

EDUCATION IN NEPAL

Ministry of Education

**REPORT OF
THE NEPAL NATIONAL EDUCATION PLANNING COMMISSION**

EDUCATION IN NEPAL

REPORT
OF
THE NEPAL NATIONAL EDUCATION PLANNING COMMISSION

PREPARED BY
MEMBERS OF THE COMMISSION

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APPRECIATION

In the fall of 1953, I was invited to Nepal to confer with the Ministry of Education officials on educational problems and potentialities in this country. I was asked to survey existing conditions and recommend a plan for the development of a national system of education. I countered the invitation with an offer to act as educational advisor to a high-level national education planning commission if such were appointed. I felt that such an assignment was a task for the leaders of Nepal, not for a foreigner. And the accomplishments of the Commission now stand as testimony to the soundness of this opinion. True, the members have made me feel that I am more a guest of Nepal than a foreigner; their hospitality, and that of all the Nepalese, has been over-whelming. But this Report is a product of three score Nepalese educationists and leaders. The survey, the questionnaire, the outline, the discussions, the formulation of policies and principles, the establishment of targets, the plan, the recommendations—all stem from the members of the Commission. I consider it a great privilege to have been permitted to share in the creation and forging of this Report. Particularly, I have admired the rugged determination of the Chairman and his leadership through "rough times"; I have appreciated the faithfulness of the members and their willingness to do their share: I have basked in the colorful expression of our writers, both in English and the translations; I fervently hope there will be a high place in the Great Beyond for those unsung heroes who drafted so much of the Report.

This is the Report; but the job is not done—it has only begun. Fortunately, there will not be the usual period between the "report" and "action," because much action is already underway. Some of the recommendations have been implemented as reported in Chapter XX. But the great task lies ahead. Universal primary education, adult literacy, comprehensive secondary education, a great national university—these and many other goals beckon to the members of the Commission and their colleagues in the development of this great democracy here in the heart of the Himalayas.

From the depths of my heart, I leave my best wishes with you.

Hugh B. Wood *Educational
Advisor.*

DEDICATED TO
HIS MAJESTY
THE KING OF NEPAL

Mahendra Bir Bikram Shah Deva

TABLE OF CONTENTS

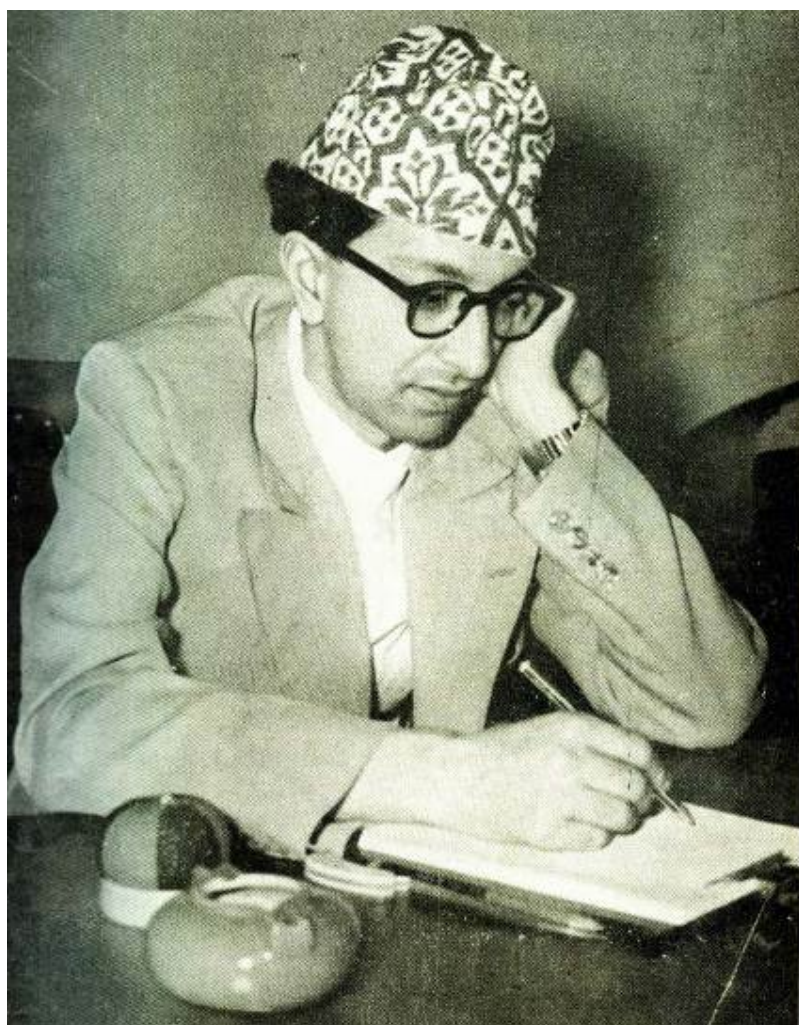
APPRECIATION	4
TABLE OF CONTENTS	6
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	12
CHAPTER I.....	1
INTRODUCTION	1
CHAPTER II	7
THE LAND OF NEPAL.....	7
The Geography of Nepal.....	7
The People of Nepal	10
The Development of Education from an Historical Point of View.....	14
Further Historical Development.....	16
Nepal Today	23
CHAPTER III.....	25
EXTENT OF EDUCATION IN NEPAL	25
Introduction	25
Administrative Organization.....	25
The Population of Nepal	30
The Extent of Education in Nepal.....	34
Summary.....	36
CHAPTER IV.....	37
NATURE OF EDUCATION IN NEPAL.....	37
Introduction	37
General Description.....	37
Buildings and Equipment	39
Teachers and Their Training	40
Curriculums of the Schools.....	41
Summary.....	44
CHAPTER V	45
THE PEOPLE SPEAK.....	45
Introduction	45
General Opinions.....	47
Individual Suggestions	52
Specific Suggestions.....	63
Summary.....	69
CHAPTER VI.....	71
NEED FOR EDUCATION IN NEPAL TODAY	71
The Need for Education	71
The Need for Educational Planning	72
Criteria for Education.....	73
CHAPTER VII	76
GENERAL OUTLINE OF THE PLAN	76
Introduction	76
Characteristics of National Education for Nepal.....	76
Summary.....	82
CHAPTER VIII.....	85
THE CURRICULUM FOR PRIMARY SCHOOLS.....	85
Introduction	85
Objectives of Primary Education	86
General Structure of Primary Education.....	88
Methods of Instruction	97
Instructional Materials.....	98
Curriculum Planning	99
Summary.....	99
CHAPTER IX.....	102
THE CURRICULUM FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS	102
Introduction	102
Purposes of Secondary Education.....	102

General Organization of the Curriculum	104
Vocational Subjects.....	108
Vocational Subjects.....	113
Scheduling the Curriculum.....	113
Extracurricular Activities	115
Methods of Teaching.....	116
Guidance of Students.....	117
Student Progress	117
Continuous Curriculum Improvement	119
Summary	119
CHAPTER X	122
UNIVERSITY EDUCATION Introduction	122
The Functions of a University.....	123
Site and Buildings	126
Administrative Control of the University	128
General Policies.....	132
Financing the University	135
The Colleges	137
Liberal Arts and Science College.....	137
Law College.....	139
Teachers College	139
Polytechnic Institute	139
College of Agriculture and Forestry	140
Medical and Dental College.....	140
College of Nursing	141
Other Colleges	141
Implementation of the University	141
Summary	143
CHAPTER XI.....	146
ADULT EDUCATION	146
Introduction	146
The Adult Literacy Programme	148
Agricultural and Home Extension Education	149
Cultural Education.....	150
The Village Library	151
Cinema and Radio Education.....	151
Organization for Adult Education.....	152
Summary	154
CHAPTER XII	155
TRAINING OF TEACHERS.....	155
Introduction	155
Principles of Education	156
Purposes of Teacher Education.....	157
Objectives of Teacher Education	158
Organization of the Programme	160
Curricula for Teacher Training	162
Evaluating Trainee Progress	165
Recruitment, Selection and Guidance of Students	167
Certification of Teachers.....	168
Placement of Teachers.....	169
Teacher Welfare	169
Summary	170
CHAPTER XIII	173
INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS	173
Introduction	173
Scope of Materials Needed	173
Selection of Instructional Aids.....	175
Preparation and Production of Materials	176
Control of Instructional Aids	178
Use of Instructional Aids.....	179

Summary	179
CHAPTER XIV	182
ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION OF EDUCATION	182
Introduction	182
Administration at the National Level	184
Administration at the District Level	185
Administration at the Local Level	186
Administration at the School Level	186
Teacher Welfare	187
The Administrative Code	188
Summary	188
CHAPTER XV	189
FINANCING EDUCATION	189
Introduction	189
Present Sources of Revenue for Education	190
The Future Costs of Education	193
Further Resources for Financing Education	194
Provisions for Financing	195
CHAPTER XVI	198
THE EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT: SITE, BUILDINGS, EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES ...	198
Introduction	198
Standards and Procedures	198
The Building Site	199
The School Building	199
Equipment and Supplies	201
Summary	202
CHAPTER XVII	203
SPECIAL SERVICES	203
The School, a Community Centre	203
Parent-School Relationships	203
Adult Education	204
School-Community Library	204
Youth Club Work and Scouting	204
Vacation Activities	205
Social Welfare	205
Extra-Curricular Activities	205
Health Services	206
Hot Lunches	206
Summary	206
CHAPTER XVIII	208
A LEGISLATIVE PROGRAMME	208
Introduction	208
General Tax and Land Reform	208
Education Organization Act	209
Education Finance Act	210
Primary School Act	210
Secondary School Act	211
University Act	211
School Code Act	211
Teacher Welfare Act	212
Summary	212
CHAPTER XIX	214
SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS	214
RECOMMENDATION NO. 1	214
RECOMMENDATION NO. 2	215
RECOMMENDATION NO. 3	216
RECOMMENDATION NO. 4	216
RECOMMENDATION NO. 5	217
RECOMMENDATION NO. 6	218
RECOMMENDATION NO. 7	218

RECOMMENDATION NO. 8.....	219
RECOMMENDATION NO. 9.....	220
RECOMMENDATION NO. 10.	221
RECOMMENDATION NO. 11.	221
RECOMMENDATION NO. 12.	222
RECOMMENDATION NO. 13.	222
RECOMMENDATION NO. 14.	222
CHAPTER XX	225
EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT, STATUS AND FUTURE PLANS ().....	225
The Story of an Educational Scheme.....	225
Major Activities Underway.....	231
APPENDIX.....	244
MEMBERS OF THE COMMISSION.....	245

Ministry of Education





Presentation of the Completed Report, March a, i955.

Sardar Rudra Raj Pandey, Chairman of the Commission, (third from left) presents the mimeographed Report to the Honorable Minister of Education, Dr. Dilli R. Regmi, at a formal ceremony held in Gallery Hall. Seated at the left is Dr. Hugh B. Wood, Educational Adviser to the Commission; standing at the right is Trailokya Nath Upraity, Secretary-Treasurer of the Commission.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The world to-day is advancing. The level of intellectual attainments in almost all the advanced countries has been very high. Asia is in ferment. Almost all countries in Asia have launched education plans with push and drive at break-neck speed to wipe out illiteracy and make democracy a success.

Nepal is passing through a crisis in her history. The advent of democracy has burdened her people with greater responsibilities. She is going to hold a general election in the distant future. Education is the sine qua-non of success of democracy. "We must educate our masters," at the earliest possible opportunity, If ignorance and illiteracy remain for a long time, democracy will spell doom and disaster. Here is one opportunity for the sons of mother Nepal to come forward and fight against darkness and bring light in the country.

The recommendations made by the Nepal Education Planning Commission will speak for themselves. In the present atmosphere of frustration and despair, that the report could be submitted within less than a year is itself a testimony of the co-operation that the commission received from the people in general and the educationists in particular. Most of its members and evaluators worked with zeal in the spirit of national service, and the secretary with his staff never spared pains. Our thanks are due to all. But special mention may be made of Dr. Hugh B. Wood, Educational Advisor from the University of Oregon, whose indefatigable labour and prompt assistance in the preparation of this report have been invaluable.

It is hoped that the report will receive due consideration in the hands of the government and education will receive top-priority in its scheme of our country's development.

Rudra Raj Pandey
Chairman

PART I
THE SURVEY

Ministry of Education

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

With the dawn of democracy in Nepal in 1950, there came an awakening of the need for education. The necessity for mass literacy and the spread of education all over the country, from the Mechi to the Mahakali and the Himalayas to the Terai, has been keenly felt. Nepal has been following a policy of isolation and as such has been kept in total darkness, uncontaminated by the present day civilization. This has both good and bad effects—good in the sense that no other system has struck deep root, and being a virgin soil (though a very poor consolation) she can devise her own scheme and plan. These can be suited to the geographical position and historical tradition of our country, with a view to retaining the national individuality and international solidarity. It has been bad in the sense that the world has advanced so far and we are so backward that hardly two percent of the population in the country can read and write. There is neither rapid means of communication nor a secure economic condition. The problems for the country are thus quite huge and the odds against improvement are almost inconceivable. But they must be solved, for we have to march shoulder to shoulder with other nations of the world as we become members of world organizations.

In order to make democracy a real success we have to educate our people within the shortest possible time, especially since universal adult suffrage has already been proclaimed. The danger of dictatorship or civil war due to misuse of the right to vote must be avoided and this is not possible in a country like ours without proper education.

Appointment of the Commission

Until 1950, there had been only limited educational facilities in Nepal and these were reserved for a very few people. With the recognition of education as the keystone of democracy, the Government of Nepal established an Education Board in 1952 to supervise and expand the existing educational facilities. In a meeting of this Board held in November, 1953, the suggestion was made to the Government that a National Commission for Planning Education be appointed to survey existing educational facilities, and to prepare a scheme for national universal education in Nepal. It had been pointed out before in the Chairman's addresses to the members of the Board that a uniform system of education for the whole country in place of divergent methods is essential; there must be trained teachers in abundance, and Nepal must have her own university.

Dr. Hugh B. Wood, educational specialist from the University of Oregon, U. S. A., who was in India on a Fulbright teaching assignment, was invited to Nepal immediately to confer with the Ministry of Education officials on the matter. Following his visit, the Government appointed the National Education Planning Commission. The members of this Commission were chosen to represent various cross sections of the people of Nepal. Included in the membership were representatives of the different groups of men and women from the administrative services, the Public Service Commission, the Ministry of Education, representatives of the kindergarten, primary, secondary, and higher levels of education, and

experienced laymen covering practically the whole of the Himalayan highlands, the central valleys, and the thin band of the Tarai belt of Nepal. The members of the Commission represented all walks of life and are some of the most outstanding figures in education in Nepal. In all, 47 were invited to participate, but some were unable to participate because of distance from the capital and other reasons. (Names of the Commission members who served will be found in Appendix I.)

Sardar Rudra Raj Pandey who was Chairman of the Education Board, was appointed as Chairman of the Commission. Trailokya Nath Upraity, Deputy Secretary of Education, was appointed Secretary-Treasurer of the Commission. Dr. Wood was asked to serve as the Educational Advisor to the Commission.

Inauguration of the Commission

The work of the Commission was inaugurated on March 22, 1954, in Gallery Hall of the Secretariat of the Government of Nepal at Kathmandu. Sardar Rudra Raj Pandey, Chairman of the Commission, spoke of the glories of ancient Nepal when the country was the crossroads of culture and education in the East, of the "Dark Ages" that eclipsed Nepal after the sixteenth century, and the gradual awakening in the present century. In conclusion, he said:

It is no time for the intellectuals to be disheartened and to remain aloof as mere spectators when disunity and misunderstanding are vitiating the atmosphere. As there cannot be two opinions regarding the importance of education, it is useless to find fault with it and offer excuses to others. Let everyone stand shoulder to shoulder and help in bringing forward an educational programme. Only educated people can set a just value on democracy. If educational programmes are set aside, Nepal's history which has faced two earlier set-backs, will, for the third time, face total destruction. The educational programme to be formulated should enlighten the very depths of Nepal's soul and enrich it with the scientific knowledge of modern times to make the country self-sufficient in every way.What we need is a nation-wide plan for education which should replace the present hotchpotch system and stir up a wave of national feeling from the Mechi in the East, to the Mahakali in the West, and from the frontiers of Tibet in the North to the Tarai in the South. I earnestly wish my countrymen to solve their economic problems, make their country prosperous in every way and maintain their existence without losing their identity.

