of Nepal.[1]

a) The Salary Scale of the Primary School Teachers.- In 1959 the salary of a governmental primary school teacher started from Rs.60 per month and reached, by annual increment, Rs.105 per month in 20 years after which a teacher became pensionable. In 1965 this salary scale was revised in order to cope with the rising cost of living. Employees under the 4th class of the Non-Gazetted category[2] including the primary school teachers received an increment of nearly 56 per cent which was nearly double of the increment given to the higher-level salary holders, i.e., the 1st class of the Gazetted category. This was done because the salaries of the former group were very low. According to the revised salary scale a governmental primary school teacher began to receive Rs.90 per month, the maximum salary figure, Rs.135 per month, reached after 20 years of service which would be followed then by a pension.

On the other hand, the salry scale of the non-governmental public primary school teachers does not follow the governmental scale. Some of them receive salaries higher than the governmental teachers, but their great majority receives lower salaries. They have none of the facilities of the governmental teachers like pension, provident fund,

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[1]Derived by dividing the per capita income of Nepal for 1965 (Thweatt's estimate; see Chapter II) by Rs.1,080, the annual salary of a governmental primary school teacher.

[2]There are four divisions in the Non-Gazetted rank of the government employees.

leave, annual increment in salary, and others.

In Table 27 the trends in the salaries of the primary school teachers from 1954 to 1965 are shown. In 1954 most primary school teachers got salaries ranging from Rs.30 to Rs.40 per month.(1) At that time the governmental rate was Rs.45 per month. But Table 27 shows that more than 25 per cent of the public primary school teachers got salaries lower than what their governmental counterparts got. In 1959 when the governmental scale was increased to Rs.60 per month the above proportion of teachers rose to more than 50 per cent, and to more than 70 per cent when the governmental scale was further increased to Rs.90 per month in 1965. However, in the case of teachers with the S.L.C. qualification the above mentioned situation was a bit improved - a little above 25 per cent of teachers with this qualification got salaries lower than their governmental counterparts.

In Table 28 the salaries of the governmental primary school teachers are compared with the cost of living. The cost of living index is for the Kathmandu Valley.(2) In

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[1]In 1954 an attempt was made to make the communities pay one third of the teachers' salaries to be raised later until the communities pay the full cost after a certain number of years. But this plan failed because the communities did not pay even one-third of the teachers' salaries. In most villages people thought that the teachers were 'gifts' from the government, and as such, 'gifts' should not be paid for.

[2]This study is done annually by U.S.A.I.D., Kathmandu, Nepal. See Economic Data Papers Nepal, Vol. 8 (March, 1966), p. 1 (mimeographed).

TABLE 27

SALARIES OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN NEPAL
1954-1965
(in percentages)

Salary Per Month	1954[a]	1959[a]	Qualification S.L.C. 1965[b]	Qualification Below S.L.C. 1965[b]
Above Rs.200	-	-	1.1	0.6
Rs.151 to Rs.200	1.5	1.2	4.0	1.1
Rs.101 to Rs.150	9.4	6.8	18.5	5.2
Rs.76 to Rs.100	9.1	10.3	49.1	24.1
Rs.51 to Rs.75	22.8	23.1	25.0	60.4
Rs.31 to Rs.50	30.8	27.1	2.3	8.6
Up to Rs.30	25.1	23.4	-	-
No Fixed Salary	25.1	8.2	-	-
Total:-	100.0 (1,629)	100.0 (151)	100.0 (173)	100.0 (174)

[a]Upraity, op.cit., Table X, p. 93.
[b]From the returns to the writer's questionnaire.

the salary column the annual increment is included. The year 1959 is the base year for both the categories.

Table 28 shows that from 1959 to 1964 there was a rise in the cost of living in the Kathmandu Valley by 48 per cent. In comparison, teachers' salaries increased by 17 per cent. Upon the revision of the salary scale in 1965 the difference between the two indices was diminished: 156 for the cost of living and 150 for the salary.

TABLE 28

SALARIES OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS AND COST OF LIVING IN NEPAL 1959-1965 (Index Year:1959)

Year	Governmental Primary School Teachers' Salaries (Annual)[a]	Cost of Living (Kathmandu) (Annual)[b]
1959	100	100
1960	103	102
1961	106	112
1962	110	121
1963	113	127
1964	117	148
1965	150	156

[a]Based on Nepal Gazette (Chaitra,2016) (March,1959) and on Nepal Gazette (Ashadh,2022) (July,1965).

[b]Based on Economic Data Papers:Nepal, Vol.8 (March, 1966), p. 1 (mimeographed).

It is assumed in Table 28 that the cost of living and the salary were equal in 1959. Actually, salaries in 1959 were far below the cost of living. In one of the districts of Nepal (Pokhara) the cost of living for one person was estimated to be roughly Rs.90 per month.(1) This district was passing through an inflationary period in 1959. The

[1]The above estimate was done by the writer in 1959 when he was working in the Normal School of Pokhara. The study was based on the family budget of twelve trainees.

prices in other districts might have been lower. But, on the whole, there was a big difference between the cost of living and the salary. If a teacher had a family, say of four persons (the average size of a family was actually 5.3 persons according to the 1961 census[1]), the load and anxiety to the teacher then would have been too much.

Coming to the public school teachers (non-governmental) the matter is more serious. Table 27 indicated that at least 50 per cent of the public school teachers in 1959 received salaries below the minimum salary of a governmental teacher (without annual increment). Evidently, had there been no additional income from agriculture (for those who had land) the gap between the cost of living and the salary would have been exorbitant. Even for those who received additional income from agriculture the cost of living would remain high indeed.

b) Late Payment of Salaries.- One of the causes of dissatisfaction expressed by the would-be teachers was that teachers were not paid in due time. Table 29 shows the extent of irregularity in payment of the salaries. From this Table it is seen that not even a "friendly" School Secretary paid the teachers regularly; 44 per cent of the reporting trainees said so. The situation became worse when the School Secretary was not "friendly", i.e., indifferent to the teachers. In such cases 90 per cent of the trainees

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[1] Preliminary Report of the Population Census, 1961 (Kathmandu: HMG, Nepal, Ministry of Economic Affairs, Central Bureau of Statistics, 1962), Table 2, p.10. (mimeographed).

said that secretaries did not pay the teachers regularly. Irrespective of the kind of the secretaries, 64 per cent of the trainees reported that, in general, teachers were not paid on time.