Dr. D. R. Regmi, the Honorable Minister of Education, then gave the inaugural address. He said that we should not depend upon our past achievements, that we must build for the future, for there is now a great paucity of educated, even literate, people in Nepal. Dr. Regmi pointed out that the basic Sanskrit system of education had outgrown its usefulness and that Nepal had so far failed with the task of finding a new system based on national aspirations, traditions, and the needs of the country, and of supporting such a system realistically. He referred to the dearth of books in the Nepali language and added that the language had not made the same progress during the last fifty years as the foreign and regional languages of India had done.

The Honorable Minister then turned to the task at hand. He said that a sound

educational system could not be imported from outside, but must be evolved out of the needs and traditions of the country. He went on to suggest that we must cultivate the habit of trying to stand on our own legs. He exhorted the richer people to be generous in their contributions to educational institutions. He said that the time has come when those who are respected by the people must come forward. He suggested that the Commission should examine especially the suitability of the proposed plans to the needs of the country. Special stress should also be laid on the teaching of self-help so that the boys and girls who come out of schools should be able to earn a living. He also touched on Gandhiji's system of Basic Education and regretted that the Basic schools were not going on as well as had been hoped. He drew the attention of the Commission to some of these possible defects which stood in the way of the smooth progress of the Basic schools.

Dr. Regmi closed by exhorting the Commission to "survey existing educational facilities in order that they may be improved, but concentrate on the development of a scheme of national education for all our people that will eradicate ignorance and illiteracy, and bring happiness and prosperity to our glorious country."

Mr. Paul W. Rose, Director, United States Operations Mission, then spoke on the place of education in national planning and development. He said that the greatest resource of any nation is its people; other resources have no value except as they relate to people. Education is the most fundamental part of any country's development programme. He then dwelt on the importance of the teacher and the huge task of training teachers that lies ahead. He said 50,000 teachers are needed as soon as possible. Mr. Rose closed by offering the full cooperation and support of the United States Operations Mission to the work of the Commission and the development of an educational programme for Nepal.

The Honorable Minister then introduced Dr. Hugh B. Wood, Professor of Education from the University of Oregon, who was to serve as the Commission's educational consultant. Dr. Wood emphasized once again that a sound educational system was essential for the growth of democracy, and confirmed what the Honorable Minister had said about the need of developing education on national lines. He then spoke about the role of teachers and the need for widespread teachers' training in the new scheme of things, adding that it was easier to start from "scratch" than hang precariously onto a tottering structure which was on the verge of collapse. Because Nepal is a young democracy, she can avoid some of the educational mistakes made by other countries and build rapidly along new lines. Talking about the tasks of the Commission, he showed how the development of a sound educational system in Nepal requires the study of the existing conditions and problems in terms of their state of finance, possible new sources of revenue which the people would be prepared to pay, and whether they feel the need for a mass educational programme for youth, adolescents, and adults, or specialized education for the few, out of consideration for their slender purse.

Dr. Wood summarized his conferences with members of the Education Ministry in the fall of 1953. He said that there had been general agreement on five points:

1. Education is essential to democracy.

2. An education system must be based on the needs and culture of the specific country in which it is to function.
3. A survey of individual and social needs is essential to the development of an educational scheme.
4. The keystone of an educational system is the teacher and this calls for careful training in common purposes, common methods, and common understandings.
5. An educational system must provide at the top for the training of leadership in all walks of life.

Dr. Wood then suggested that the Commission should be divided into sub-committees to consider such problems as educational aims, curriculum and textbooks; administration, finance, and housing; and teachers' training. He suggested that the committees go to work immediately *and* produce a draft of a comprehensive report for the consideration of the entire Commission.

Professor Yedu Nath Khanal of Tri-Chandra College then spoke briefly on the importance of higher education in a national educational scheme, and on the importance of character building. Shri J. B. Shah, Assistant Director of Public Instruction, then presented a brief summary of the status of education in Nepal today, thus concluding the inaugural ceremonies.

Work of the Commission

Immediately following the inaugural ceremonies, the Commission opened a four-day business session. Three working committees were organized on Administration, Curriculum, and Teacher Training, and went into separate sessions. The committees outlined the problems relating to their respective assignments, listed sources of data to be used in meeting these problems, and determined their working procedures. At the close of each day the committees met together as a Commission for a few minutes to exchange ideas and problems.

Two major complications arose immediately. First, the absence of systematic reporting, the lack of communication, and the recency of central government supervision of education, created a dearth of information about the present status of education, particularly how the people of the nation feel about it. Therefore, the Commission decided at once to prepare a comprehensive questionnaire to be sent to all parts of the country, and, in addition, to send a number of interviewers to certain areas to determine educational conditions and aspirations. The committees were asked to submit questions for the questionnaire that would elicit information desired by their group.

Second, it immediately became apparent that certain proposals, on which there could be little controversy, certainly would be recommended by the Commission, and that some of these proposals were of sufficient urgency to require early action by the Ministry of Education. Therefore, the committees were instructed to consider these problems first and to prepare recommendations to be transmitted to the Honorable Minister by the close of the March 22-25 sessions.

Thus, by the close of the first sessions, the work of the Commission had been

chalked out, a questionnaire prepared (the results of which are described in Chapter V), and action started on some of the most urgent recommendations of the Commission.

In the months that followed, the Commission met as a whole or as committees about twice a month and continued to work out the many problems. By September, there were sufficient returns from the questionnaire, interviews, the Census Bureau, and other sources to start drafting the report of the Commission. This was done by writers who worked with the various committees and compiled rough drafts of their discussions. These were reviewed first by the committees and then by the Commission as a whole. An effort was made to refine the draft to the satisfaction of all members of the Commission—obviously, a difficult feat—and although this effort was not wholly successful, the Report represents the nearly unanimous opinion of the Commission.

Terms of Reference

The Commission has been guided by the following terms of reference as set forth by the Minister of Education in a letter following the inauguration ceremonies:

1. The Commission should devote itself to studying the system of education obtaining in the country today.
2. It should prepare an outline for the reorganization of schools on modern, practical lines, with special emphasis on the development of primary education for all.
3. It should draw an outline for the preparation of standard textbooks for national education and recommend adequate measures to the Government for the preparation of textbooks by competent authors and publish them by putting up a good printing press adequate for the purpose.
4. It should recommend to the Government the establishment of a National University within five years, calculated to raise the standard of education within measurable time commensurate with the immediate needs of the people.
5. It should immediately give its opinion to the Government about teachers' training and see that the recommendation is implemented.
6. The Commission should try to find ways and means for collecting funds wherever possible for the big job ahead.
7. The Commission should ask the Government for power to co-opt members deemed competent by them, requesting the Government to send a circular to the Government's servants so that they would aid the Commission wherever possible.

The Commission relied on these terms of reference for general guidance; on the Educational Advisor for procedural and professional advice; and on the Education Ministry offices, the Census Bureau and other Government offices, and the questionnaire and interviews for specific information. The absence of previous

reports as a frame of reference or starting point meant that the Commission was forced to exercise its initiative and creativity. As a result, this first comprehensive report in a virgin field reflects complete freedom from traditional patterns.

Plan of the Report

It may be seen that the task of the Commission fell logically into two parts: a survey of existing conditions and needs, and a scheme for a complete system of national education, including primary, secondary, university, and adult education.

The first part of the Report is largely devoted to a survey of the present status of education in Nepal. The second part lays out a scheme of national education. The third part summarizes the recommendations of the Commission. The fourth part is perhaps a unique innovation for a document of this kind. The urgency of some of the problems discussed herein led the Commission, early in its deliberations, to make certain recommendations, which were promptly implemented by the Minister of Education. (Seldom before have the recommendations of Commission been acted upon before they were written into a report!) Because much of this implementation was in process while the Report was being written, the Commission agreed to write the first three parts independently of this situation, and then, just before going to press, to review the status of the programme growing out of the Commission's recommendations. This has been done in the fourth part of the Report.

CHAPTER II

THE LAND OF NEPAL

A survey of the educational facilities of a country can be meaningful only in the setting of the land and culture in which it is made. More important, the development of a national education scheme must be predicated on an understanding of the nation and its people if it is to be functionally designed to meet their needs, not those of some foreign culture. Time and space do not permit an extensive study of these factors, but this chapter attempts to give a brief outline of the geography of the land, historical backgrounds of the people, some characteristics of the culture, and some educational notes.

The Geography of Nepal

Between Tibet, which is 14 times her size, and the new Republic of India, which sandwiches her to the south, east, and west, Nepal is a rectangle roughly five hundred miles long and ninety to one hundred ten miles broad with an approximate area of 54,000 square miles. It is an independent kingdom inhabited by a polyglot population of about ten million people.

Historically, local tradition reserves the name of Nepal to the oblong valley of Kathmandu, which is situated between the Sapta Gandak and Karnaly river basins to the west and the Sapta Kosi river basins to the east. This central valley of Kathmandu, fed by the rivulet Bagmati and her feeders all by themselves, stands independent of the alpine river systems of the rest of Nepal and rests halfway between the frozen tablelands of Tibet on the north and the dark, burning and flat plains of Gangetic Hindustan to the south a valley "bellisimo" protected against violent storms by the surrounding mountains, extremely fertile, densely populated, and with a civilization and culture going back to three thousand years of recorded history.

Nepal may be divided into three zones comprising (a) the tropical region of the Tarai (low flat lands) and the forest-clad slopes of the lower hills up to an altitude of 4,000 feet, (b) the temperate central region enfolding the high-lying valleys up to an altitude of 10,000 feet, and (c) the northern paleo-arctic region comprising the main backbone of the Himalayas towering from 10,000 to 29,002 feet. These three zones support in general a fauna and flora which is characteristic of three distinct zoo-geographical regions, of which the lowest is cis-Gangetic, the central is trans-Gangetic or Himalayan, and the northern is paleo-arctic or alpine.

The lowest tropical region consists of a strip of land some 20 to 30 miles wide which forms the southern boundary of Nepal with India. It is composed partly of open flat country and partly of forest-clad hills and highly malarious valleys. The richly cultivated plains of the Tarai which extend from the southern frontier for about 10 miles inland are succeeded by a strip of low-lying land which borders the roughly 12-mile belt of dense forests as far as the Siwalic foot-hills. This strip of land is the true Tarai which, at places, is composed of swampy tracts overrun by tall grass

and rank vegetation, especially in the Tappu regions of eastern Nepal.

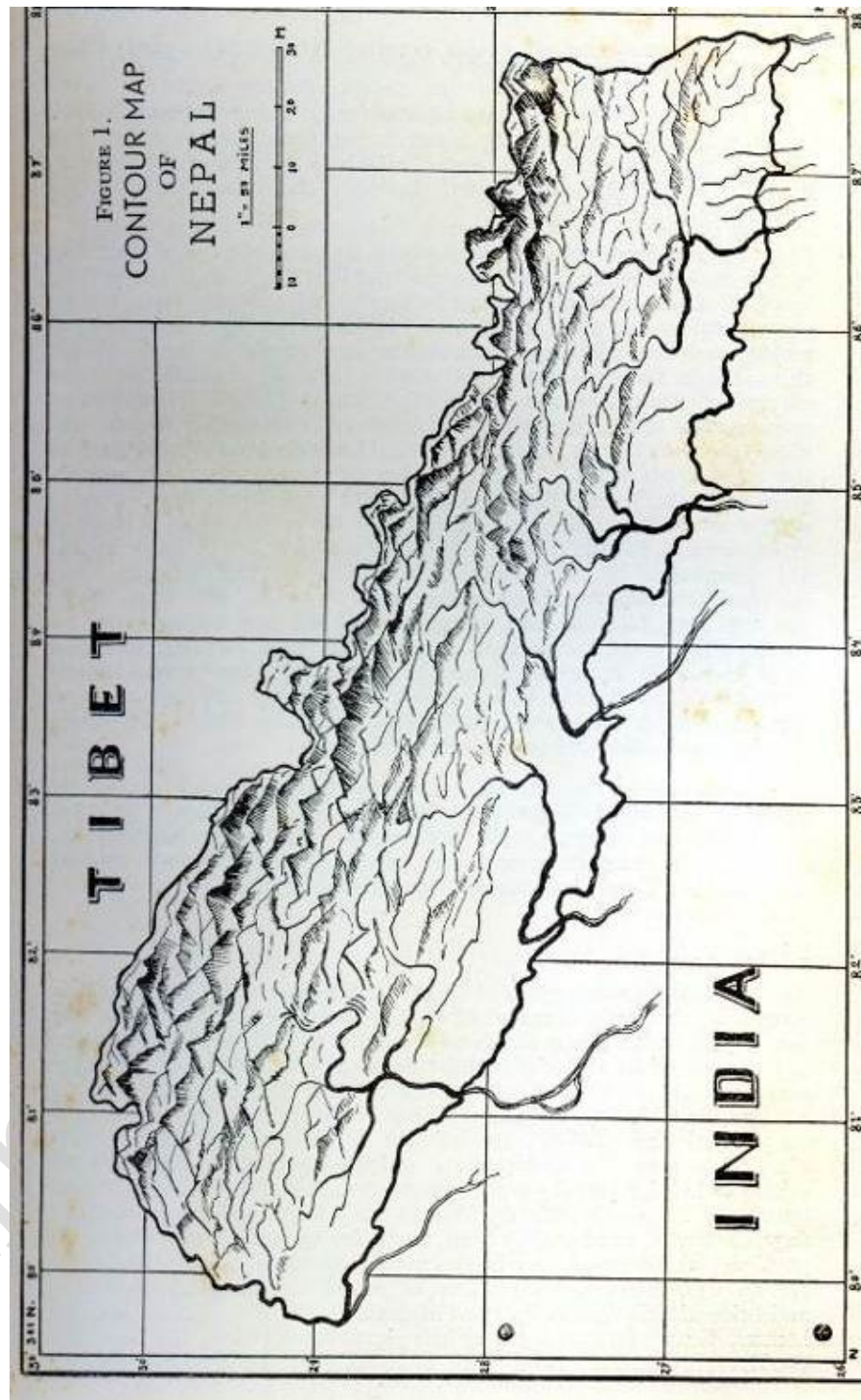
The forests, known in Nepal as "Bhabar" or "Jhadi," rise abruptly and stretch from east to west. They are composed mainly of Sal trees (*Shorea robustus*) intermingled with Simal (silk-cotton) trees with a slight undergrowth of grass and scrub. This forest also covers the slopes of the Siwaliks (the sandstone range) bordering the northern margin of the sub-Himalayan region, which lies beyond.

Its climate is similar to that of the Indian plains with some increase of heat and an excess of moisture due to the virgin forests and the high mountains that block the monsoon beyond. The fauna it supports is similar in character to those which are to be found in the Indian mainland of Bengal and Assam, such as elephants, rhinoceroses, sambhars, wild-boars, buffaloes, chitals, hog-deer, and swamp deer. The buffaloes continue as far as 9,000 feet and are replaced by Tibetan yaks and their cross-breed "Jhummus" (Asiatic bisons) above the altitude of 10,000 feet.

The bird life of the Tarai region is much the same as that found in the Malabar coast and Assam, and includes horn-bills, barbets, fruit-pigeons, bulbuls and woodpeckers. Along the cultivated areas and on the edge of the forests are found some of the more common birds of the Indian plains, and many wading birds and water fowls spend the winter among its streams and marshes. The cold season stimulates the migration of many species of birds from Tibet such as wild ducks and cranes, which breed in the mountains and descend to the plains for a brief change.

The Central Region is described as a clusterous space of mountains varying in elevation from 4,000 to 10,000 feet with a range of temperature varying from ten to twelve degrees lower than the Tarai. It includes the Mahabharat range of mountains which rise to 8,000 feet to form a continuous barrier across Nepal from east to west. At intervals, this mountain wall is pierced by the gorges of the transverse rivers of the Seven Kosis, or the Seven Gandaks, or the noble river Karnali. Between the Mahabharat range and the main Himalayan chain, there are many populous valleys like Dumja, Kathmandu, Pokhara, and many others where the majority of the population is densely concentrated.

The fauna of this central zone is characteristically Himalayan. Many of the species occurring in this region are peculiar to Nepal alone. Such animals as the ferret, badger, raccoon, crestless porcupine, etc., do not occur in the Indian peninsula. The whole *genera* of such birds as yuhina, siva, minla, ixulu, etc., are nearly, if not wholly, restricted to this region. The majority of reptiles occurring in this zone are purely Himalayan species.



This part of the land has no stock of snow, but there are some places where snow falls heavily during winter. Numerous streams and rivulets spring from the mountainous range. Most important towns of the country lie in this part. The culture and civilization of the entire country is that of this region.

The northern region commences with the second bastion of mountains, known as the Himalayas above an altitude of 10,000 feet, which has nothing tropical about it. One can perceive six seasons in the Himalayan and the central regions and these are celebrated in the ancient inscriptions of Nepal, a characteristic totally absent from the three seasons of India. Within this zone, the forest is composed of conifers, scrubby rhododendrons, and carpets of flowers. Above the tree-line area at 13,000 to 14,000 feet, an open country of stark dark stones is discovered, with limpid streams and silent lakes. With this region, the oriental forms disappear, giving place to the paleo-arctic types of fauna. Among the characteristic larger animals, there are yaks, jharal, ibex and thar. The pine forests contains many species of warblers, tits, and finches, but the various species of laughing thrushes which form so marked a feature of the bird life of lower regions are conspicuous by their absence with the exception that in eastern Nepal the black-faced laughing thrush is found right up to the snow-line. Above the tree line, birds become scarce and the kinds most commonly met are revens, dippers, wall-creeper, accentors and the most beautiful of Alpine birds known as Hodgson's Grandala. The little Nepalese wren is found among the rocky crags above an altitude of 12,000 feet, and flocks of snow-pigeons are not uncommon. Monals, tragopans, blood, and cheer pheasants and snow-cocks occur within this zone.

This region is the northernmost and the least populated part of the country. It is mainly Himalayan with huge deposits of snow. Here ice crowned mountains with angular outlines shine high up into the temperate sky, giving life to moravian streams and rivulets that gush forth in zig-zags, to irrigate the Tarai plains and the vast plains of India.

The People of Nepal

From the greatest peaks of the main Himalayan range, there run down roughly south a series of enormous spurs, which starting in the snows then rise, dip, and undulate for twenty or more miles before finally plunging into the central backbone of Nepal. Perched on the flanks of these ridges are the villages of the world-famous climbers known as the Sherpas, Thakses, Kathbhotias, and Rogpas, some of whom have retained unchanged the physical characteristics and religion of the trans-Himalayan people. They look upon the Dalai Lama and the Potala for religious leadership while still holding proudly to their Nepalese nationality. Gompas (temple centres of learning) with the Tibetan method of teaching, prayer-wheels, flags, streamers, and buntings form a regular feature of this region. In physique, these people are bigger, more picturesque, more curious, jollier, and more carefree than the Gurkhas of mixed extraction who live along and below the six thousand to two thousand foot contour of their mountain homes. Some of them wear long hair pigtail fashion down their back with Gurkha hats and army boots with laces. Unlike the Gurkhas, they are great traders, going up to Tibet and China and descending to the Indian plains, and even overseas, for trade. By their racial characteristics, they

are a likeable lot of good-natured, unspoiled people.

Around and below the 6,000 foot contour are the villages of the real Gurkhas, who have made their mark as some of the greatest fighters in the world today. Above their homes, up to an altitude of 15,000 feet, they share with the Sherpas common pastures for their livestock. On this central backbone, fed by transverse rivers, are similarly confined tribes, each in its own particular province from east to west, such as the Limbus, the Rais, the Yakthumaas, the Khambus, the Lepchas, the Yakhas, the Murmis, the Vayus, the Newars, the Sunpars, the Sunwars, the Chepangs, the Thamis, the Danuwars, the Majhis, the Kusundas, the Gurungs, the Magars, the Khases, the Thakuris, and the Brahmins, only the latter having kept their descent comparatively pure from the admixture which is the chief source of difficulty in classifying all other tribes from the Khases to the frankly Mongoloid Murmis.

To the malarious low valleys and the Tarai belong principally such people as the Dhimals, the Botias, and the Tharus of semi-Mongoloid origin who speak Maithili and Bhojpuri according to their location. These people are comparatively immune from the scourge of malaria and live close to the forests.

Side by side are the Bhiela aboriginals from the earlier tribe of Austro-Asiatic of whom the Kusundas in the Central belt and the Mushahars in the Tarai region may be last link.

The Tarai region also contains a sprinkling of Brahmins, Kayasthas, Guars, Rajputs, and Moslems who in the majority of cases speak either Maithily or Bhojpuri or Avadhi.

But, of course, it is impossible to be dogmatic about these racial strata of the Himalayan people. Then, too, there are mixed villages and abundant examples where this racial stratum dips and turns. One can draw no straight line either in territory or in altitude.

Historical Antecedents

China has her annals; Nepal, too, has her chronology. The tombs of the earliest free-thinkers like Vipaswin Buddha, Sikhin Buddha, Krakucchanda Buddha, Viswabhuva Buddha, Konakamuni Buddha, Buddha Kasyapa and Buddha Siddhartha Gautama, within the limits of Nepal, testify to the welding of the mixed races of the country into a nation long before the neighbouring peoples grasped the concepts. The first Aryan hymn, recording in the earliest Brahmani script the enshrining of the mortal remains of Buddha Gautama, was discovered in the village of Piprahava in the Terai, thus establishing a funeral tradition which the ancient kings of Nepal have recorded in all their important inscriptions and which is followed meticulously even to this day.

The Kirantis. Nepal was a powerful kingdom under thirty successive Kiranti kings from Yalmba to Gasti, eleven to fifteen hundred years before the appearance of the Licchavi kings, who reigned in the dawn of the Christian era. Some of the legendary Indian heroes (Arjuna of Mahabharata, in particular) appear to have visited Nepal during the reign of the sixth Kiranti King, Huing-ti. The Kiratas were simple in their manners and customs and carried a "kike," an early version of the khukri the Gurkha carries to-day. The Nepalese King and the Indian hero came to

grips over the possession of a wild boar shot to death, but the Indian hero was defeated, an episode which the famous Indian poet Bharavi has dramatised into the most beautiful of Indian classics known as the "Kiratarjunium." It was sometime during the reign of Surayarma that Buddha Gautama appears to have visited the valley of Nepal in order to worship the holy sites. The Kiranti King Thumke reigned over Nepal when Asoka visited Lumbini in 250 B. C. and from these and other early entries it can be established that the ancient race of the Kirantis fanned out from the high and dry plateaus of the Himalayas down to the Ganges and adjacent littorals. The chronology of the Kiranti kings, recording such names as Yalamba, Duskum and Huing-ti, definitely point to some great periods in the history of Nepal, to which the Buddhist and the Jain literature bear eloquent testimony. Nepal figures in authentic and positive Indian history from about the 4th century B. C. when Kautilya mentions "Nayapalicum" for the woollen goods manufactured in Nepal. Unfortunately, during the "Pauranic age" the legends wander at random in the chaos of the Hindu past.

The Licchavis. The inscriptions of the Licchavi kings of Nepal have much in common with the documents discovered by Sir Aureil Stein in Central Asia. From the recently discovered archaeological records we learn that the civilization of Nepal owes its origin to the North-west. Although there are some evidences of its connection with Sravasti, there is no proof of its relations with Magadha. The democratic system of the Panchayat (the rule of the elected five of the village) which guided the life of the common people, was developed at this time. Sanskrit culture flourished. Epigraphy attained perfection and Vedic astrology guided the life of the common man. There was religious toleration and free discussions of religious creeds. Poets like Yama, Usana, Brihaspati and Anuparama flourished. Merchants had organized guilds like the Ratna-sangha. Chinese texts that describe the travels of the Buddhist monks to India such as the Shun-ching-chu do not mention the Imperial Guptas or the University at Nalanda until the beginning of the Seventh Century A. D. On the basis of these facts, L. Fleet and M. Vincent Smith claimed that the Gupta Era was of Nepalese origin, and that the Gupta Kings of India were proud of their Licchavi lineage, at least through marital alliances with the Kings of Nepal.

With the Prime Minister Amsuvarman there came the introduction of new Divinities and of a dual sovereignty, classification of religious and secular institutions, composition of a new grammar, minting of a new system of coinage and the foundation of the palace of Kailasa-kuta. After Mananka and Gunanka the coins of Amsuvarman—stamped with the emblem of a flying griffon turning to the right with one forepaw raised in the attitude of walking and the opposite face with the lunar crescent and the solar radiance—reveal immense accession of political strength. It is these traditions, with the magic name of Pasupati that Nepal has since adopted in her standard and her coinage. Again it is from this time that the Kings of Nepal assume to themselves the title of "Parama Bhattaraka Maharaja Dhiraja" or king of kings.

The Rise of Tibet. It was at this time that a new nation formed itself and gathered momentum in Tibet, which struck at the root of the political equilibrium of south-east Asia. Nepal had assimilated a great number of these northern "yakshyas" from the dawn of history. But inclined to her soft southern neighbour with time, she had forgotten her northern neighbours who organised themselves in the solitude of

Tibet, under two talented leaders. In a matter of fifty years, the Tibetans became so formidable as to imperil the stability of China, Nepal, Kashmir and India.

The legends of India are silent about the activities of these northerners, but China, who had so much to suffer from these northern invaders, has carefully noted the various stages of their formation. On this side of the Himalayas, Nepal absorbed the shock and tempered and tamed the Tibetans by virtue of her superior civilisation.

The Chinese annals record: "The first king of Bod (yul) extended his territory to the south-east as far as the country of Po-lo-men (Brahmins) At the beginning of the dynasty of the T'ang (towards 620 A. D.), he gathered together 100,000 soldiers."

The son and successor of this founder of the Tibetan Empire eclipsed his father with his victories. He sent a mission composed of 16 persons, under the leadership of Thon-mi-anu, to Nepal in order to study the secrets of writing. The Mission returned with the Alphabets which very nearly reproduced the letters then prevalent in Nepal, and adapted itself to the most delicate notations of Tibetan sounds absent from the alphabets current in the Gupta inscriptions of Northern India of those days. The Tibetan king solicited the hand of Amsuvarman's daughter in marriage, and statesman that he was, the Prime Minister welcomed the request and thus saved Nepal from invasion by Tibet.

Nepal then sent her learned doctor Silva Varman of Bhringi Vihara to Lhasa, where he wrote the story of the spread of Buddhism in Tibet. He was followed by Tabutta and Canutta from Kashmir. The translation of the Buddhist scriptures were undertaken under Thomi Sambhota with the result that that the Tibetan language became one of the strongest vehicles of expression after the Mandarin and Sanskrit in Asia. Many Vandyas from Nepal found eminent places in the hierarchy of Tibet.

In the science of medicine also, Nepal never lagged far behind other countries. Chakra Pani, the famous Commentator of Shushrut (a great book on medicine in Sanskrit) flourished here. As stated above, a brilliant array of scholars from Yagyavalka, the great sage, to Nil Deva, makes Nepal conspicuous.

In the world of arts and crafts Nepal holds a high position. The temples of the Ramochchhe, Chugla K'ang and the under ground tiers of the Potala palace of Lhasa are living examples of the pagoda style of architecture obtaining in Nepal during the sixth and seventh centuries A.D. Aranike's workmanship during the 13th century has made him immortal in China. The pagoda style of architecture in buildings owes its origin to Nepal. His contemporary Mati Dhvaj initiated the then Chinese Emperor Kublai Khan into the occult cult of He-Vajra-Tantra. The wonderful artistic talent exhibited in the construction of Indra-Griha, Mana Griha, Kailash Kuta and Bhadradhivasa buildings was much appreciated at that time. Work in wood and metal as well as fine arts likewise occupy a special position, especially the former which display exquisite workmanship.

Our country has always been a meeting ground of the cultural ideologies of the North and the South. Here, Hindu culture has happily blended with that of Buddhism, resulting in a distinct culture which finds expression in temples and chaityas, homes and palaces, social functions, religious processions and fairs,

customs and manners and in dancing and singing.

In the 11th century when scholars came with bag and baggage from the south, seeking for refuge, our country offered them asylum. On the other hand we have preserved many of those books which it is difficult to find in the south. All this distinctly shows the dominating role that history has played in our country.

The Dark Ages that followed this glorious early period in Nepal benighted us and we forgot our own worth. Our history passed into the custody of foreigners who now undertook the task of our education and orientation. Thus we totally forgot what our responsibilities were.

The Development of Education from an Historical Point of View

The development of education in Nepal reflects clearly her role as catalyst for the fusion of the Aryan Brahmanism, Buddhism and Boupoism of the Tibeto-Burman races.

Though not widespread or universal in any sense, these systems of education flourished for centuries before the advent of the English system which was imported from India less than seventy-five years ago, and the introduction of Gandhian Basic Education less than ten years ago. Most of the few schools in Nepal today reflect the Aryan-Sanskritic influence which to some extent has always dominated the other types.

The Buddhist influence may be seen in the few "Gompas" which still remain today along the northern borders of Nepal, but one must now go to Tibet to really study this educational system. Though developed mostly in Nepal, the Aryan invasions of India and the introduction of the Sanskritic system into Nepal gradually pushed the earlier system northward. Tibet to-day retains all of the traditions of these early Buddhist institutions, which are mostly lost to their parent country except in ancient recorded inscriptions.

By 771 A. D. the monasteries of Yarlung, Chonghie, and Samya, and the temples of Lhasa and Yarpa had been built. Subsequently the tradition of learning was carried on by such university towns as Ganden (housing about 3,300 students and teachers), Dre-pung (housing about 7,700), and Sera (housing about 5,500), all of them founded in the first quarter of the 15th century A. D. with innumerable affiliated monasteries of varying sizes all over Tibet, and also the northern regions of Nepal. The Tibetan institutions were built on beds of rocks and with firm stones. In the total absence of vermin, the massive structures of Tibet have withstood the wear and tear of time better than those of Nepal^{1*}.

¹ Each monastery was built on a three level organization of the University Board (La-Chi), the college (Dra-Chhang) and a boarding hostel (Khamjen). Like a college in a modern university, the Dra-Chhang formed the backbone of the institution with a compact economic and administrative unit retaining a high degree of autonomy in its curriculum, text-books and rules of discipline. The prayer hall was the focal point of all activities and the most imposing piece of architecture in these residential universities. The college President (Khembu) was elected from among the graduates with the "Geshi" degree of the college. Next to the Khembu, the other important persons were the Steward in charge of general affairs including finance, the Choir-leader (like a dean) and the proctor. It was the function of the Khembu to give regular lessons to a class of Lamas (known as Bai-Chh'awa's) in an open air arbour or amid clusters of trees so characteristic of ancient Nepal. The Bai-Chh'awa was the only clan of Lamas where there was ecclesiastical order, and for which there was a faculty in the modern sense. This was the centre of group studies, where the students, after the lecture of the Khembu, took part in theological debates with much noise and dramatic display.

Under the overall supervision of the Dra-chhang, they had small "Khamjens" organised on linguistic

Except for the sacred sites of ancient worship like Gum-vihara (Baudhanat), Mani-Chaitya (Swayambhu-nath), Khajnu-vahi (Kharjurikavihara), Mana Deva Sanskarita Vihara (in Patan), and Bhrigaresvara (Bhringi-vihara), Nepal has almost totally lost the tradition of monastic education except for blind worship. The only relics of this ancient system in Nepal are Gompas of the border area.

Judging from the ancient inscriptions of Nepal, the ancient kings of the country honoured Buddhism as much by founding and financing the Viharas (schools) as they respected the three Vedas by getting beautiful images sculptured and dedicating temples to Vedic gods. But, absorbed in their abstruse speculations, the Buddhist teachers of Nepal did not seem to pay any attention to the need of the Nepalese masses for simple learning. Though the Buddhistic Viharas flourished and multiplied under the liberal donations of the kings of Nepal, the first Aryan impact of Vedic religion and Brahmanism (with its beautiful temples and images accompanied by attractive forms of worship with incense, bells, and song) decimated the Buddhist viharas in Nepal.

With King Vasanta Deva came the introductions of the worship of such dual gods as Matsyendra, combining in them the attributes of Aryan and Buddhistic pantheons, and leading to the founding of many institutions of learning. The multiplication of these institutions led to their classification by the Prime Minister Amsuvarman. According to this classification Nepal had different schools for the religious cults of Saivism, Baishnavism and Buddhism².

and geographic areas, such as the Gurkha Khamjens which enlisted the Nepalese students and Chinese Khamjens which enlisted the Chinese nationals. Each was a self contained financial unit and did not share its resources with other Khamjens. The Nepalese representative in Lhasa today is invited to preside over the present Gurkha Khamjen.