This irregularity of payment of salaries is due to the fact that financial aid to the schools, which in most cases does not cover the teachers' annual salaries, arrives late, and that the funds of the School Managing Committee are not adequate. These things create difficulties for the teachers.

TABLE 29

RELATIONSHIP WITH THE SCHOOL SECRETARY AND REGULARITY OF PAYMENT (in percentages)

Relationship of the School Secretary with the Teacher	Regularly Paid	Not Regularly Paid	Total
Friendly	56	44	100 (101)
Authoritarian	12	88	100 (34)
Indifferent	9	91	100 (45)
Total:-	36 (67)	64 (113)	100 (180)

c) Differences in Inter-Departmental Salaries.- In Table 30 the salaries of the governmental employees are compared with those of teachers with similar qualifications. In 1964 if a S.L.C. graduate had three job opportunities in different departments of the government, as a primary school teacher (under the Education Department), as a jun-

ior Agricultural Technician (under the Agriculture Department), and as an Overseer (under the Technical Department), such a person would most probably have chosen not to become a teacher. A person who had failed in the S.L.C. Examination would have probably tried again to pass it and then go to the other departments for a job than join a teacher training centre. By waiting for one more year he would have a better salary in departments other than education.

TABLE 30

COMPARATIVE SALARIES OF THE GOVERNMENT EMPLOYEES IN DIFFERENT DEPARTMENTS OF HMG,NEPAL,1964[a]

Employment	Minimum Entrance Qualification	Training Period	Salary after Training Per Month
Primary School Teacher (Education Department)	S.L.C.Failed of Secondary Grade Dropper	One or Two Years	Rs.75 (Fixed)
Junior Agricultural Technician (Agricultural Department)	S.L.C.	One Year	Rs.125-225
Overseer (Technical Department)	S.L.C.	Two Years	Rs.225-360

[a]Six Months' Report of Mr. Wilfred Burton (UNESCO Education Planning Expert) (Period September 1963 to April 1964) (Kathmandu:Resident Representative U.N.T.A.B., P.O. Box 107,n.d.), p. 58. (mimeographed).

3. Professional Status of the Teaching Profession in Nepal.- According to the WCOTP the professional status is based on two things: (a) freedom of association, and (b) degree of influence of the teachers' organization on educa-

tional policies and programs.[1] One may modify these as follows: (a) organizational consciousness of the members of the teaching profession, and (b) degree of influencing the educational practices. In what follows each of these is dealt with:

a) Organizational Consciousness at the Primary Level. For the promotion of the teaching profession, first of all, members of the profession should develop a group consciousness in order that they may form an association of their own. At present there are two educational associations in Nepal: an Association of the University Teachers, and a National Secondary School Teachers' Association. The primary school teachers do not have any association of their own. Sometimes they are mixed up with the secondary school teachers. Since 1959 there had been meetings and conferences of the school teachers at the zonal and the district levels in which a few primary school teachers were included. But these activities have not motivated the primary school teachers to form an association of their own.

As a matter of fact, the primary school teachers seem lost for want of a dynamic leadership. Implicitly, they are of less importance and calibre than teachers at higher level. In 1963 the government helped the secondary school teachers call a national conference. But nothing has been done for call-

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[1] WCOTP, op.cit., pp. 89-103.

ing the primary school teachers for a conference. Educational leadership is available at the secondary level,but it has not extended a helping hand to the primary school teachers.

b) Degree of Influencing the Educational Practices at the Primary Level.- It is high time that educational leadership from among the primary school teachers be formed or helped to be formed. The writer believes that for any change in education there should be a network of institutional mechanisms, and it is in this sense that teachers' organizations at the primary level are necessary. Unless the primary school teachers themselves take interest in the improvement of the primary schools through organizational effort, it is difficult to conceive of appropriate changes in the primary schools.

4. Freedom to Take Part in Public Affairs.- The WCOTP has included two things in this respect: participation in public affairs and representation in legislature and statutory bodies.(1) In Nepal teachers can run for office at any level of the Punchayat. Teachers' organizations are not regarded as political organizations, but rather as professional. It has been the tradition among teachers not to take part in political activities.

5. Degree of Public Recognition.- The status of the teaching profession is dependent on the image it has in the

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[1] Ibid.,pp. 104-107.

eyes of the government and the general public. The government's regard for the teachers is generally assessed by considering whether and to what extent it favors the representation of teachers on national educational bodies and whether it appreciates teachers' meritorious service by conferring on them national honors or national certificates.

In the two national educational bodies of Nepal - the Commission of 1954 and the Committee of 1961 - experienced teachers were represented. In the latter more secondary school teachers were consulted on important matters. The Association of University Professors and the National Secondary School Teachers' Association are expected to play important role in the educational bodies that are to be set up in the future. But what is important in this respect is the extent to which these association will be able to influence the policies and programs of the government. Of still greater significance is that teachers' organizations should be represented on the forthcoming National Education Board which will decide on many important issues.

In Nepal teachers are in a better position in respect of receiving national honors. In the past the Ranas conferred such honors on some teachers. But people suspected that such honors were given because of the teachers' devotion to the Ranas who put their children in the charge of the teachers. After the removal of the Ranas many teachers received national awards or certificates and they still do that at present.

With regard to the teachers' esteem in the public eye, the Nepalese teachers held in the past a very high position. They were respected both in the society and in the government, to the extent that they were called "Gurus" (Spiritual Preceptors). Further, teachers were regarded as next to God in the heavens, and next to father on earth. People used to bestow gifts on them in the form of land or money. When education took a secular turn, and when members of any caste could join the profession, especially after the introduction of the English system of education, the old status was gone. Even now, in some parts of the country, teachers are given the same status as in the olden days. But after the many economic and social,changes the status givers have become the employers of the teachers. It is in the hands of the teachers now to demonstrate their worth to the public and reclaim their old status.

One of the basic problems that discourages people from joining the teaching profession is the absence of a salary scale for teachers comparable with the salary scales for people in other professions. Not even the governmental scale, the minimum national scale, is available to the teachers of the public (non-governmental) schools who compose nearly 95 per cent of the total number of teachers at the primary level in Nepal.

The condition of teachers in Nepal, whether at the primary or at the secondary level, is grave. In a mass rally of teachers the Education Minister emphasized that the time had

come for them to offer sacrifices and to dedicate themselves for building the nation.[1] The same evening a leading Nepali daily wrote in its editorial:

> So far as the question of sacrifices is concerned we must remember that when a person joins the profession of teaching he has already sacrificed because the conditions of the teachers in the secondary schools [and in the primary schools in particular] are pitiable. Hence, when the government expects more sacrifices from them but fails to recognize their unfavorable economic conditions the call to make sacrifices seems demagogical spoken from the public platform. . . . So long as the economic conditions of the schools are not improved not a single teacher would remain permanently in the schools. That is the reason why the teaching profession has not become attractive and the quality of education has not improved. To increase by threefold the government aid to the schools which are economically weak means solution to all the problems.[2]

The editor seems, in the above statement, to have a ready-made solution: triple governmental aid. But the quality of teaching does not improve simply by giving more aid to the schools to pay the teachers more. In addition to that, it improves by giving teachers more education, by helping them develop insight into and sympathies with the difficult process of teaching.

D. Recommendations of the National Educational Bodies to Improve the Teaching Profession in Nepal

It would be wrong to suppose that there have been no

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[1]Hon.,Kirti Nidhi Bista, The Education Minister's Address to the All Nepal Secondary School Teachers' Conference, November 7, 1963, Report of the All Nepal Secondary School Teachers' Conference, op.cit., p.4.

[2]Nepal Samachar, November 7, 1963 (Kartik,20, 2020), quoted in Ibid., p.

efforts in the direction of making teaching a better profession and a more respectable job. All the national educational bodies, from 1954 to 1965, have been deeply concerned with improving the working conditions of the teachers. All have made recommendations for improvement. Instead of giving the recommendations of each educational body separately, namely, the Commission of 1954, the Committee of 1961, and the Seminar of 1965, the writer gives a summary of the recommendations under five headings: (1) the Academic Status, (2) the Professional Status, (3) the Economic Status, (4) the Public Recognition of the Teaching Profession, and (5) Miscellaneous.

1. The Academic Status

a) Training should be made compulsory to all teachers and the trained or the qualified teachers should be given a teaching licence (teaching permit or teacher certification).

b) In-service programs should be organized to train the untrained teachers working in the schools

c) Teachers having long educational career or teachers raising their educational qualification while in service should be given promotion.

2. The Professional Status

a) A national teachers' association should be formed to strengthen the profession by setting up standards and a code of ethics, and to weed out by its own organizational policy the unfit and the unsuited.

3. The Economic Status

a) Teachers should get salaries comparable with those of other government officials having the same educational qualifications, and the government should

arrange for satisfactory salaries for the public school teachers too.

b) The teaching profession should be made permanent and pensionable, and social security facilities like Life Insurance Policy, free education for the children, Provident Fund, medical facilities, and the like should be extended to the teachers.

c) Special allowances should be given to trained teachers, to teachers working in difficult areas, and to teachers wishing to go and serve in the far-flung areas.

4. The Public Recognition of the Teaching Profession

a) National honors, medals, and decorations should be conferred on those teachers who do meritorious teaching services.

5. Miscellaneous

a) Before appointing teachers schools should contact the Inspector of Schools to get trained teachers.

b) Trained teachers should be given work within a year of their training; otherwise they may join any other job.

c) The Inspector of Schools should be appointed from amongst the senior and the most experienced teachers.

d) Emphasis should be given to recruiting teachers from the same locality where they are to work.

e) Women should be attracted to teaching in the primary schools, and even the retired soldiers should be trained to teach in the primary schools.

f) A "Grow-More-Teachers Campaign" ("Produce More Teachers" or "Be Teachers") should be started in the High Schools.

g) A widespread publicity should be started to improve the image of the profession of teaching in the eyes of the general public.

All the above recommendations are, without doubt, designed to promote the status of the teaching profession in

Nepal. But one thing seems to have been forgotten, namely that when any educational body is appointed by the Ministry of Education or by any other organ of the government, the teachers' organizations should be represented. There is no doubt that the Ministry of Education has been giving honorable place to experienced teachers and to popular persons who were teachers before. But an individual cannot influence the policies and programs of the government as much as organization can. With the exception of one educational body - the Commission - none of the above bodies even referred to teachers' organization.

It is not necessary that all the recommendations of various educational bodies should be adopted as lines of action. But what is discouraging is that the same recommendations have been repeated over and over - from 1954 to 1965. The latest educational body - the Education Seminar of 1965- pointed out the signs of defeatism that was common in the nation from 1954 to 1965. The Seminar said:

> The more arrangements are made to introduce successful teaching methods and to give importance to teachers for the educational development program, the more indifference is observed towards improving the conditions of the teachers and making the teaching profession attractive. To put it in a nutshell, the teaching profession is now at a critical point. It has lost its attractiveness, and qualified and ambitious candidates have begun to avoid it. Many educated youths regard it as a profession for killing time. The result is that candidates for the profession are of an inferior group from which no scientific educational system, whatsoever, can be expected to develop.(1)

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[1] Report of the Education Seminar, 1965, op.cit., p. 23.

With these warnings in the background the Seminar recommended three measures of reform. These recommendations, though included in the above section, are quoted again below for the sake of emphasis:

1. To make the teaching profession attractive.
2. To bring the teaching profession under the control of the government.
3. To provide security to the teaching profession and means for the self-improvement to the teachers.(1)

To what extent would these recommendations be implemented no one can say at this stage. The previous trends show that the recommendations of the previous educational bodies have remained unrealized. It seems that for the sake of implementing such recommendations some political decisions have to be made beforehand.

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[1] Ibid. For a complete breakdown of the above three recommendations see Ibid., pp. 24-25.

CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUSION

This chapter is divided into: (A) findings, (B) suggestions for increasing the number of trained teachers, and (C) suggestions for further studies.

A. Findings

This study had five purposes: (1) to explore whether the UCFPE-program in Nepal can be attained by 1980, (2) if not, then to formulate and plan for a target of enrollment for 1980, (3) to estimate the number of teachers needed to take care of the children who are to be enrolled in the schools by 1980 in line with the enrollment target specified above, (4) to explore whether the existing approaches to training teachers in Nepal are adequate to train at least half the number of teachers needed by 1980, and (5) if they are inadequate, then to investigate the causes leading to the shortage of trained teachers and to suggest improvements.

1. Prospect of UCFPE-Program in Nepal by 1980.- Different educational bodies envisaged that UCFPE is attainable in Nepal by 1980. After reviewing and analyzing the conditions of the country and the people the writer concluded

that this is not possible. Though excellent progress in education has been made during the last fifteen years, there are no visible signs or evidences that the efforts to achieve UCFPE in 1980 are adequate. A previous study by T.N.Upraity of Nepal shed considerable light on this question. Upraity's study showed that even the least fiscally demanding plan for attaining UCFPE by 1980 seemed beyond the resources of the government.