Theoretically, admission to the monastery was open to all, irrespective of age limit and social or political restrictions, and the Tibetans flocked to them for education, for social standing, for vocational training, or because the poorest of them had nowhere else to go. The curriculum in these monasteries embraced all aspects of religious rites of catering to the daily needs of the populace: one could specialize in vocal training; candidates disposed to business could help to manage monastic properties or engage themselves in trade; painters could paint Tibetan scrolls; dreamers could see apocalyptic visions and guide their fellow students or chant prayers in ecstasy; there were fighters, and just hangers-on who simply stood and waited.

The day's routine for a student began with prayer at the break of day in the prayer hall. Everybody was expected to attend, though the wealthier students often asked somebody to stand proxy for them. The students squatted cross-legged in long criss-cross rows over carpets. The Khembus occupied high raised seats and looked down upon the congregation. The choir leader squatted on a dais and chanted hymns, with regular intervals for tea. The singing of psalms was done in a deep bass (to imitate the voice of Buddha) by the choir leader, followed by the thousand voices of the students. There were occasional clappings to mark the pause in the stanzas and also to drive out the devil. With the coming of day, the students attended open air classes, sitting on the ground, each class forming a group. In the meantime, the Khembu arrived to take his seat on a platform and gave a few lessons. While one class was receiving instructions, the rest formed circles and practiced debating.

These monasteries had something of a semester system, which divided each academic year into two periods of six months. There were altogether 15 or 16 classes, each with a different name, where a yearly promotion was automatic without any recognised system of examination. After a student had been promoted to the first class, he could either apply for a "Ge-Shi" degree, or, if he had nothing else to do, stick to the class as long as he liked. After the completion of the esoteric course of studies culminating in the degree of Ge-shi, an ambitious Lama betook himself to the academies of Gye-Me and Gyu-to for the higher flights of esoteric training of "Yoga" (occultism). The academies are today famous for solid learning, ascetic training and discipline in matters of apparel, food, sleep and conduct.

² Under the cult of Saivism, Pashupaty held the highest precedence, receiving 7-2 donations, followed by Dhara-Maneshwar, Maneshwar, Parvateshwar and Kailasheshwar, each receiving the donation of 3-1. Under the cult of Vaishnavism, Dola-Shikhar-Swamin held the highest precedence, receiving a donation of 7-2, followed by Samba-pura, Narasimba deva and Bhum-bhu-Kika, Jala-Shayana (Buddha Neelakanth) each receiving the donation of 3-1. Among the Buddhist institutions of learning, there were Gum-Vihara, Shree Eta Vihara, Shree Mana Vihara and Kharjurika vihara, each receiving voluntary donations of 7-2, followed by Madhyama and ordinary Viharas, each receiving a donation of 3-1. Among other beneficiaries there were the Panchayat of Sapela, receiving a donation of 7-2, followed by ordinary Panchayats, unidentified Hamsa-grihadeve, and the god beyond the river Bagman, each receiving the donations of 3-1, the institutions of Deva-Kula and Raja-Kula, and Gausthika (Guthis or Guilds), each receiving a voluntary donation of 2-2, Kritaprasadah and Brahman, each receiving 1-0, and ordinary man receiving 1-0. The inscription of Arnshuvarman at Harigaon, from which this

The grammarian Panini bound Sanskrit in such stiff rules of grammar that the language became inaccessible to the common people. The candidates spent most of their time in mastering the grammatical forms, which occupied them more than six years after eight years in the primary and middle terms. Then, too, they had to learn by rote the Vedas, the Meemansas, literature, astrology or whatever text or course they wanted to specialise in with the result that they had to devote the greater part of their lives to their studies without understanding the meaning and the context of what they were reading about. Some are of the opinion that in the absence of any system of examinations, critical studies competition, appropriate institutions and qualified teachers to take charge of different faculties, arts and sciences gave place to ritualism and hidebound formalism connected with the prayers, incantations and blind worship.

Further Historical Development

We have pointed out that the earliest Buddhistic Viharas were better organised than the sister Brahmannic institutions dedicated to the forms and rituals of worship of the many Divinities. Buddhism was a scientific religion created by some of the most incisive minds of the hoary Himalayas, when Brahmanism had claimed practically the whole of the Gangetic basin of Hindustan. Once Buddhism appeared, it fixed its duration to a definite period and avoided the stunning eternity of the Brahmins in consideration of the course of milleniums already travelled over and the chasm of the future before mankind in the abyss of time. Solitary in their convents, the Buddhist free-thinkers did not deceive themselves by the mirage of Universal Nothingness amid the *jejune* realities of this work-a-day world.

As members of a healthy human community and responsible for its interests, they carefully kept the registers of donations and privileges granted by the individuals and their kings. The Viharas preserved their records and the many convents their daily diaries. Propagated by a succession of Patriarchs, regulated by Buddhist councils and patronised by illustrious kings, the monastic institutions and system of education founded and introduced by the many Buddhas and their disciples laid before Nepal the gradual stages of her growing greatness.

As a result, Nepal grew proud of a continuous chronology, where it is recorded that the last of the historical Buddhas, namely Siddhartha Gautama, paid a visit and spent one rainy season in the village of Nala, worshipping holy sites occupied by the past Buddhas during the reign of the Kiranti King Surayarma.

When the Indian Raja Asoka undertook to repair the stupa dedicated to Buddha Konagamana about 238 B. C. and went himself on a pilgrimage in 250 B. C., his route, still recognizable by the pillar inscriptions he put up, lay along the buffer zone, where he learnt the first lessons of history from the many stupas and inscriptions dedicated, in the Aryan Brahmani script, to the memory of the many Buddhas.

Competent historians have attributed, as a decisive argument, to Asoka's visit his disgust with the transcendental indifference of the Hindu feeling to the realities

information is taken, reveals an early form of voluntary taxation conceived purely on the basis of mutual agreement. Deva-Kula, Raja-Kula, Guru-Kula and Rishi-Kula were Aryan scholastic institutions.

life. But it was with the lessons he learnt in the north-western schools that he could introduce the Stupato to this country and falsify the then Indian gods with the cult of Buddhism which he had presently acquired, adopted and propagated. After the invasion of Alexander the Great, Asoka was the first patron of Buddhism in India. Then for one thousand years, Buddhism had the glory of softening, appeasing and absorbing the barbarous conquerors of India. Unfortunately, Buddhism and Brahmanism could not live together in India and fought each other during the intervening period.

On the other hand, Buddhism and Brahmanism, long separated and rivals in India, interpenetrated and almost mingled in Nepal even with the dawn of the Licchavi Era. The Buddhist monks had consecrated the many stupas and the Viharas to the many free-thinking Buddhas. Equally, the Aryan Gods Shankara and Vishnu had fixed their abodes on the holy heights of Doladri (Chungu-Narayana) and Devagrama (Pasupaty) with their Devakulas (schools for teaching the particular prayers and rituals connected with the worship of specific gods).

Around and between the two principal divinities, there were lesser gods of the local priests, Brahmins and the Lamas with their respective temples, schools of worship and adherents. Side by side, there were the Raja-kulas (schools of politics) to teach fealty to the king and to the political organisations in a country, where Royalty was handed down from father to son and where restless and indocile feudal chiefs defied the sovereign authority. Then, too, we find the Pitri-kulas (schools for teaching the history of the country) which handed down the tradition from generation to generation.

The inscriptions and chronicles allow us to follow the developments up to the 7th century A. D. when Nepal attains the height of her glory. Already under the inspiration of the Aryan religious beliefs, the Licchavis had adopted the Sanskrit language in preference to the local Kiram language in vogue, and realised the linguistic unity of the country to the, rejection of the indigenous dialects. Already with the inscriptions of King Mana Deva, we find this Aryan language a vehicle of robust thought and delicate art, which, with the 7th century, had propagated a common idea of reasoning, of sentiment, and of beauty throughout the Asiatic world. Elaborated by strict rules of grammar and associated with the many Devakulas, Raja-kulas, Pitri-kulas, Rishi-kulas and Guru-kulas, it had become too complex for the understanding of the common people in the process of time.

We have already described how destiny helped Nepal to cast in her lot with resurgent Tibet about this time and how this event brought her in contact with China, which widened her political horizon. Reminded by these new aggressors of the wild incursions of the Hunas, who preceded them, and presently by the rising tide of the Arabs, China sent her mandarins and pilgrims to India so that she might break the cordons of the barbarians. Nepal promised an easy way across to this new commerce of nations, and became the converging points of the two worlds through the hundred gates of the Himalayas.

Already Nepal had given Buddhism to India, which nearly helped her to preserve herself through religious unity in a sub-continent of diversity. Equally, Nepal was now joined in wedlock to Tibet, who spoke the language of the common

people, borrowed Nepal's scripts, translated her holy texts, installed her gods and re-established her monasteries, which bear the stamp of ancient heritage even to this day. Chinese Ambassadors passed through Tibet to Nepal and became official guests. Nepal's culture, art, architecture and sculpture astonished and inspired the refined Chinese themselves. Sustained by liberal donations and properly encouraged, science flourished. The learned monks in the many Viharas composed and distributed copies of holy scriptures and canonical treatises, while also diverting themselves from their austere studies by finely executed paintings and miniatures.

But the resources of Nepal were not adequate for her expanding needs. With the onset of Islam, India had fallen into anarchy and chaos, and China and Tibet had exhausted themselves by incessant wars. The Licchavi kings of Nepal, who were backed by the might of the successors of Sron-tsan-bspam-po, disappeared in turmoil.

With the disappearance of the Licchavis, the Malla Kings became the Masters of Nepal. The Licchavis had effected the combination of the Buddhistic and the Brahmannic pantheons, but the Mallas separated the two orders, prescribed rules and laws for the professional groups and castes, and introduced new systems of weights and measures, which prepared Nepal for a period of economic prosperity. Once more in history, we find the Chinese Ambassadors travelling across the great roads of Asia and exchanging Missions and gifts with the Kings of Nepal. Once more, Nepal excelled in literature, architecture, sculpture and painting. Even the Malla kings composed dramatic works and took part in the dramas as actors.

The victory of the Gurkhas completed the annexation of Nepal to the ideals of Brahmanism for the second time in her long history. Populated by the mixed races of the Kirantis, converted and civilised by the freethinking Buddhas and absorbed by the early Aryan cults of Brahmannism, Nepal travelled through the various stages of her scintillating national history. She then came in contact with the Aryans of Europe during the continuing phase of her national history. "The tradesman" says a Gurkha proverb, "brings the Bible and the Bible brings the bayonet" Nevertheless, the Gurkhas admitted and proclaimed the neutrality of science, when King Prithi Narayan Saha used with advantage the fire-arms and introduced the discipline of Europe into the Nepalese army. It is in this unique feature exactly that the original and essential interest of the history of Nepal lies for the present, more because a new Semitic ideology, so far unforeseen, was knocking, as much from the hundred gates of the Himalayas as from a section of the undefined southern plains. There is, therefore the more reason why Nepal's history and culture, which have stood all by themselves in spite of the currents and cross-currents of millenniums should have a greater appeal to the larger and presently more advanced communities of mankind.

India, on the other hand, was involved in her struggle against Islam, when Buddhism could not afford her the needed protection. Fighting finally against what she believed to be the intrusion of Europe, she exploded into the worse evil of Hindu-Moslem riots and the subsequent division of India into Hindustan and Pakistan, when the British people decided to present independence to her in 1947. Deviated from the preponderating influences and forces of foreign domination and obsessed by the terror of religious persecution under Islam, India is today wavering

between two worlds .and two ideologies.

Toleration and fanaticism are conceptions unknown to the soil of Nepal. The Nepali readily believes in all gods and fought Islam only because the invaders were iconoclasts and broke the Nepalese idols. Nevertheless, two hundred thousand Moslems form part of the kingdom of Nepal and their rights, privileges, and freedom of worship are as jealously guarded as those of their Hindu, Buddhist and Bonpo brethren. Then, too, it was one of the Malla kings who had allowed full scope to the Italian Missionaries in the 18th century A.D. to preach their religion and make converts, provided it was done with the will of the converts. There was no catastrophe for Buddhism in Nepal. Buddhism waned and was absorbed only when it lost its right to exist for the nation. Uniform and severe, the discipline of the monasteries suited the Buddhist monks alone; too subtle and diverse, the lay society escaped them.

In order to chalk out a new path for themselves, the Gurkhas recognised the fact that the revival of Aryan Brahmannism was essential for the preservation of their national independence. As a religion of export, Buddhism had served the parent country to her satisfaction through the centuries by weakening her opponents on all fronts. Buddhism had played a prominent part in the consolidation of South-east Asia, with the principle places of pilgrimages in the heart of Nepal, to all of which the Buddhist world had owed a religious allegiance. If Buddhism had challenged Hinduism in the 6th Century B.C., it had equally helped to civilize and soften the hordes of barbarians who had repeatedly conquered and held India till the onset of Islam. Buddhism had outlived its usefulness, when it confronted the crusaders of Allah, who brooked no rival. With the burning of the Buddhistic convents, Buddhism disappeared from India. For the second time in their long history, Nepal and Tibet had taken up the thread and continued the tradition. The many mortal (historical) Buddhas were absorbed in the Brahmannic pantheon and worshipped together with the Aryan Gods.

Then, too, the Gurkhas realised that the Sanskrit language had become defunct for all practical purposes and that other Aryans had come in from the west to revive the Aryan tradition and keep the torch burning. Forgotten on account of a long separation, they introduced their institutions and languages into neighbouring India, which, though unrecognisable now, are the first cousins of Sanskrit which Nepal had adopted through the centuries as the vehicle of her thoughts and religious beliefs.

The most powerful British Aryan Empire runs parallel with the borders of Nepal. For an equilibrium and balance of power, the Gorkha relied upon China, whom he considered nearly as powerful as the British Empire after the Sino-Nepalese war of 1792. But the reports of the Nepalese Ambassadors deputed by the Government of Nepal every five years to Peking shook the faith of the Gurkhas in the solidarity and strength of the Celestial Empire.

Reminded of her actual strength by the Anglo-Nepal War of 1814, Nepal concentrated upon Tibet as an outlet for the congestion of her military forces. B. H. Hodgson realised the danger that threatened the Pax-Britannica and undertook to recruit the Gurkhas to relieve the pressure. This alone did not relieve the danger. In

the absence of China, Russia had taken charge of watching over the Dalai Lama and the Buddhistic Churches in Tibet.

With the Gurkhas thoroughly drilled under the discipline and tactics of Europe and with the munitions and the armaments which the Nepalese arsenals were incessantly producing at the time, the Gurkhas could have easily called a halt to Russian designs over Tibet in spite of the formidable Himalayan barriers. The Nepalese and the Tibetan records proved that of all the southern invaders the Nepalese alone had successfully invaded Tibet and also defended her. There was also the religious factor that the Tibetans and the Mongols owed fealty to the Buddhistic stupas in Nepal along with the Buddhistic educational institutions in the heart of Tibet and Mongolia.

But encouragement to Nepal invited involvement with Russia, which England tried to avoid at all costs. Wright expressly declared that "the game was not worth the candle." England only foresaw that the importance of Nepal was due to her mountain passes as an outlet for direct commerce between Hindustan and Central Asia to the rejection of all other values. England was content to neutralise this advantage of Nepal by opening up new trade routes of the Jelep-la and the Nathula through Kalimpong and Sikkim respectively. The miserable clients of Tibet could give but meager profits to the British traders and the British capital was not prepared to exploit the mineral resources of Nepal and Tibet. Thwarted by Britain in her ambitions over Tibet, Nepal was left to languish in the hands of the Rana usurpers in complete isolation from world contacts.

For a diversion with Russia the crafty British rulers revived the old division of the two Buddhist churches of Mahayana (the Greater Vehicle) and Hinayana (the Lesser Vehicle), which reappeared in Asia to serve the exigencies of European political games. England, the unchallenged

Queen of the seas, held Burma and Ceylon with the Hinayana School of Buddhism, and also brought Siam under her influence. To the north, Russia reunited under her domination the dispersed fragments of the monasteries of the Lamas attached to the Mahayana School of Buddhism with its sacred foundation in the Himalayas. Already inspired by territorial ambitions, Catherine appeared as the incarnation of the Nepalese Princess Green Tara and the Czar as the incarnation of the coming Buddhist Messiah, Buddha Maitreya.