2.The Writer's Target for 1980.- On the basis of the above conclusions the writer formulated a target of enrollment for the year 1980. His target was to enroll 75 per cent of the children who would be of primary school-age by 1980. Accordingly, he needed to know the size of the school-going population between 1965 and 1980, and the proportion of children actually enrolled in 1965. To arrive at such a knowledge the writer investigated into the following things:

a) Trends in the Rate of Population Growth.- There were some projections or estimates on the population of Nepal up to 1980, but the writer found that these projections differed between one person and another. Hence, the writer examined the rate of growth in the population of Nepal between two censuses - the census of 1952-54 and the census of 1961 - and found out that the rate of population growth was 1.64 per cent annually. On the basis of this he established rates of population growth as follows: 1.8 per cent per annum for the period 1960-65, 2.0 per cent per

annum for the period 1965-70, 2.2 per cent per annum for the period 1970-75, and 2.4 per cent per annum for the period 1975-80. This placed the population of Nepal at 10,109,000 in 1965 and at 14,011,000 in 1980. He compared his estimates with those made by a demographer of Nepal and found out that they were more or less the same.

b) Proportion of School-Age Population to the Total Population.- Primary school-age in Nepal is assumed to begin at the age of six and end at ten. According to this the school-age population of Nepal is assumed to be the 6-10 age-bracket population. In 1961 the 6-10 age-group population was 11.91 per cent of the total population. For the purpose of planning elementary education in Nepal another possible age-group is the 6-11 age-bracket population. In 1954 the 6-11 age-group population represented 14.3 per cent of the total population and 15.5 per cent in 1961. On the basis of these proportions fixed by the censuses of Nepal the writer assumed that the 6-10 population would represent 12 per cent and the 6-11 population 16 per cent of the total population of Nepal for the period 1965-80. In order to plan for five years of schooling the writer regarded the 6-10 age-group very unrealiable because it would lead to a low estimate of the number of children who would actually be ready for primary education during 1965-80. This is especially so because of the findings reported in (c) and (d).

According to the writer's estimates, by 1970 the num-

ber of children of school-going age (6-11) would be 1,786,000; by 1975 it would be 1,991,000; and by 1980 it would be 2,242,000. These estimates,in fact,correspond more or less with those made by a government demographer of Nepal.

c) Attrition in the Primary Grades.- With regard to the proportion of children in each grade of the primary schools it was found that this proportion is on the decrease over the years,if one moves from the lower to the upper grades. This symptom was evident during the period 1959-65 indicating that, while enrollment has been increasing yeay by year, the rate of attrition in the primary grades has also been increasing. Enrollment in grade five has come down from 6.5 per cent of the total enrollment in the primary grades in 1959 to 5.1 per cent in 1965. This trend was found to be true also with regard to grades two, three, and four. It is only in grade one that the proportion of the primary-class pupils has gone up from 44.3 per cent in 1959 to 55.1 per cent in 1965. The writer, however, for want of accurate data, could not estimate the exact rates of attrition from one grade to another.

d) Over-Aged Children in the Primary Grades.- In principle, the primary school-age should begin at the age of six and end at ten. But the writer's findings indicate that nearly 60 per cent of the primary school pupils enrolled in 1965 were over their proper grade-ages, namely, ages six and seven for grade one, seven and eight for grade two, eight and nine for grade three, nine and ten for grade four, and ten and eleven

for grade five. The writer assumed that this symptom of over-aged children at the primary grades would persist throughout the period 1965-80.

Hence, in order to make provisions for over-age at the primary level the writer selected the 6-11 age-bracket population as the proper bracket for a five-year period of elementary schooling. This may turn out to be a low estimate, rather than high, in view of the fact that many children begin their school careers later than they are supposed to. Also, the annual examination system results in a high rate of failure of children who are obliged then to repeat the same grade.

e) Proportion of School-Age Children Enrolled in 1965.- The writer found out that 20.7 per cent of the school-age children (6-11) of Nepal were enrolled in 1965. However, in terms of 6-10 age-group this proportion was 27.5 per cent in 1965. But this proportion differed greatly in the fourteen zones of Nepal. It was lowest in Rapti (15.2 per cent) and highest in Koshi (42.3 per cent). He also found out that no arrangements are made to narrow down the gap among the enrollment proportions of the various zones.

f) Schedule of Enrollment Targets.- Based on a proportion of 20.7 per cent of enrollment of the 6-11 age-group in 1965 the writer set up a target of enrolling 32 per cent for the period 1965-70, 50 per cent for the period 1970-75, and

75 per cent for the period 1975-80.

3. Number of Teachers Required.- After producing the above estimates on the number of children to be put in schools during the period 1965-80 the writer proceeded to estimate the number of teachers needed to take care of these children. For this two things were necessary: (a) an estimate of the teacher-pupil ratio, and (b) an estimate of the rate of replacement of the teachers.

a) Teacher-Pupil Ratio.- The writer discovered that the teacher-pupil ratio in the primary schools of Nepal in 1965 was 1:27. This ratio ranged between 1:23 in the Mahakali zone to 1:33 in the Karnali zone. These two zones had the least number of children enrolled in proportion to their school-age population. A ratio of 1:40 is the optimum ratio recommended by the government but this is not found even among the zones where enrollment rates were quite high - Koshi, Mechi, Bagmati, and Gandaki. However, the writer adopted a ratio of 1:35 for the period 1965-80, a ratio which was recommended by the UNESCO-Karachi Plan.

b) The Rate of Replacement.- The UNESCO-Working Plan for Nepal suggested a rate of replacement of teachers which ranged from 31 to 33 per cent over a period of five years. The writer adopted a rate of 30 per cent of replacement in the teaching force for each of the five-year periods from 1965 to 1980.

c) Proportion of Trained Teachers.- The writer further needed to know what proportion of the teachers should be trained for the period 1965-80. The recommendations and pronouncements of the various bodies on this point are very vague indeed. The Committee of 1961 had a general recommendation to the effect that all untrained teachers should take training within a period of five years from the date of their appointment. In 1965 the UCFPE-Rules stated that if untrained teachers are appointed they should be given training. Similarly, the Seminar of 1965 recommended that training should be made compulsory to all teachers.