With all their far-sightedness, the people of Great Britain were powerless to prevent the consequences of World War II, which brought serious shifts in the balance of international politics. As a result, the major British power left India, Pakistan, Ceylon and Burma to take care of themselves within the Commonwealth of Nations. Resurgent China took advantage of the situation to occupy Tibet as a part of the province of China.

We have seen how the Buddhistic education of the Gompas, imported originally from Nepal, still lives and throbs with the life of the country, and how the Gurkhas resuscitated the Sanskritic system of education on the lines of the Licchavis and the Mallas. With the arrival of the British in India, their educational institutions were quickly remodelled on western lines. By the time they left in 1947, 30% of India's children were attending these schools. Though loath to impart education to

the people, the Ranas encouraged the British system of education among their family members and their followers. Thus, today there will be found in Nepal remnants of Sanskrit education, Buddhist Viharas, the British education and the Bhasa Pathshalas, the last based on the Nepalese language. In the absence of a national education system, some of the people of Nepal have looked to the north for educational inspiration while others are looking to the south.

Ministry of Education



With the advent of democracy, international contacts widened the vision of the Nepalese people in a world already grown smaller in space on account of the advancement of science. We have begun to feel the importance of education. The number of primary and secondary schools has multiplied four times while high schools and colleges also have been increasing. We are also exploring sites for the establishment of a University within another five years.

Most of the important Brahmannic gods and the Buddhistic monasteries lie in the heart of Nepal, to which the greater part of the world owes its religious allegiance. Then, too, there are Bonpo communities to the west of Nepal. With a national system of education embracing the best of everything, Nepal can play the role of a catalyst for the second time in her long history.

Nepal Today

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 only recently gotten a 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.

Nepal, today, faces problems that to people with less courage, less energy, or less perseverance would seem insurmountable. Some of these have been tackled; others we must tackle tomorrow. Some of the more serious problems are sketched below.

1. There is a tremendous shortage of trained personnel to tackle the many problems—to help Nepal catch up with the progress of the twentieth century. Ninety-eight percent of the people are illiterate; only about 300 complete high schools each year in all of Nepal and only about 100 complete college; there are no recognized technical or engineering colleges, no teachers' colleges, no business administration training, no medical or dental colleges or nurses' training; there is no university. The lack of educated personnel, of an educational system, and of institutions is Nepal's biggest problem.
2. Nepal lacks ready capital to tackle her problems. Her people are poor; many live in poverty, barely eking out an existence. Much capital is tied up in huge palaces and other non-profitable property; much capital has been removed from the country and now serves only our foreign neighbours. Though rich in natural resources, the absence of developmental capital prevents their exploitation for the country's benefit. Though her people work arduously, they lack the modern tools and equipment to make their labours profitable. Nepal needs capital, but the lack of trained personnel discourages investment by foreign capital.
3. Since 1951 The Government of Nepal has had a series of ministerial changes. This is to be expected during the transition from autocracy to democracy, but it intensifies existing problems and creates new ones. It lessens security for individuals and the country as a whole and reduces the effectiveness of all concerned.

4. There is an extremely inadequate transportation and communication network. Most of the burdens of agriculture and commerce move on the backs of human beings. Since there are only 278 miles of highways in the entire country it is impossible for many of the people to use wheels to move their goods. Thus transportation consumes a disproportionately large part of the manpower and an unduly large percentage of the cost of many of their products. The very limited mail service, small number of telephones and radios and shortage of news organs make it difficult for the government to maintain proper contacts for the promotion of development programmes and for the proper control and administration of the various areas. It likewise imposes a tremendous handicap from the standpoint of defense of the country.
5. Many people live in serfdom, productive land is withheld from production, and the proceeds of nearly half the land are tax-free all because of an ancient feudal system that has carried down to the present from the Dark Ages of the past. Most of Nepal's financial problems can be laid to the obsolete tax and land systems, exorbitant interest rates and the inheritance of debts.
6. Disease is rampant in Nepal; life expectancy is extremely short. Few places in the world have a higher incidence of malaria, cholera, and other tropical diseases than certain sections of Nepal. But to cope with these conditions there are in the entire country less than a handful of trained doctors, dentists, nurses, and pharmacists. The 600 hospital beds are accessible to less than 90% of the people.

There are other problems that will be revealed in the course of the next few chapters, any one of which can continue to keep Nepal in darkness. But education is the first step. With it we can solve our problems and rediscover the glories that were once Nepal's.

CHAPTER III

EXTENT OF EDUCATION IN NEPAL

Introduction

In this first survey of education in Nepal, the Commission has been severely handicapped by the absence of any scientific and systematic collection of data in the past. The first census was taken in 1921 but it is considered to be no better than an estimate; the first scientific census was started in 1952 and complete figures are not yet available. Until a few years ago there was no central office to supervise education, let alone collect information about it. As late as 1953 a national inspectorial system was established to maintain first-hand touch with the schools, but there is still no uniform system of records from which to draw information and data. As a matter of fact, new schools are opening so rapidly—and a few are closing almost before their opening can be recorded—that it is impossible to obtain accurate figures. Even the Education Department's figures vary considerably from day to day because new reports are coming in from the Inspectors.

The statistics presented in this chapter are as accurate as the Commission could make them. Every check and precaution has been applied. In some instances, they are admitted estimates. The data on education are pegged from September 1954, and are expected to be out-of-date before the actual writing or printing of this Report.

The National Census Bureau and the Education Department have been extremely cooperative in furnishing available data and in assisting in the interpretation of them. Information regarding adult education, the extension work of the Village Development Programme, and other data came from various sources, especially from the Planning and Development Ministry, which has been very helpful.

Administrative Organization

Education in Nepal today is loosely organized under the Ministry of Education of the Central Government, and to some extent (i.e., the curriculum of some schools) under the University of Patna, an accrediting University in Northern India. The extent of control of the Central Ministry is determined by the amount of financial aid extended to the schools. For the purpose of determining this, the schools may be grouped into three categories: (a) "Government" schools, or those supported and administered entirely by the Central Government; (b) "Government aided" schools, or those started independently, but now meeting certain standards and receiving varying amounts of financial aid from the Central Government; and (c) "independent" schools, or those operating independently, both financially and administratively. A fourth type, now labeled "national" schools, is proposed in Part II of this Report which would be financed and administered jointly by the Central Government and village government officials through a democratically selected

board of education, or managing committee. All schools at present, except "government" schools, receive some support from the collection of tuition fees; the fourth type proposes to offer free education.

Under the Minister of Education (who also holds portfolios in Health, and Local Self-Government) there is an Education Secretary, two Deputy Secretaries, and two Assistant Secretaries, all on the ministerial level; and a Director General of Public Instruction, two other directors, Inspectors of Schools, and other officials (see Figure 3). The educational policies and programme of the Government are determined and carried out by this Ministry with the help of a National Board of Education of twenty members.

The Department for supervisory purposes is divided roughly into two sections: (a) the Directorate of English or modern education, and (b) the Directorate of Sanskrit education. The system of education prevailing in Nepal is patterned to some extent after that of India, and several distinct types of education exist side by side. The *English* type follows the British model of India, which at one time was accredited on the basis of the Oxford and Cambridge examinations. The *Nepali*, *Hindi*, and *Sanskrit* types (sometimes called *Pathashalas*) provide a classical education of traditional form leading to government employment (also priesthood, the profession of reciting the legends and religious rites prescribed by social custom). Still another type, the *Basic* school, is modelled on the Gandhian pattern of India, and emphasizes rural vocational training. These schools all recognize primary, middle, secondary, and higher levels of training.³

In 1953, the inspection and supervision of these schools was organized under seven zonal divisions, each with an inspector, three sub-inspectors, and necessary office help. These zones are shown in the accompanying map (Figure 4) and in Table I.

The zonal inspector and his sub-inspectors are responsible to the Assistant Director of Public instruction. The headmaster of each government school is responsible to the inspectorate and a Managing Committee (School Board), which is mostly an advisory board. The headmaster of each government-aided school and Managing Committee are responsible to the inspectorate for inspection and advice and for accounting for Government funds. Independent schools may solicit inspection as a prerequisite to securing government aid. In these independent schools, the Managing Committee usually exercises a large measure of administrative control. Managing Committees are usually made up of seven to fifteen members, representing the teachers, the parents, the headmaster, and laymen at large.

³ In addition, there are along the northern border an undetermined number of 'Gompas' which are run by Buddhist monks and train for Buddhist Lamaism. The government has no jurisdiction over these schools.

FIGURE 3. PRESENT ORGANIZATION OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

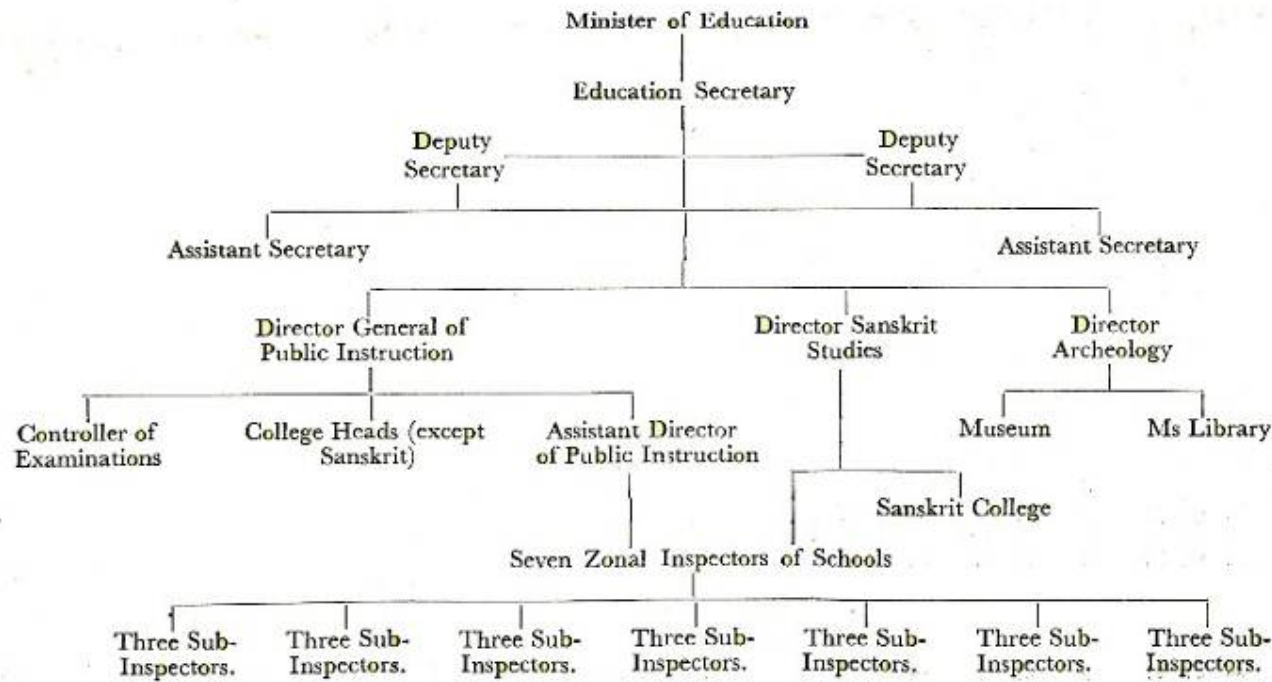


TABLE I. ZONAL ORGANIZATION OF SCHOOLS

Zone	Headquarters	Districts
1	Dhankuta	Ilam, Dhankuta, Morang
2	Janakpore	East No. 2, 3, 4, Sindhuli, Saptary, Mahottari.
3	Kathmandu	East No. 1, West No. 1, Kathmandu, Chisapani Gadi, Bara, Parsa, Rautahat
4	Pokhara	West No. 2, 3, 4, Thak, Mustang, Chitawan Nawalpur, Palhi
5	Taulihava	Palpa, Piuthana, Majkhand, Sheoraj, Khajahani
6	Nepalganj	Jumla, Dailekh, Salyan, Dang (Bhansar) Banke Bardia
7	Doti	Baitadi, Dadel-dhura, Doti, Kailali Kanchanpur

Financial Support

Financial support for these schools comes from several sources. This Central Government for 1953-1954 budgeted approximately Rs. 18,00,000 (Dollars 225,000) from general revenue (which is derived from land tax tariffs and customs, forests, fees, public utilities, and other taxes). This money was used to support the central ministry offices and zonal inspection offices for support of government schools (with the aid of tuition fees), for aid grants to the government-aided schools, and for teacher training and other activities. (Roughly, this was distributed as follows: government English schools, Rs. 2 lakhs; Basic schools, Rs. 3 lakhs; government Vernacular Sanskrit schools, Rs. 4 lakhs; colleges, Rs. 2 lakhs; aid-grants, Rs. 3 lakhs; equipment, Rs. 2 lakhs; administration, Rs. 2 lakhs.) Local support comes mainly from two sources: (a) tuition fees varying from Rs.1/2 to 6 per child per month (6 to 72 cents) according to grade level and locality, and (b) "contributions," which may be truly voluntary, specific requests, or assessments, based usually on ability to pay and/or interest in education, and coming from both parents and non-parents of the children actually in school. Most schools provide a few "free seats" for children whose parents cannot afford the tuition. In no community a local "contributions" known to be raised by enforced taxation, but various social pressures may be applied. These funds are usually solicited on monthly basis, thus making local support some what precarious. No accurate data are available on the actual total amount of money derived from local sources, but it is estimated that about Rs. 20,00,000 to Rs. 22,00,000 (Dollars 275,000) were raised last year by tuition fees, and Rs. 1,00,000 to Rs. 2,00,000 (Dollars 24,000) by contributions, throughout the nation as a whole.

To the extent that the above figures are accurate, it may be estimated, that in 1953-54 about Rs.36,50,000 (Dollars 455,000) were spent directly on schools and colleges exclusive of central and zonal administrative costs. This is an average of about Rs. 50 (Dollars 6) per pupil per year. A further breakdown is possible on the basis of estimation (See Table II).

Table II. Estimated Per-pupil Expenditure

	Approx. No. Teacher	Est. Annual Cost per teacher	Est. Annual Total cost	Approx. No. of Pupil	Est. Annual Average cost per pupil
Primary School	1280	Rs. 480	Rs. 614,400	26,200	Rs.23
Middle Schools	1325	960	1,272,000	33,400	38
High School	920	1500	1,380,000	12,700	122
Colleges	130	3000	390,000	1,300	300
Total	3655		3,656,400	73,600	
Average		1000			50

The Population of Nepal

Essential to any educational planning is information regarding the general population. Until 1952, there had been no accurate or scientific census taking in Nepal. In that year an accurate count was made, but the complete statistics are available only for the eastern half of Nepal. Therefore, some of the data that follow must of necessity be projected estimates.

Percival Landon, in a two-volume set, Nepal, quotes figures from a 1910 and a 1920 census. The total population of Nepal in 1920 was 5,574,756 according to this source, with nearly equal division between men and women : men, 2,800,042 ; women, 2,774,714, or 50.23% and 49.77%.

The Census Bureau has provided summary data for Eastern Nepal, the area for which complete figures for 1952 are available. From these data we may project estimates for the rest of the country, assuming the same percentage of increase (See Table III).

Table III. Estimated Population of Nepal

Year	Total eastern Nepal	% of increase from previous census	Estimated remainder of Nepal	Estimated total for all of Nepal
1920	2,262,719	-	3,312,037	5,574,756 (Landon 1920 census)
1941	2,367,327	4.2%	3,451,101	5,818,428
1952	3,244,825	37.1%	4,731,459	7,976,284
1955 (est)	3,573,201	10.12%*	5,210,223	8,783,484

*(3.37% per year)

From this table, it may be seen that the total population at present approaches nine million, although some estimates run as high as ten million people. (The Census Department estimates 8,596,512 for 1952). The significant, and startling, factor, though, is the *present rate of increase* in population. It may be supposed that the 1920 figures were inaccurately low, and that the 4.2% increase shown for the twenty-one years from 1920 to 1941 (2% per year) was therefore too high. It is known that most other countries of the world experienced tremendous increases from 1940 to 1950, but 3.37% per year as shown for Nepal is an unusually high increase. The eastern part of Nepal is more densely populated than the western part and thus this rate of increase, known to be fairly accurate for the East, may not hold for the West. The absence of many soldiers from their homes in 1941 and the greater tendency to miss persons in counting rather than to count excess persons would suggest that the 1941 total may be low and the correction of this error would,

of course, reduce the percentage of increase. It would not, however, change materially the present total estimate.