In the light of these pronouncements one may conclude that all the above bodies were asking that all teachers needed by 1980 should be trained. But this is a very unrealistic demand. The writer, accepting the five-year interval suggested by the Committee, attempted to work out a proportion of trained teachers: all the teachers appointed by 1975, for example, should receive training by 1980 at the latest. Applying this method to the number of teachers needed during the period 1965-80, the writer found out that 58.8 per cent of them should have received training by 1980. For the sake of this study the writer, however, set a target of having at least 50 per cent of teachers out of the total number of teachers needed by 1980.

The writer concluded that with targets of enrolling 32 per cent of the 6-11 age-group children by 1970, 50 per cent by 1975, and 75 per cent by 1980, the required number

of teachers for these years, according to his estimates, will be 19,300, 33,600, and 57,100 teachers respectively. So in this connection, at least half of the 57,100 teachers should have received training by 1980. In 1965 some 25,000 trained teachers were working in the schools. When this number is deducted from the above number (half of 57,100) 26,050 teachers should be trained in fifteen years, i.e., from 1965 to 1980.

4. The Existing Approaches to Teacher Training in Nepal.- For entry into the training centres two alternatives have been under consideration in Nepal: (a) to accept only those who have the S.L.C., or(b) to be satisfied with those who have completed grade 8 or 9 of the secondary schools. The first approach is unrealistic because the number of those who have the S.L.C. in Nepal is too small at present to supply the training centres with candidates. Moreover, very few S.L.C. graduates would join the training centres anyway and still fewer would like to teach in the primary schools under the present salary conditions. Hence, the second alternative seems to be the appropriate one for the presentday Nepal.

To go deeper into the current quota system of training the writer examined some of its aspects as related to the trainees and the training program.

(a) Some Aspects Related to the Trainees.- Regarding the trainees the writer gathered information mostly from

the responses to a questionnaire which he administered to a sample of 189 trainees of three training centres - Pokhara, Birgunj, and Kathmandu - of the 1965 sessions.

With respect to motives for joining the training program three motives appeared dominant: professional (reported by 63.8 per cent); financial (reported by 23.8 per cent); and for the purpose of increasing general education rather than remaining idle at home (reported by 4.4 per cent).

Trainees are obliged to teach in the primary schools for at least five years after their graduation from the training centres. In this respect some 68 per cent of the trainees reported that they would serve the schools for a period of more than five years, some 28 per cent for five years, while the rest were not willing to serve the schools even for one year. By using a Chi-Square Test the writer found out that in fact only two-thirds of them intended to serve the schools for a period of more than five years. Most of those were in-service trainees rather than pre-service trainees (78 per cent against 62 per cent).

However, the trainees reported ten causes of dissatisfaction in teaching at the primary level in Nepal. The most important causes (reported by more than two-thirds of the respondents) were: poor salary (94 per cent); lack of facilities for pension and provident fund (82 per cent); no prospect of promotion (71 per cent); and lack of equipment and favorable working conditions in the schools (68 per cent).

The writer then looked into the extent to which the trainees' complaints quoted above effected their choice of professions by introducing other factors such as their economic backgrounds and their educational qualifications. When the trainees' choice of professions was matched with their parents' economic status and with their parents'occupation 71 to 76 per cent of them,irrespective of their parents' positions and professions, chose teaching with or without agriculture. Further, when the trainees' choice of professions and their present qualifications were matched together 76 per cent of them, irrespective of whether they had the S.L.C. or qualifications below it, chose teaching with or without agriculture. In the above three instances 21 to 27 per cent of the trainees chose pure teaching, 5 per cent chose pure agriculture, and 19 to 24 per cent chose other professions.

The inferences to be drawn from the above reports are that two-thirds of the trained teachers may join the profession (if other conditions are favorable to them), and that the present curriculum of the training program does not cater to the needs of the trainees who have such a strong attachment to agriculture.

b) Some Aspects Related to the Training Program.- The writer examined the training program to find out to what extent was it successful in achieving its target and also to find out whether its budget is adequate for training the required proportion of teachers for the period 1965-80.

The present quota system of training has attracted more candidates than before, but there is also the difficulty in filling the quota. From 1963 to 1965 only 49 to 70 per cent of the quota was filled. When attrition among trainees is taken into consideration only 45 to 63 per cent of the program target was achieved. Initially the aim was to train 1,600 teachers per year between 1963 and 1965. In 1966, however, 97 per cent of the quota was filled, but only after lowering the program target from 1,600 teachers to 785 teachers.

Inspite of the low achievement of its target, the training program shows a tendency to raise its total cost, and consequently the unit cost of training a teacher. In 1965 the total cost rose by 180 per cent over that of 1958, and the unit cost by 78 per cent. This shows that inspite of improvements in the administrative services and in the facilities for the trainees the relationship between the total cost and the unit cost, in comparison to that of 1958 (the index year), is far from "normal" in the economic sense. The training program has been conducted in an uneconomic manner for the lack of adequate number of trainees.

After studying the above aspects and making certain assumptions the writer estimated the number of teachers that the program may be able to train during 1970-80. Accordingly, the training capacity of the program came to be 1,900 teachers per year only from around 1980. But in

order to have at least 50 per cent of the primary school teachers trained by 1980 the average annual rate of training teachers between 1965 and 1980 should have been around 1,900 teachers. This estimate led the investigation to the conclusion that if the budget of the training program is not increased it is impossible to attain the above target by 1980.

5. Causes of the Shortage of Trained Teachers.- In addition to giving the earlier reasons for the shortage of trained teachers in Nepal (financial and shortage of recruits to the training centres) the writer carried the investigation further by studying the status of the teaching profession in Nepal.

a) The Academic Status of the Primary School Teachers.- Out of 12,000 primary school teachers working in the schools in 1965, 996 teachers had the S.L.C. as well as the training certificate. This was an estimate of the writer and it must be taken catiously. Out of the 12,000 primary school teachers 9,468 had got no training (a proportion of 78.9 per cent of primary school teachers). Of these 9,468 untrained teachers 7,344 had completed either the primary level or grade 7 or 8 of the middle schools or grade 9 of the secondary level (a proportion of about 60 per cent of primary school teachers).

This low proportion of trained teachers at the primary level in Nepal is due to, besides other things, the high loss of teachers trained during the period 1954-64. Nearly 50 per cent of such trained personnel did not join the profession.