This percentage of increase does not hold very steady in the various political districts. In the Eastern Hill Districts, the percentages of increase from 1941 to 1952 were: East No. 1, 50.5%; East No. 2, 54.8%; East No. 3 and 4, 32.2%; Dhankuta, 34.4%; Ilam, 25.9%. In the Eastern Inner Terai, it was 129.3%. In the Eastern Terai Pradesh, the increases were: Bara, Parsa Rauthat, 13.9%; Sirha and Hanuman Nagar, 18.6%, Jhapa and Biratnagar, 27.7%. Various economic and other factors undoubtedly account for these extreme variations, and whether similar rates of increase can be used for projecting population figures for the next decade is questionable. It may be assumed, however, that improved standards of living will decrease the death rate and may increase the birth rate, both of which will tend to increase the rate of population growth. Obviously, such variations and unknown factors make it extremely difficult to develop educational plans for these areas in terms of the number of pupils to be accommodated or in terms of financial resources available. Similar figures for Western Nepal are not available.

The *number of families* in an area is another significant index in educational planning. The 1952 census shows 627,132 families for the eastern area, or 5.33 persons per family. Projected on this ratio, this would mean a total of 1,480,298 families for all of Nepal in 1952 or 1,647,933 families in 1955.

The 1952 census also shows a total of 746,404 *houses* for the eastern area (why this should be 1/6th more than the number of families is unexplained), and the percentage of increase from 1941 to 1952 in the number of houses. These eleven-year increases for the several districts are: East No. 1, 45.2%; East No. 2, 45.8%; East No. 3 and 4, 27.9%; Dhankuta, 32.6%; Ilam, 80.8%; Eastern Inner Terai, 144.5%; Bara, Parsa and Rauthat, 114.3%; Sirha and Hanuman-Nagar, 125.7%; Jhapa and Biratnagar, 101.1%. These figures compare favourably and tend to support the figures for the population increases in some districts, but are so far apart for other districts as to throw doubt on the validity of them. Nevertheless, they emphasize once again some of the difficulties of educational planning in these areas.

Still another index of interest is the *density of population*. In the eastern area for which figures are available, we find the following variations

In the number of people per square mile : East No. 1, 248; East No. 2, 190.8; East No. 3, 135.2; East No. 4, 257.6; Dhankuta, 134.5; Ilam, 217.1; Sindhuli and Udayapur (Eastern Inner Terai) 113.1 and 97.7; Parsa, 249.8; Bara 409.5; Rauthat, 455.5; Sirha and Hanuman-Nagar, 473.2; Jhapa and Biratnagar, 200.7; Average 206.2. These variations, from 97.7 to 473.2, further accentuate the problems of educational planning.

Another factor to be considered is the number and size of villages, for nearly all of the people of Nepal live in villages or towns; rarely does one find an isolated house set off by itself. In eastern Nepal there are 11,021 villages with an average of 303 persons per village. Projected on this ratio, there were in 1952 an estimated 26,040 villages in all of Nepal.

Averages of village size give a very unsatisfactory picture for educational

planning because large towns distort the averages. Often, too, there may be several very small villages clustered within, say, a mile of each other, each too small to support a school, but well grouped for a centrally located "consolidated" school. Nevertheless, the average size of the villages for the eastern area are given, to show the variations : East No. 1, 246; East No. 2, 283; East No. 3, 202; East No. 4, 221, Dhankuta, 278; Ilam, 487; Sindhuli, 164; Udayapur, 164; Parsa, 473; Bara, 495; Rauthat, 747; Sirha and Hanuman-Nagar, 497; Jhapa and Biratnagar, 365; average 303. The foregoing data are summarized in Table IV.

TABLE IV. SUMMARY POPULATION DATA, EASTERN NEPAL

District	1952 Population	% of Pop. Increase 1941-1952	% of Increase in No. Houses 1941-1952	Density: No. Persons Per Square Mile	Av. Size of Village
East No.1	370,248	50.5%	45.2%	259.7	246
East No.2	250,447	54.8%	45.8%	190.8	283
East No.3	275,503	32.2%	27.9%	135.2	202
East No.4	138,533			257.6	221
Dhankuta	513,398	34.4%	32.6%	134.5	278
Ilam	115,075	25.9%	80.8%	217.1	487
Sindhuli	102,101	129.3%	144.5%	113.1	164
Udayapur	90,539			97.7	164
Parsa	114,168	13.9%	114.3%	249.8	473
Bara	210,878			409.5	495
Rauthat	189,500			455.5	747
Sirha, Sarlahi and Hanumannagar	565,999	18.6%	125.7%	473.2	497
Jhapa and Biratnagar	308,428	27.7%	101.1%	200.7	365
Average		35.6%	111.3%	206.4	303
Total	3,244,825				

Sample Details

In 1950, the Census Department made a trial run with eleven questions, recommended by the United Nations for census taking, at the village of Bonepa in East No. 1. In the 1952 census, similar data were obtained for Simrongadh, a district sub-division of Bara. These samplings are too limited to use as accurate projections for other areas of Nepal but throw interesting light on certain characteristics of the population.

Simrongadh consists of 21 government rent-paying units, with 2178 houses occupied by 1251 families of 3058 males and 3134 females. The largest unit, the village of Inchabal, has a population of 674, while the smallest unit, a guild, has only 7 men. Bonepa has a population of 3299 males and 3324 females. Of these, 4832 are caste Hindus, 353 are of schedule castes, and 134 are untouchables.

The age distribution of these two groups combined is shown in Table V, and it has been projected for the population as a whole.

Table V. Projected Age-Distribution of the Population

Age Group	Simrongadh and Bonepa				Total Population (projected 1955)
	M	F	Total	%	
0	132	141	273	2.12	186,210

1	162	160	322	2.50	219,597
2	178	164	342	2.65	232,762
3	172	196	368	2.85	249,332
4	190	198	388	3.01	264,353
5-9	881	830	1711	13.29	1,167,325
10-14	726	654	1380	10.72	941,589
15-19	545	556	1101	8.55	750,988
20-24	536	598	1134	8.81	773,825
25-29	575	608	1183	9.19	807,202
30-34	480	519	999	7.76	681,598
35-39	456	434	890	6.91	606,939
40-44	334	370	704	5.39	473,430
45-49	324	291	615	4.82	423,364
50-54	294	237	531	4.12	360,880
55-59	134	151	285	2.21	194,115
60-64	118	147	265	2.05	180,061
65-69	67	87	154	1.49	104,523
70+	100	89	189	1.49	130,874
Not given	15	24	43	.34	
Total	6419	6458	12879	99.97	

The educational status of the 12,877 people included in this sampling is summarized in Table VI

Table VI. Educational Status of Population Sample

	Simrongadh		Bonepa		Total		
	M	F	M	F	M	F	Total
Able to read	36	3	132	13	168	16	184
Able to read and write	97	11	791	41	888	52	940
Completed Primary School	6	-	50	9	56	9	65
Completed middle school	5	1	17	2	32	3	25
Completed high school	1	-	3	1	4	1	5
Now in higher education	1	-	-	-	1	-	1
Total Literate	146	15	993	66	1139	81	1220
Total Population	3120	3134	3299	3324	6419	6458	12,887
%Literate	4.7	.5	30	1.9	17.8	1.3	9.5
Total No of school age ⁴	720	723	761	766	1481	1489	2970
Number in school	7	1	50	9	57	10	67
% in school	1	.14	7	1.2	4	.7	2.3

As might be expected, Bonepa, the town, has a much more favourable educational status than Simrongadh, the rural area, both in terms of literacy and percentage of children in school. However, these samplings are too limited and the accuracy of the data too questionable to attach much significance to them. Certainly they cannot be considered representative of all Nepal. For example, the literacy rate for Nepal as a whole has been estimated to be no more than 2%, although these areas show 9.5%.

Of extreme significance to educational planning is the *language spoken* by these people. In Simrongadh, 99% of the people speak Bhojpuri, the local tongue. In Bonepa, 22.5% speak Nepali, 76.8% speak Newari, .5% speak Tamang, and .1% speak Urdu. Inasmuch as Nepali has been declared the national language, Simrongadh,

⁴ Estimated from % derived from Table V

with its homogeneous population, presents as much of a problem as Bonepa, with respect to teaching language in the curriculum.

Another factor affecting education, brought out in these limited samplings, was the incidence of childhood marriage, which was found to be much higher in the rural (presumably more backward) area (see Table VII).

Table VII. Sampling Incidence of Child Marriage

	Simrongadh		Bonepa		Total	
Number & Percent Married in age-group	M	F	M	F	M	F
5-9	9 (2.1%)	18 (4.3%)	2 (.6%)	3 (1%)	11 (1.4%)	21 (2.9%)
10-14	38 (14%)	80 (35%)	15 (3.4%)	47 (11%)	57 (7.3%)	127 (19.4%)

Still another factor of importance to educational planning is the religion of the people: 77.6% of the people of Bonepa and 85% in Simrongadh are Hindus; 21.2% in Bonepa are Buddhists; and 15% in Simrongadh are Muslims.

Table VIII. Sampling Occupational Distribution

Occupation	Simrongadh	Bonepa	Total
Agriculture	6926 (95.5%)	1240(62%)	7166(87.6%)
Trade	85(1.4%)	253(12.6%)	338(4.2%)
Cottage industries	28(.5%)	246(12.3%)	274(3.4%)
Construction	4	32(1%)	36(.4%)
Services	111(1.8%)	89(4.5)	200(2.5%)
Professions	-	29(1%)	29(.4%)

Although these data cannot be accurately projected to the larger population, they give some insight into population trends and point up some of the factors affecting educational planning.

The Extent of Education in Nepal

Accurate data on the number of schools in Nepal today and their enrollment are not available because of the fluidity of data during the past few years and the lack of systematic collection of information. Even today communication between Kathmandu and the remote areas may require a month or more of time, and some areas are not completely under political or civil control of the central government. Although an inspectorate system was set up in 1953, the inspectors and their assistants have not been able to complete a survey of schools in their zones.

Another difficulty lies in attempting to define a school and the number of pupils attending. Frequently, an individual brings some children together to teach them to read; does this constitute a school? Often there may be twice as many pupils "on the roll book" as actually attend; what figure can be used to define the number of pupils in attendance?

One thing is certain: there has been a tremendous increase in the number of schools and the number of pupils during the last few years. It is reported that in 1948 there were only six high schools in Nepal; today there are 77 to 84, depending on definition.

Two sources provide the most reliable data available on school statistics: a special edition of *Education News* dated May 1, 1954, and published by the Ministry of Education, summarizing data for the preceding year; and a note from the office of the Chief Inspector of Schools dated September 25, 1954, bringing the data up to date and furnishing information on enrollments. Data from these sources and from the 1952 projected census have been combined in Tables IX and X.

Table IX. Number of Schools, Teachers, and Students in nepal

Types of School	No. of Schools	Number of Teacher			Number of students			Avg. No of Pupil per teacher
		M	F	T	B	G	T	
English (Total)	1028	2899	55	2954	56408	1954	58362	20
Primary Nepali	667	1000	7	1007	19446	564	20010	20
Middle	296	1184	17	1201	29617	713	30330	25
High	65	715	31	746	7345	677	8022	11
Sanskrit Total	243	318	2	320	6326	540	6866	21
Primary	233	233	-	233	4660	466	5126	22
Middle	5	20	2	22	493	35	528	24
High	5	65	-	65	1173	39	1212	19
Basic	49	244	6	250	6315	748	7063	28
Primary	21	38	-	38	975	75	1050	28
Middle	15	102	-	102	2040	510	2550	25
High	13	104	6	110	3300	163	3463	31
Total	1320	3461	63	3524	65049	3242	72291	21
Primary	921	1271	7	1278	21081	1105	26186	20
Middle	316	1306	19	1325	32150	1258	33408	25
High	83	884	37	921	11818	879	12697	14
Higher Institution								
Degree Colleges	7	49	2	51	703	42	745	15
Inter-mediate	7	35	-	35	170	-	170	5
Other Institution	7	56	1	57	380	21	401	8
Total	21	140	3	143	1253	63	1316	9

From these tables it may be seen that 72, 291 children are enrolled in 1320 schools. This represents 3.5% of the children of school-going age; or by levels, 3.7% of the children of primary school age, 3.3% of middle school children, 3.9% of high school children, and .2% of the college age group are in school.

Table vi. Zonal Distribution of Schools and Population

Zone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total
Population 1955 (projected from 1952)	1,069,941	1,625,205	1,010,434		5,077,904			8,783,484
Number children of school age. Est. (Primary) 6-8	85,381	129691	80632		405383			701087
Middle 9-13	121,652	184,785	114,886		577,606			998,929
High 14-15	39801	60457	37588		188973			326819
Total	246834	374933	233106		1171962			2026835

Total Number of school								
Primary	72	146	273	171	77	93	89	921
Middle	58	86	100	26	21	16	9	316
High	11	13	48	3	3	2	4	83*
Total	141	245	421	200	101	111	102	1320*
English								
Primary	58	101	188	113	59	83	65	296
Middle	57	80	94	21	19	16	9	296
High	9	11	37	1	3	2	2	65
Total	124	192	319	135	81	101	76	1028
Sanskrit								
Primary	13	38	74	58	17	10	23	233
Middle	-	-	3	1	1	-	-	5
High	1	2	2	-	-	-	-	5
Total	14	40	79	59	18	10	23	243
Basic								
Primary	1	7	11	-	1	-	1	21
Middle	1	6	3	4	1	-	-	15
High	1	-	9	2	-	-	2	13*
Total	3	13	23	6	2	-	3	49*

(*One has closed recently.)

Although school enrollment figures are not available by zones, it may be noted that the number of schools is not proportionate to the population. Zone No. 1 has a ratio of one school for each 7588 persons; Zone No. 2, one for each 6633; Zone No. 3, one for each 2400; and the remainder of Nepal, one for each 9993.

Some idea of the size of these schools may be gained from Table IX. The English schools average about 2.9 teachers per school; the Sanskrit, 1.3 teachers per school; and the Basic, 5.1 teachers per school. The primary schools average 1.4 teachers per school; the middle, 6.2; and the high schools, 11.1.

Most schools provide co-educational facilities up to high school and there are five high schools for girls (two at Biratnagar and three in Kathmandu).

However, the enrollment of girls is only 3242, or 4.4% of the total. Although girls are admitted to Tri-Chandra College, there is also a women's college; the combined female college enrollment is 63.

According to information supplied by the Education Department there were 54 libraries in May, 1954 in all Nepal, all of which are located in the larger towns and centres.

Summary

From the population and educational data presented in this chapter, it may be seen that the population of Nepal is increasing at a tremendous pace and that present educational facilities are extremely limited. These two facts set the challenge for the Commission. The increasing population reveals the magnitude of the task; the inadequacy of educational facilities presents the problem. The next chapter reveals the quality of present education in terms of the actual needs of Nepal and her youth.

CHAPTER IV

NATURE OF EDUCATION IN NEPAL

Introduction

The preceding chapter has revealed the limited extent of education in Nepal today. Not only are there very few schools, but these schools are concentrated into the larger towns and population centers, leaving the vast majority of the country untouched by education in the modern sense of the term.

This absence of education creates a vacuum that is difficult to penetrate — there are only a few schooled persons from whom to select teachers, and teachers are essential for developing schools; there is no wide-spread tradition of education to bolster the efforts to develop new schools; there are no patterns to light the way. On the other hand, this vacuum, once penetrated, provides a relatively clear atmosphere in which to develop a programme—we can shed ourselves of obsolete methods of training teachers, and can develop patterns of education according to scientific principles and procedures rather than being guided by out-moded traditions.

Although we are relatively free to develop a national programme of education, unfettered by the usual prejudices, pressures, and traditions, we must not overlook the established values in the presently existing schools. To ignore these values would be wasteful and foolish. Furthermore, it may be assumed that many of these existing schools will gradually change to the new patterns to be established; thus we should know something of the present patterns to ease the probable transition.

General Description

Life in Nepal centers around the village. Even in larger towns, "sections" of the town — former villages that grew so large they touched and joined their neighbouring villages — are still recognized. Thus, first of all, most primary schools are "*village*" schools. High schools, which generally have the upper-primary (grades 3-5) and middle school grades (grades 6-8) attached to them, are usually found only in the larger towns, and serve a large area or region. Basically, however, the village primary school is localized.

Secondly, tradition and the lack of centralized and systematized facilities for collecting common funds for supporting education have decreed a tuition or fees system for supporting schools. Fees ranging from Rs. 2 per month per child in the primary grades to Rs. 6 per month per pupil in the high schools grades are quite common in most of the schools (except those entirely supported by the central government). This income is sometimes augmented by grants from the central government, and some schools reserve "free" seats for poor children with educational aptitude. Nevertheless, most of the schools of Nepal must be characterized as *private schools*, charging tuition and admitting pupils selectively; they are not generally free and open to the public. This means, in effect, that they are for the economically favoured classes.

Third, because there are so few schools, and because their curriculums are mostly *academic in character*, the schools serve only the academic elite. Many academically qualified children are not served, but the child without a photographic mind and unusual memorizing ability is soon dropped by the wayside. The present schools are not designed for the masses, or even for the average child. They are highly selective, academically speaking, and quite removed from the normal life of Nepal communities.

Fourth, the present schools are *wasteful of human energy* and values. There is a high mortality in most schools. Although figures are not available to show the loss of pupils in the primary and middle schools, it is well known that of those who take the final examination in high school, only 30% to 40% are successful. It is not to be expected, or desired at the present time, that every child who starts in the primary school should successfully complete high school, but there should be logical terminal points so that each phase of education is somewhat complete within itself for certain needs. The continuous and haphazard daily loss and the high percentage of failure in the high school and college final examinations are uneconomical and demoralizing to the individual.

Fifth, most schools devote an *unwarranted amount of time to the teaching of languages* (foreign, as well as national and mother tongue) *and to preparing for final examinations*. Language teaching often occupies 40% to 80% of the curriculum time. Most schools use the last two or three months of each year to prepare for final examinations even in the primary and middle schools. As a result of these factors, there is a noticeable lack of time for social studies, science and health, fine arts and music and similar experiences in most schools.

Sixth, the schools are populated mostly by boys. Although a few girls attend they are a 5% minority. They attend freely on a co-education basis in the primary and middle schools, and in a few high schools and most colleges, but *usually* are segregated at the high school level.

Seventh, most schools operate about *ten months of the year, five and a half days a week, for three to five hours a day*, usually from 11:00 A.M. to 3:00 or 4:00 P.M. However, frequent holidays and festivals cut down the actual number of days that school is held. In the hot regions the long vacation usually comes in the heat of the summer; in the cooler regions, the vacation comes in the coldest part of the winter.

These characteristics, together with *limited buildings and equipment*, and *inadequately trained teachers*, describe the common elements of much of the education in Nepal today.

Buildings and Equipment

Most schools are quite limited in their facilities for offering good education. The climate of much of Nepal does not require warm buildings. The *buildings* in the Southern Terai plains are usually thatched roofs on bamboo poles, open on all four sides, or shielded by leaf and fibre matting for shade and wind break. A bamboo fence may be used to keep out livestock. In the northern hills, the buildings are made of brick or stone masonry, but often have dirt floors and very limited window area. In the valleys, both of these styles are found.

Many schools have beautiful pastoral settings with large *play areas* (usually not too effectively used); others are found crowded into the heart of the village or town with only the streets for the children to play in. Some buildings are well-shaded against the heat of the summer; others are in the open sunshine to take advantage of the winter sun. Some play areas are well drained; others are low and swampy, or dirty from the refuse of the streets.

Many buildings are of the one-room type with one, or perhaps two teachers. In the bamboo thatch building, thin matting separates the rooms. A few schools, high schools particularly, may contain many rooms, 30 in the case of Durbar High School. These classrooms may be as small as 8 x 10 feet or as large as, as 16 x 25 feet. Natural lighting may be furnished by open walls or by windows of varying degrees of adequacy. Many of the buildings are quite clean and well-kept; a few provide for the pupils a deplorable example of filth and unsanitary conditions. Most buildings suffer from inadequate custodial service and lack of finances to keep the building in repair, but offer a reasonably satisfactory environment for education.

The *equipment* of most schools is quite meager. Swings may be found on some play grounds, and equipment for football, basketball, volley ball, hockey, cricket, and similar sports will be found in many schools, especially high schools.

Equipment for teaching nature study and science, fine arts and music, geography and history, etc., and for carrying on cooperative learning projects, is almost non-existent. Only basic education schools have any equipment for teaching crafts or vocational education.

Perhaps the most serious shortage of *instructional materials* is the lack of books, especially those written in Nepali. Only a limited number of Nepali titles have been printed, and many schools do not possess even these. Some schools use Hindi, English, or Sanskrit materials, but even these are quite limited in quantity and quality, in the schools using them. Textbooks, when available, are usually thin, paper bound, poorly printed pamphlets. Reference books and encyclopedias in Nepali are non-existent.

Even the simplest *audio-visual aids* are missing. Frequently there is no chalk-board; the teacher and children write in the dust of the floor. Bulletin boards are rarely seen. Maps, charts, globes, sand-tables, and similar pictorial materials are seldom found. Mathematical and other models are rarely available for use. No equipment requiring electrical power can be used except in the three communities that have electricity, but schools in these communities do not have the financial

resources to purchase such equipment.

Generally speaking, educational experiences in Nepal take place in a very limited educational environment. The teacher is truly challenged to improvise and to direct learning without the instructional aids usually available in modern schools. This could develop initiative and inventiveness in children and "naturalize" education—partly at the expense, to be sure, of the kind of education needed for today's civilization—but actually this has not happened, except in rare cases, because of the inadequate training of teachers to meet this challenge.

Teachers and Their Training

No data are available on the extent of training of the 3500 teachers of the present schools. However, education officials, who have inspected some of the schools and are familiar with the teachers, cite general conditions. At the top level, it is known that the colleges are staffed by persons with bachelors and master's degrees. A few have professional training in addition; most do not.

In the field of professional education, there is in all Nepal only one person with the Master of Education degree, and perhaps a dozen hold the Bachelor of Education or equivalent degree. In addition, there are about a dozen persons who have had graduate training in Basic Education. All of these persons are employed either in the Ministry of Education or at the Teacher Training Centre.

All of this professional training was secured at professional institutions in India. It consisted of the usual pedagogy courses in methods of teaching, educational psychology, administration and organization, supervision, tests and measurements, curriculum, etc. (and craft work for those trained in Basic Education), and should be considered quite satisfactory for the persons so trained.

At the high school level, teachers with bachelor's degrees are desired, but only in the larger centers will a majority be found with bachelor's degrees. Of 920 high school teachers it is believed that not more than 100 have the bachelor's (of arts) degree. Of these, few if any, have had professional training. Most of those holding the degree took their work at Indian institutions; some have secured their degrees from Tri-Chandra College, the local liberal arts college.

The middle and primary schools are staffed by teachers whose training ranges from mere literacy to high school matriculation. Very few are believed to be matriculates. Most of the teachers probably have completed the equivalent of five to eight grades, but some, especially in the primary schools, have had no formal schooling but teach by virtue of being able to read and write.

The basic schools are staffed largely by matriculates or near matriculates who received one or two years of professional training at the Basic Education Training Center which was operated for about three years in Kathmandu.

Some of these teachers are retired army men who can bring to the children some first-hand knowledge of the world outside their region. But many teachers have never been out of their own district. Many of these teachers were tutored by private teachers without the benefit of an organized school group, for there were very few schools a decade ago.

The *amenities of teachers* are "unsatisfactory, to say the least. Primary teachers in the villages may earn Rs. 25 (Dollars 3.00) per month, and this is often uncertain, depending on the payment of fees by the pupils or an occasional donation. Often the pay is "in kind" (rice, cloth, etc.) rather than cash. The government pay scale for high school matriculates is Rs. 60 for primary schools, Rs. 80 for middle school teachers, and Rs. 120 for high school teachers, but not more than one fourth of the teachers are government employed.

The *position of the teacher* is not a particularly favoured one. He puts in a long day, because to supplement his meager income he must engage in other work—usually farming if a village teacher, or "tuitioning" (tutoring) if in a larger centre. Often his "other" income is more than that received for teaching. His standard of living is usually not high in comparison with his friends, and rarely does he hold a position of unusual prestige in his community. These circumstances make recruiting difficult, reflect in the quality of candidates for teaching, and discourage the elevation of teaching to a professional level. Often the teacher's work is not appreciated by the public; frequently he has taken up teaching because he can find no other employment. All in all, the teachers' position is not an enviable one.

Curriculums of the Schools

The curriculums of these schools vary considerably according to type. The major types discussed in the preceding chapter all offer nominal training from the primary school through the high school level or the equivalent, and in general ten years can be said to be the length of this period. Both English and Sanskrit colleges are available, but only the English programme leads to a bachelor's degree.

The curriculum of the English schools, the dominant pattern at present, is patterned after that of the English schools in India, which in turn is patterned after the schools of England. The school is graded into: lower primary, first two grades; upper primary 3rd to 5th grades; middle school, grades 6 through 8; and high school, grades 9 and 10. The curriculum includes languages. English is taught from grade 3, and the medium of instruction in the high school is usually English; Sanskrit and Nepali are required for the final school leaving examination; and the mother tongue is taught. Hindi and Maithili may be taught as optional subjects. Much emphasis is placed on these languages, although the level of attainment frequently is not high, even upon completion of high school. English especially is poorly taught, largely because the teachers themselves have not attained a high degree of competency.

Arithmetic is taught in the lower grades, followed by algebra and geometry in the middle and upper grades. Science is taught in the upper grades, generally without the benefit of a laboratory or scientific equipment and apparatus. Some geography, civics and a bit of history (usually Indian, Nepali and English), agriculture, accountancy, weaving, drawing, and painting, may be taught as optional subjects. Physiology and sports round out the programme. In some schools a daily period is set aside for prayer; an annual school magazine may be published. Forensics and cultural programmes may find a place. Methods place heavy emphasis on drill, memorizing, and lecturing.

The progress of the pupils is determined by an annual examination held at

the end of each year. The last two years are devoted to a study of the examination questions of the previous final school leaving examinations, and often there are "practice" runs on the examination some months before the final ordeal.

The English schools have been described as a third-hand version of a system never designed for Nepal. The successful graduates are likely to find clerical employment with the government by virtue of their ability to read and write Nepali and English, but much of the curriculum has no vocational value. For those who drop out before completing high school, little of practical value has been gained except the ability to read and write.

Tri-Chandra College tops the English school education. It has both liberal arts and science divisions and is patterned after the Indian colleges, being at present affiliated with Patna University (India). It is divided into the intermediate stage (first two years) and final stage (upper two years). The curriculum includes the usual liberal arts and science courses, is taught predominately by the lecture system, and progress is measured by the usual final examinations at the end of the intermediate and final stages.

The curriculum of the Sanskrit Schools, Pathshalas and the Gompas, emphasizes languages even more than the English schools. Although instructions are given in the mother tongue, many hours are devoted to memorizing pages of Sanskrit usually from early religious writings, or texts from the Kanjyur and Tanjyur for hours, children recite these pages in unison sitting on the ground cross-legged, and weaving back and forth to maintain rhythm.

These schools are not rigidly graded, class divisions being made in terms of the pupil's ability to read rather than his age or how long he has been in school. Often, all children are taught together in one class. Subjects such as arithmetic, science, and social studies were only rarely found in these schools until 1951 when they were made compulsory after the recommendation of Banaras and the Nepal Sanskrit College. Methods consist mostly of drill and memorization.

Pupils may continue this work through what are the usual high school years and then proceed to the Sanskrit College in Kathmandu. Many of the graduates of the college enter religious work, reading the scriptures to family and other small groups.

The curriculum of the Basic Education schools is markedly different from that of the other schools. It follows the Gandhian pattern established in India and is designed to make the individual self-sufficient in every way. In this respect it becomes vocational training as well as meeting the "basic" needs of life. It is designed specifically for rural village life in a country such as India.

The core of the curriculum is the craft work. Each child spends many hours a day throughout his entire school career learning spinning, weaving, woodworking, and agriculture as his basic skills. Arithmetic is learned from problems developing out of his craft experiences: How much yarn he can spin a day, measuring a paddy field, etc. Language, reading, and some geography are learnt the same way. History, civics and health form an integral part of the curriculum and prayer, physical training, cultural and recreational programmes, and village improvement projects are

commonly found.

Perhaps the major criticism of Basic Education is its inflexibility, or the failure to adapt it to actual conditions. In villages where nearly all cloth is imported, spinning and weaving continue to be a part of the curriculum. In a region where dhoties have been replaced with tailored clothing, tailoring is not included. And no adaptations have been made to fit Basic Education to urban life such as obtains in Nepal today. Although this type of school may be more functional than the other types for many children, its rigidity limits its value.

The curriculum of the Gompas is designed for training religious leaders of the Buddhist faith, and to lesser extent for training in the practical needs of every day life. As pointed out in Chapter II, "These monastic institutions have directly extended to the Himalayan tribes the instinctive sentiments of the many historic Buddhas which have been gathered into the voluminous Tibetan texts of the Kanjyur and the Tanjyur. The Lamas, the learned men, the minstrels, and the artists have satisfied the powerful need of the northern races by creating colourful dual deities in all their different moods and manifestations and by painting apocryphal visions of hell and ascension after their earthly sojourn. It is not, therefore, uncommon to find the Gorkhas of various tribes repairing to the Gompas of Tibet for their spiritual nourishment and for improving their chances of an honoured seat in the Heaven of their conception after seeing war-like services in the different theatres of the world wars."

"The curriculum in these schools embraces all aspects of religious rites for catering to the daily needs of the populace; one can specialize in vocal training; candidates disposed to business can help to manage monastic properties or engage themselves in trade; painters can paint Tibetan scrolls; dreamers can see apocalyptic visions and guide their fellow students or chant prayers in ecstasy."

Other schools may be briefly mentioned. The Montessori School in Kathmandu follows the well-known European pattern which emphasizes projects and activities for children, but too often dotes on uniformity of activity and of results, thus ignoring individual differences in needs, abilities, and interests of children.

Missionary-sponsored schools in the Kathmandu Valley follow the pattern of the English schools and teach from the first grade in the medium of English.

Until recently, there was in Kathmandu a technical school of approximately high school level that offered fine arts, agriculture, engineering, and textile work. For want of financial support, some of the work has been transferred to other institutions and only a handful of fine arts students remain.

There is also in Kathmandu a Civil Service school of approximately secondary level that serves as a preparatory school for those who hope to enter government service via the Civil Service examinations. The emphasis here is on Nepali language, but literature, arithmetic, geography, history, book-keeping and accountancy, government procedures, Nepali law, and nature study are also taught.

Summary

This brief description of education in Nepal today emphasizes two facts: first, because of their scarcity, schools have had a very limited impact on the traditions and culture of the people, and need not influence adversely the development of a new national school system. Second, each type of school has something to offer to the new programme: the systematic organization of the English schools, the religious emphasis of the Sanskrit schools and the Gompas, the vocational and practical emphasis of the Basic schools, and the activity-project approach of the Montessori school.

With freedom to plan, and the experience of existing schools to appraise, we can move forward in the development of the national plan of education that will incorporate the good and useful characteristics of these schools and discard the obsolete, impractical and limited values.

CHAPTER V

THE PEOPLE SPEAK

Introduction

The previous chapters have described the setting for education in Nepal and the existing educational systems, institutions, and conditions. When the Commission first met in March, 1954, it was quickly noted that no survey of education would be complete without some contact with representative people throughout the nation to learn of their attitudes and beliefs, to gain their ideas, and to become aware of their educational problems as they envisioned them. The Commission considered that in a democratic age no scheme could be worked out unless it had the support of people, and as education is a matter of very great public concern an approach had to be made to the people in order to find out what they think about education and what are their needs and aspirations.

Discussion led to two suggestions: the preparation of a questionnaire to be widely distributed by mail, courier, newspaper, and radio; and the deputing of Commission members into the hinterlands to observe conditions, talk with the people, and get their responses to the questionnaire. Conferences for those who were interested in education would be convened at different centres to discover the pulse of the people. Accordingly, a questionnaire was prepared and tours were arranged.