One of the reasons was that the government could not appoint them in due time; thus they joined some other profession.

b) The Economic Status of the Primary School Teachers.- The writer studied the trends in the salaries of the primary school teachers from 1954 to 1965. He found out that a majority of the teachers did not receive salaries that agree with the governmental scale. The questionnaire responses revealed that some 70 per cent of the respondents reported that primary school teachers do not receive salaries in accordance with the governmental scale. The writer also studied the trends in the cost of living and salaries and found out that the cost of living was rising at a higher rate than the salaries of the primary school teachers. He also found out that other departments of the government have more attractive salaries than the education department. Late payment of salaries was another problem.

The writer's suggestions for improvements in the teaching profession at the primary level are integrated with his suggestions for increasing the number of trained teachers at the primary level.

B. Suggestions for Increasing the Number of Trained Teachers

Reviewing the history of education in Nepal during the last fifteen years, it can be said, at the risk of overt retetition, that HMG, Nepal has been putting great efforts to expand educational opportunities in the country. However, certain factors tend to demonstrate that there is a great lack

of consistency in these efforts in the sense that the program of training teachers was not emphasized enough to keep in step with the rising enrollment at the primary level.

First, in 1962 there were fifteen training centres but since then their number has fallen to five in 1966. The result is that the fewer the number of training centres becomes,the less the training capacity of the country and, subsequently,the more over-crowded the training classes become. This defect could be corrected, and the trainees could be given greater individual attention. But of late it has been the policy of the government to run the development projects with the least possible number of personnel. This policy may work well in other fields but the training centres need adequate number of training personnel.

Second, during 1958-62 the training program aimed at training 1,000 teachers per year, and during 1963-65 this number went up in an appreciable manner to 1,600 teachers per year, but in 1966 it was dramatically trimmed down to only 785 teachers. Those teachers trained in 1966 are the products of the first instalment of the Second Five-Year Plan (1965-70) which aimed at training 1,600 teachers in each of its five years. It is said that the government did so because, if more than 785 teachers are trained, it would not be able to appoint them in the schools. In one sense this policy of co-ordinating the training of teachers with the process of opening new schools is a good one. One of the strongest causes for the wastage of at least 50 per cent

of teachers trained during 1954-64 was the lack of co-ordination between the training program and the appointment of teachers. But in another sense this policy is a defeatist one. It was shown that there were nearly 80 per cent of the teachers in the primary schools who were untrained (see Table 16). The government could have trained those untrained teachers and thus could have increased the proportion of trained teachers in the schools. It is doubtful whether during the remaining years of the Second Five-Year Plan the target will be restored to its original number. A sort of a lack of co-ordination seems to exist between the decisions of the planning bodies which set the target at 1,600 trained teachers per year and the decisions of the executive bodies which cut down the target.

Third, in-service program or short duration extension courses could have trained more untrained teachers. At present the in-service teachers are given the same training and for the same period of time. The in-service program is not taking place on a mass scale but rather on a quota basis. This slow process of in-service training demonstrates that a gap exists between the intentions of the government to improve the number and quality of teachers at the primary level and the efforts to universalize primary education with qualified teachers.

However, it would be very unfair if one looks at the problem of the shortage of trained teachers in terms of putting all the blame on the government. There is still a

great apathy on the part of the public towards the profession of teaching. Few do join the training centres though few of them are willing to teach in the primary schools. And even those who teach in the primary schools are not willing to remain in the job for a long time, and those who do remain for a long time are the disgruntled and the deviants who hardly work with a spirit and a dedication.

As already noted there are other factors like the low salary and poor prospects of self-improvement or promotion which discourage people from joining teaching. Added to this is the low education budget out of which teacher education gets a small share.

Thus, there are five dimensions to the problem of the shortage of trained teachers in Nepal: (1) inadequate funds for the training program, (2) low economic status of the teachers, (3) unavailability of adequate secondary students for the training centres, (4) lack of prospects of self-improvement to the teachers, and (5) lack of consistent efforts on the part of the government. It seems the problem will not be solved by making attack from one front alone; the attack must be from the five fronts.

The writer, therefore, taking the realities of Nepal in mind, wishes to make some modest suggestions to increase the number of recruits in the training centres:

1. The dropout rate at the primary level is the cause of thinner enrollment at the secondary level, and thus is a major cause of the shortage of recruits to the training centres. The Education Seminar of 1965 had recommended the establishment of 75 model high schools at the rate of one in each of the 75 districts of Nepal. The writer supports this recommendation and emphasizes its implementation as soon as possible. In these schools the primary leavers, those who cannot go to the secondary level for various reasons, should be admitted and scholarships should be awarded for them. If the students belong to the same place where such schools are opened they should be given study allowances; if they do not belong to the same place they should be given maintainance allowances in addition. Parents should be bound by a contract with the government stating that they would send their children to the training centres after they finish their study in the high schools. This means providing a network of scholarship all over the country to children who cannot afford to enter the secondary schools. During the Second Five-Year Plan a similar arrangement was made. A sum of five rupees per month was to be given to such poor students. But the writer feels that this amount is too little and that it should be raised to cover the study or maintainance allowances as indicated above. This arrangement ensures a better equality of educational opportunity, and also increases the number of recruits to the training centres. Teachers trained in this way should

be obliged to serve the schools of their own districts for a certain number of years as the government thinks appropriate. The scholarship should be given on the basis of a quota in proportion to the needs of the districts for teachers.

2. The number of recruits to the training centres can also be increased by free boarding and lodging to the trainees and a little money for their pocket expenses. Full medical facilities should also be extended.

3. Women trainees do not join the training centres in adequate numbers for lack of facilities of boarding and lodging. The number of recruits can further be raised by establishing at least one training centre for women teachers and run by women teacher trainers. To attract the female towards teaching the writer feels that a biased salary scale in favor of the female teacher is necessary to tap the great reserve of the teaching force confined at home.

4. The academic year of ten months is too short for both the one-year and the two-year programs. The academic year should be raised to one full calendar year. This implies removing the winter vacation of two months and devoting for compensating, to a certain extent, for inadequacies in different subject-matter areas or in professional training.

5. The number of training staff should be raised to reduce the size of the classes so that individual atten-

tion can be paid to the trainees.

To a slight degree the above measures would make improvement in the training programs in both the quantitative and the qualitative terms. But for a rapid increase of trained teachers for the primary schools the above measures need to be supplemented by the following:

1. A short and intensive term during vacations should be started to train the untrained teachers working in the schools. If teacher trainers are inadequate the trained teachers of the secondary schools could be tapped for this purpose. The government should be able to implement the recommendation of the Committee to the effect that persons intending to enter government service should be obliged to give two years of social service to the nation. Such persons may be tapped to serve as teachers or teacher trainers according to their qualifications. But before introducing in-service training programs on a mass scale, subject areas of the training should be worked out and books and pamphlets on them in the Nepali language should be produced and distributed on a mass scale. This will facilitate training on a short-term basis.

2. The pool of trained teachers can be increased to a certain extent by training the ex-soldiers. This is not a new idea introduced by the writer, for it was also recommended by the Committee.

3. The writer feels that the pool of trained teachers

can further be increased by incorporating a teacher training program in the syllabus of the S.L.C. Examination. While it is true that every high school of Nepal is not fully equipped with trained teachers to shoulder the responsibility of teaching the subjects of teacher education, those which are in a better position may start a course on teacher education.

4. The need for a system of teacher certification has been increasingly realized in Nepal. The writer supports its introduction but feels that,rather than making it a criterion for qualifying or disqualifying a person to teach, it should be adopted as a measure to establish a differential salary scale for teachers. He suggests that there should be three classifications of primary school teachers: the certified teachers, the trained teachers, and the untrained teachers. Following this, salaries should be of three scales giving the certified teachers more salary than the trained teachers, and the trained teachers more salary than the untrained teachers. The facilities of pension and the provident fund should be given only to the certified teachers.

The writer suggests that teacher certification examination should be held each year, and that the course contents should be based on those of the training program and the S.L.C. Examination. It is not necessary that in the course contents of this teacher certification examination English should get the same attention as it does in the

S.L.C. Examination. A minimum knowledge of English would be adequate for the primary school teachers.

Before introducing teacher certification the government should produce and distribute books and pamphlets on the course contents of this examination on a mass scale so that the teachers who are ambitious may try to improve themselves. Those who fail in this examination should not be disqualified from teaching in the primary schools. Such measures at the present time will not stem the shortage of teachers; such a policy may be adopted later.

Since at present it is not possible for the government to open classes on the course contents of the teacher certification examination, it should be duty of the secondary schools to help the primary school teachers prepare for this examination by means of consecutive vacation courses at the district level.

5. The writer feels that there is no sense in increasing the salaries of the teachers without demanding greater efforts and sacrifices from them to upgrade themselves. However, he recommends a revision of the salary scale of the primary school teachers in line with the aforementioned suggestions.

6. The writer suggests that each Punchayat should be held responsible for paying the minimum national scale to the teachers or, alternatively, the grants-in-aid to the schools should be in the form of teachers and not in cash. These measures are meant to safeguard the interests of the primary school teachers.

The writer acknowledges that all of these suggestions and recommendations involve more money, more efforts, and more sacrifices. But without these, things will go on in the future as they are going on at the present time. If such measures are not adopted one of the two things will happen: (1) the supply of qualified teachers will have to be left at the whim of the market forces; this goes against the concept of planning for a better elementary education in Nepal or (2) more proportion of untrained or unqualified teachers will have to be allowed to teach. If both things are to be avoided - and they should be avoided - then these measures or many of them should form the nucleus in the policy of the government to universalize elementary education in Nepal, with qualified teachers, by the earliest possible time.

C. Suggestions for Further Studies

This section stems from the writer's experience during the process of writing this study. As is well known there is a dearth of educational data in Nepal. Anybody interested in educational planning or educational reform will have to face serious difficulties posed by the deficiencies in this area. The task of planning for universal primary education in Nepal is very demanding; it requires much important and reliable information on up-to-date trends in the primary schools of Nepal. Primary schools of Nepal are not fully stabilized, they are in a period of

flux or transition. The country has to find places for more than 70 per cent of the children in the schools in addition to what it does now in order to attain universal primary education. This requires a look far ahead, and ample information on the trends and forces in the different areas of primary education. As more data on the different aspects of primary schools become available the projection into the future will become more valuable. Without having such data any planning remains but a gambling with the future of the country.

The writer was fortunate to have some information on some aspects of the primary schools of Nepal. He also conducted his own survey through a questionnaire , but even these data were not adequate. This necessitated the making of many assumptions, intrapolations, and extrapolations. Hoping that in the future the same sort of difficulty would not confront persons interested in planning, the writer wishes to indicate some of the necessary steps to be taken as soon as possible and some areas of research that are highly desirable.

1. Some Steps to be Taken.- It is necessary to obtain a reliable picture on the problems of planning elementray education in Nepal at the district level. Two of such problems are pointed out here. First, the boundaries of the census districts and those of the educational districts are overlapping. The population figures according to the census

districts are correct, but the population figures of the educational districts (and hence those of the zones too) are only estimates and very rough at that. Second, the distribution of the school-age population into age-groups of 5-9, 10-14, and 15-19 baffles an attempt of estimating the proportion of over-aged children in the schools out of the total number of children of school-age in any district or zone. Hence, the Central Bureau of Statistics, Ministry of Economic Planning, would do a great educational service to the nation by producing separate data on the following aspects:

a) Total population of each educational district by sex.

b) Primary school-age population of each educational district by sex and by single year (5 to 15).

While collecting and tabulating data from the primary schools, the Planning, Statistics, and Research Section, Ministry of Education, should show the following things:

c) The composition of each primary grade in each of the educational districts by single year and by sex. Such data should not be confused by expressing them in terms of combined ages.

d) The ranges of the teacher-pupil ratios in each of the educational districts in addition to the averages.

The program of training teachers would remain a one-sided activity unless attended by research on matters relating to different aspects of the training program. The

writer suggests that the Division of Primary School Teacher Training, Ministry of Education, should do the following two things:

e) Establish a research section attached to it.

f) Ask each of its training centres to submit for discussion at the Workshop Session a study on a selected aspect of the training program. It should then compile such a study in the form of an annual report.

2. Some Related Fields of Research.- This study was only a preliminary attempt to investigate the following aspects, and they need to be studied more elaborately:

a) The analysis of the motives of the trainees of the teacher training centres to join the teacher training program. A standarized questionnaire should be made for continuous interpretation over a number of years which should show the trend among the youth of the nation with regard to entering the teaching profession.

b) The analysis of the causes of satisfaction and dissatisfaction of the intending teachers with respect to the training program and the teaching profession.

APPENDIX A

COVERING LETTER FOR THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

A.U.B.
Beirut, Lebanon
December 3, 1965

To,
The Divisional Head,
Division of Primary School Teacher Training,
HMG, Nepal: Education Development Project,
Kathmandu, Nepal.

Dear Sir,

I am one of your Senior Instructors sent abroad for further study. As a part of the requirements for the degree of M.A. in education at the American University of Beirut, Beirut, Lebanon, I am required to write a thesis.

I have decided to write my thesis on Planning Elementary Education in Nepal: Supply of Teachers. This topic is directly related to the program of training the primary school teachers in our country. I need some data on the trainees currently undergoing training in different training centres, particularly on matters which give clues on the degree of their committment to the teaching profession. For this purpose I have enclosed, herewith, a questionnaire to be administered on the trainees. An English copy of the questionnaire is also enclosed to serve as a check-source for any item on the questionnaire that may seem unintelligible in the Nepali copy.

If possible, I would like to have the responses from

all the trainees of the current sessions; if not, from those trainees of the nearest training centres which can send back the responses at the earliest possible time. I would appreciate your help in arranging things so that I may get the responses not later than the end of January, 1966. I need responses from at least 175 trainees representing various districts.

I have also enclosed a covering letter to the questionnaire which is addressed to the trainees, and this is to be attached to the questionnaire.

I request you to send copies of this letter to the training centres so that my friends, the staff members, would know the purpose of the administration of the questionnaire. I further request you to instruct them to give the least possible guidance to the trainees. Such guidance may be given only in cases when an item on the questionnaire turns out to be ununderstandable to any or all the trainees.

I hope for a kind help, and let me remain grateful towards you in anticipation of the same.

With best regards to you and to the members of the program-family.

Sincerely yours,

Chuda Nath Aryal,
Senior Instructor,
P.S.T.T. Centre,
Kathmandu.

APPENDIX B

COVERING LETTER TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

A.U.B.
Beirut, Lebanon
December 3, 1965

To,
The Pupil-Teachers,
Primary School Teacher Training Centres,
Nepal.

Dear Pupil-Teachers,

I am one the Senior Instructors of the Primary School Teacher Training Centre of Kathmandu and am now at Beirut, Lebanon, preparing for an M.A. degree in education from the American University of Beirut. As a part of my study I have to write a thesis which is a sort of a small book on a problem.

The subject of my thesis is a problem of our own country: Planning Elementary Education in Nepal: Supply of Teachers. This subject is directly related to you all as the would-be teachers in the primary schools of your respective home areas. I need a lot of materials for this study; one type can come from you. For this reason I have sent to you a questionnaire which asks questions about you - about your family, your education, your feelings towards the training program and the teaching profession, your future plans, and the like. As many of you are actually experienced teachers, your experiences would tell me about the primary school teachers in Nepal more than I actually know about them. As such,

I like sincere answers from you all; for upon such answers depends, to a large extent, the validity of my study.

I have attempted to make every item on the questionnaire understandable to you so that you can answer on your own. However, if you face difficulty on any item, you may approach your teachers for clarification.

Your answers, unpleasant or unsatisfactory as they be, do not have any relation to your grades in the training program, or to your position in the future.

With best of good wishes for your progress in the training program and in your career as primary school teachers in your home areas.

Sincerely yours,

Chuda Nath Aryal,
Senior Instructor,
P.S.T.T. Centre,
Kathmandu.

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE TO THE PUPIL-TEACHERS OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER TRAINING CENTRES, NEPAL

(The questionnaire included more than nineteen items given here; only those items are given here which are used for the thesis)

Please put a tick mark on the line (like this ✓) in front of the item you choose in a multiple-choice question, and fill in the blank spaces where you find a dotted line.

DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME

---

1. Name of the Training Centre:- ..... Zone:- .....

2. Home District:- ..... Zone:- .....

3. Age:- ..... Sex:- _____Male , ____Female

4. Training Group:- ____Pre-Service , ____In-Service

55. What is your father's occupation ?

____Agriculture , ____Service , ____Business ,

____Wage Earning

6. How would you classify your father as ?

____Wealthy , ____Rich , ____Average , ____Poor

____Very Poor

7. What is the salary that a primary school teacher receives per month in your locality ?

For Matric (S.L.C.) or equivalent pass Rs. ..... per month

For below Matric or equivalent Rs. ..... per month

Training Allowance, if any, for a Trained Teacher Rs. ..... per month

8. Are the primary school teachers paid regularly in your locality ?

____Yes , ____No

9. How would you describe the behavior of the School Secretary with the primary school teachers in your locality (in general) ?

____is co-operative (friendly) with the teachers

____is dominating over the teachers (is authoritarian)

____is indifferent towards the teachers

10. What class have you completed in school ? .....

11. Have you ever had teaching experience in a primary school ?

____Yes , ____No

If yes, how many years did you teach ? .....years

12. For how many years or how many more years (in case you are a teacher) do you intend to work in a school after completing the training ?

____Not at all , ____A year or so , ____Five years at the maximum

____More than five years as long as I can

13. In your opinion, what are the advantages in teaching in a primary school ? Be brief.

.....

.....

.....

14. In your opinion, what are the most important disadvantages in teaching in a primary school ? Be brief.

.....

.....

.....

15. Who guided or advised you to join this training program ?

____My parents , ____My friends , ____The School Inspector

____The School Managing Committee , ____Myself

16. Why did you choose to join this training centre? (Read all the reasons carefully before answering. Then select any three only and put on the line number one for the first reason, number two for the second reason, and number three for the third reason.)

____To help my family with the stipend I get from the training centre.

____In my opinion, training is a 'must' for the teaching profession.

____Because the School Inspector or the Managing Committee asked me to get trained to become a teacher.

____ Because I thought any kind of education is better than the little education I had.

____Because I thought training was far better than remaining idle at home.

____Others (If you have any reason other than the above please specify them (two at the maximum) in few words in the spaces given below and give number to them.)

____ .....

____ .....

17. If you have complete freedom of choice, what profession would you like to choose as most satisfying to you ?

____Service other than teaching , ____Agriculture

____Business , ____Teaching , ____Teaching and Agriculture

____Others

If you mark 'others' please write in few words the profession which none of the above five covers your choice.

.....

18. When you finish the training do you intend to go further in your education ?

____Yes , ____No

If yes, how far would you like to go ?

____Up to the S.L.C. or equivalent

____Up to Intermediate

____Up to Graduate Level.

19. If you have any comment on your experience as a teacher or on the teaching profession in our country, feel free to express yourself. (Write as brief as possible within the alloted space.)

(THANK YOU)

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