The members of the Commission who undertook these tours made reports on their finding and brought back completed questionnaires. These materials have been incorporated in the tabulations of the questionnaire which are discussed at length in this chapter. The following areas were visited:

1. Nepalganj and Koilabas in the extremes of the Western Tarai
2. Gaur and Kalaiya in the Central Tarai near Birgunj
3. The Valley of Pokhara in the Western hills of No. 4
4. The hill-fortress of Dhankusa in East No. 6
5. The city of Janakpur in the Mahaottary district of the Eastern Tarai
6. The central valley of Nepal with Kathmandu, and suburbs, Patan and Bhadgon
7. Doty Siligury, West No. 5, central belt
8. Tauli-hava in the Western Tarai

In addition, the seven zonal school inspectors and their sub-inspectors made personal contact with the people of their areas and sent in extensive reports which have been included in this study.

The chief purpose of this chapter is to present in systematic form the educational beliefs and opinions of the thousands of people, representing all parts of the country, literate and illiterate, who were contacted through these methods.

The Questionnaire — Procedures

The questionnaire was *framed* by members of the Commission through the three committees that had been set up at the beginning (curriculum, administration,

and teacher training). The questions were submitted by the committees, discussed by the Commission as a whole, and refined for publication. Because replies were desired from all levels of the population, three different questionnaires were arranged, according to the extent of education of the potential respondents. Four basic questions were asked on the simplest form; seventeen questions were asked on the form for educated laymen; and twenty-eight supplementary questions were included in the form for professional educationists.

No effort was made to *distribute* the questionnaire on a systematic basis because of the high degree of illiteracy and problems of communication and transportation. Everyone who could conveniently be reached was invited to respond.

Arrangements were made to send the questionnaire to all of the colleges, schools, pathasalas and other educational and cultural institutions of Nepal direct or through the Chief Inspector of Schools. A conference of the headmasters of the schools in the Kathmandu Valley was organized and the questionnaire distributed to them. Prominent people having an interest in education were individually requested to send their suggestions on national education by not only replying to the questionnaire but also separately if possible. The Governors who were visiting in Kathmandu were also summoned and circulars were sent, along with the copies of the questionnaire, to the members of the following groups:

1. The Governors of the 32 districts
2. All of the Panchayats, including the Municipalities
3. All the police chawkis and offices, through the Inspector General of Police
4. All the Inspectors of Schools, who were also deputed to tour their zones and collect additional replies to the questionnaire from the people
5. All the forest officers, through the Forest Department
6. The Zamindars, Patwaris, and tenants through Mal Adda (Treasury Office)
7. The merchants through the Bazar Adda (Customs Office)
8. The villagers through the Gram Vikas Institute (Village Development Bodies) and through the Agriculture Department
9. All the dispensaries and hospitals, through the Medical Department
10. All the engineers and overseers through the Public Work Ministry
11. All the post offices through the Transport and Communication Ministry
12. All the Ministries direct
13. The Student Unions and Associations of the Kathmandu Valley
14. The Judicial Courts through Pradhan Nyayalaya (High Court) and Amini Goswara a (Magistrates' Courts in the Districts)

The people of the districts who were here in the Valley on business of their own were also tapped and questionnaires given to them. The questionnaire was also printed in the newspaper of widest circulation. In addition, as pointed out above, it was carried to outlying areas by members of the Commission who went out on tours. Thus, every possible avenue for reaching the people was used.

The Government was asked to exempt the questionnaires from postal duty, and postal runners carried the blank forms out and brought completed forms back from the remotest corners of the country, some a month's journey from the capital. Repeated appeals were made to people to respond to the questionnaire. Weekly broadcasts from Nepal Radio were arranged and the people were told why the questionnaire was issued, and given instructions on how to fill out the questionnaire and send it to the Commission. The importance of education was explained and valuable suggestions coming from different quarters were read on the broadcasts. Instructions for filling in the forms were printed and circulated among the people. Articles were contributed to the newspapers to popularize the questions, and direct contact with prominent educationists and others was kept through emissaries, with the request that they give the Commission their opinions.

In all, about 12,000 questionnaires were distributed. On many of those that were returned, only brief answers were given. Some 300 to 400 gave detailed answers, and a few included lengthy statements and suggestions, from 1000 to 7500 words. Quite a few were returned from village headmen who had called their respective villagers together, read the questionnaire to them, gathered their reactions, written down their answers, and had the replies thumb-printed by all those present. In all 1647 questionnaires were *returned*, representing 1957 people. (See table XI.)

Table XI. Questionnaires Distributed and Returned

type	No distributed	no. returned	no. people represented
Simple form for illiterates	5000	551	551
Forms for educated layman	4000	960	1270
Forms for educationists	3000	136	136
Total	12,000	1647	1957

Unfortunately, however, unusual rainfall this year caused unprecedented floods and landslides and interrupted communications for a long time, thus creating incalculable delay in the execution of the work, undoubtedly reducing the response from the affected areas. Though representation of every nook and corner of the country cannot be claimed, it can be said that almost every part has been reached and a new educational consciousness has been created.

Taking the figures of advanced countries into consideration, the result has been quite encouraging, and it has proved beyond doubt that the nation is literally hungry for education, for which there is a very great demand from all quarters. The people seem to be impatient for education which must make them economically self-sufficient and their country culturally and industrially advanced without losing the national identity of their great cultural heritage.

General Opinions

An examination of the questions submitted to the people reveals that the Commission sought opinions more than factual data, because the latter would be too scattered to tabulate accurately and too unrepresentative to use as a basis for planning. Accordingly, the replies have been studied with the end of gaining broad ideas rather than statistical facts. Some of the general ideas are summarized here, together with tables when the replies lend themselves to tabulation.

Some of the respondents have sent novel suggestions. In some areas, especially in the interior of the hills, both East and West, some of the villagers complain that in their struggle with Nature to eke out the very subsistence of life, they need their children in their daily round of work, especially in tending the cattle and the sheep and goats, and therefore they do not like to concern themselves with education. One or two suggest that there should be morning schools. Others suggest that in the first year a school is set up it should be held only in the winter; in the second year, for six months and after that a full-term school may be set up. When people understand the change in the lives of their children by short-course education, they will automatically adopt the longer system.

It has been found from experience that during sowing or harvesting season the attendance in the school is very poor. In most of the villages where there is poverty and want there is practically no demand for education. This is reflected in Table XII by the reasons given for not establishing schools where none exist.

Table XII. Reasons Given for not Establishing Schools

Reason Given	Kathmandu Valley	West Nepal	East Nepal	Terai	Average
Lack of government aid	69%	67%	65%	61%	66%
Lack of local support	59%	51%	55%	48%	53%

It is therefore absolutely necessary that we not only plan a curriculum and devise the machinery for administration, but also in the most backward areas arouse interest in educational matters by convincing the people of its necessity and importance.

On almost all sides the people have expressed their *willingness to contribute* something to the establishment of a school—either in the form of cash, or "kind," or labour, or grant of land—provided the Government plays its own part and supplies the teachers, of which there is a very great dearth all around. Some propose an educational levy on land. Some suggest the collection of "kind" at harvest time, and others recommend the levying of duties on luxuries. The extent to which local help is available and to which it is needed is summarized in Table XIII.

Table XIII. Amount of Local Help Available and Needed

Type of help that can be supplied by the village	Kathmandu Valley	West Nepal	East Nepal	Terai	Average
Teacher	43%	12%	25%	38%	30%
Building	50%	62%	75%	64%	63%
Books	18%	10%	12%	23%	16%
Finance	18%	28%	55%	9%	27%

From almost all parts of the country the *demand for teachers* is expressed; in some areas the people are even prepared to meet the cost of their living. It has been noted that the districts near the Indian border are more alert and have a supply of teachers from India. Naturally people from other countries have to be employed at a higher salary, which makes the maintenance of the institution expensive. As has been pointed out elsewhere, the Commission recommends top priority to the training of teachers, which will be necessary to solve this problem.

As winter is not very severe in most parts in Nepal open air schools have been

recommended by some educationists. The building materials for thatched schools are not unavailable in a country which is so very rich in forests, grasses, and bamboo. If we can harness the energy and direct the enthusiasm indicated by the tone of the replies, it seems that there will be no difficulty in raising structures suitable for education.

There is a *mania for English education* in some parts of the country and the reason given in upholding this system is the preference shown to English educated people in government service. There are others who want the *extension of Basic Education* and insist that it must be made useful and really conducive to self-sufficiency in economic life. Most of those who have submitted detailed schemes compare our country with the advanced parts of the world and show impatience to raise it to the same level.

Border lands on the North and the East are linguistically and culturally akin to Tibet. Hence our representative who was sent to Menang reports that one member in each family has received training in Lamaism at some monastery and the rest do not want education of any type. Similar is the condition on the border lands in Eastern Nepal.

It should be remembered that people who expressed preferences for certain types of schools could choose only from those with which they are familiar. The high percentages in some instances, and lack of preference for any but those types that are listed, do not reflect adversely against the *national school* to be proposed by the Commission in Part II of this Report. This scheme, unknown by the people when they filled out the questionnaire, combines features of all of those schools. The preferences expressed are summarized in Table XIV.

Table XIV Types of School Desired

Type	Kathmandu Valley	West Nepal	East Nepal	Terai	Average
English School	48%	48%	65%	59%	55%
Sanskrit School	47%	52%	55%	48%	50%
Vernacular School	49%	43%	45%	50%	47%
Basic School	46%	30%	50%	49%	44%
Industrial School	58%	41%	48%	69%	54%

Another great sign of new awakening in this country is the *coming forward of* women in the field of education. Hundreds of girls have now begun to read and write and even elderly women show repentance for neglecting education in their early age. Girls vie with boys in receiving education, and the cry of the hour is education for all. Few people will have any objection to *co-education* at an early age as the state cannot afford to provide separate institutions at the primary stage. Even to some extent at the secondary level co-education has been approved, but at a certain stage, especially in the full bloom of their youth, prudence may dictate children being trained at separate institutions.

The attitudes towards co-education are shown in Table XV.

Table XV. Attitude Towards Co-education

Attitude	Kathmandu Valley	West Nepal	East Nepal	Terai	Average
Opposed	13%	7%	25%	8%	13%
Favour in genral	74%	67%	55%	84%	70%
Favour only in Primary school	61%	51%	51%	59%	56%
Also favour in Middle school	29%	36%	12%	19%	24%
Also Favour in High school	12%	11%	20%	6%	12%

The questionnaire also shows that there is a demand for *adult education*, except in the Terai where the people have to struggle very hard for their livelihood and it is very difficult for them to spare even a few hours to devote to learning. But in spite of this, interest is found, and, under able management and leadership, *literacy* can spread without great difficulty. It is true that there are areas, especially those inhabited by the Bhotias, Banawars, Magis, and Tharus, in which it is difficult to find one in a thousand who can sign his name. A literacy programme must be planned for these people, too.

Some of the questionnaires complain that there has been no provision for *physical education* anywhere in the country. Drill, physical exercise, swimming, etc. have been suggested as a part of education. A few go to the extent of recommending *compulsory military training* for all boys in order to keep the fighting spirit of the Gorkhas alive. Games and sports should be the regular feature of academic life, and all over the country educational institutions must popularise these for the development of our youth.

Except, from some parts of Terai, many desires that, early Primary education be given in the regional *language*, middle and secondary education in the national language, and higher education either in English or in the national language. In some quarters, exclusive preference is given to Hindi in all stages, but the major areas all over the country insist that Nepali, the national language, be made the medium of instruction of the upper primary and secondary stages. These opinions are shown in Table XVI.

Table XVI. Medium of Instruction Desired

	Kathmandu Valley	West Nepal	East Nepal	Terai	Average
Primary School					
Local	71%	48%	75%	79% ⁵	68%
National	38%	44%	13%	16%	28%
English	12%	17%	75% ⁶	4%	27%
Middle School					
Local	18%	22%	25%	51% ¹	29%
National	81%	69%	50%	50%	63%
English	26%	25%	12%	16%	20%
High School					
Local	20%	22%	5%	54% ¹	25%
National	68%	67%	75%	45%	64%
English	52%	35%	73% ²	26%	46%

From almost all parts of the country there have been serious complaints against the *dearth* and non-availability of *proper text books*. Books are prescribed

⁵ Local language for the Terai area means Hindi in most Section.

⁶ This reflects the influence of the missionary English schools in the Darjeeling area.

but no arrangement is made for proper distribution and timely supply to the institutions in the interior. In some subjects, it is pointed out that suitable textbooks are not available. In the opinion of some, provision should be made in the backward and poverty stricken areas to supply books to students through a circulating library.

The Nepali Bhasa Bikasini Samitee and the Nepali Bhasanubad (literary societies or agencies) might be made more dynamic, and by arrangement of a suitable staff, be able to undertake the work of translating the best books from all languages into Nepali. Efforts should be directed towards the production of a graded series of readers and textbooks suitable for all classes, and other books should be plentiful for use of the students as well as for the general public.

No strong convictions seem to be held regarding the *organization of the school system*. There is fairly even distribution of opinion regarding the length of the primary, middle, and high schools. Table XVII shows a slight preference of three years each for the primary and middle schools, and four for the high school, making a total of ten years. However, a large percentage also favour shorter, and a few, longer periods.

Table. XVII. Organization of School System

School	No. of year	Kathmandu Valley	West Nepal	East Nepal	Terai	Average
Primary School						
	2	46%	26%	25%	30%	32%
	3	39%	30%	38%	31%	35%
	4	14%	19%	9%	34%	18%
Middle School						
	2	44%	28%	25%	29%	32%
	3	43%	33%	65%	12%	38%
	4	15%	12%	25%	29%	20%
High School						
	2	35%	33%	13%	39%	30%
	3	38%	22%	38%	40%	35%
	4	34%	24%	65%	86%	52%

Decentralization in educational administration has been considered necessary by some respondents. District education councils may look after education in the district, and the local boards may be entrusted with supervision in Panchayat areas. Others, however, stress the need of proper *inspection* by the divisional inspectors at least twice a year if possible. Nearly everybody among the intelligentsia complains that there has been deterioration in discipline and general standards, which must be corrected.

From the general survey of the questionnaire it has been found that scholars of oriental learning have taken the greatest interest in the study, and response from the western areas has been the least encouraging. The cultured respondents are almost unanimous in suggesting that national education must retain characteristics of Nepali culture, and that it should be such as to develop both the body and the soul of the country.

Individual Suggestions

In addition to answering specific questions, the respondents to the questionnaire were asked to give their general suggestions and comments. Some wrote at length and covered many problems. Many gave very practical suggestions that have been used by the Commission in making its recommendations. Four of these statements are quoted at length as illustrative of the many interesting and helpful responses.⁷ The first comes from the headman of a village who discussed the ideas with his people and then wrote a single reply to which each affixed his thumb print:

If the replies to the questionnaire are properly implemented, education befitting time and democracy will make a rapid advance. There is a wide gulf between the planning of an autocratic Government and that which is to be put into operation in accordance with true democratic principles. Indeed the people now, after a long sleep, are beginning to see a glimmer of redness in the east. It is hoped that in the near future the rays of the sun will shine in full glory and serenity of an early morning. Let the common people not only for the present but also for all time to come, express their hearty appreciation of the first step which the Education Planning Commission has taken. If the people and the Government fully co-operate in truly implementing the scheme, the illiterate people now slowly awakening from their sleep will place their trust and respect in the new Government when they realize the character of general education.

In this area, there are no primary, middle, or high schools of Sanskrit, English, Vernacular or Basic types. For lack of cooperation, both on the part of the Government and the people, there are neither schools nor educational institutions of any kind here. As there are neither schools nor educational institutions of any kind in the area:

- a) A primary and middle school is required
- b) We can co-operate in rendering material help in kind and labour and make them available
- c) For the starting of the educational institution and its management, a teacher and financial aid are required.
- d) One type of education for both boys and girls is advocated.

There is no objection to coeducation for both boys and girls till they attain the age of twelve. Beyond this age-limit, separate institutions for education may be arranged, if moral standards are to be maintained. Hostels are required for the educational institutions. For the spread of education throughout the country, it should be:

- a) Education without fees
- b) Compulsory

We have no educational institution for higher studies in our

⁷ In translating these from the vernacular, every effort has been made to retain the style, flavor, feeling, and meaning of the writers, which has resulted in some interesting construction and word uses.

neighbourhood. Kathmandu is 68 miles from here and is not easily accessible. Therefore Gorkha, centrally situated as it is and the headquarters of the provincial Government should have an educational institution of the type which will be accessible to all the people of the district. There should be Government-owned hostels where lodging and food may be made easily available, where orphans and the poor should have some seats reserved for them and where they should be fed and lodged free of any charge ; the remaining seats should be distributed to those who should be charged for their lodging and food at Government fixed rates.

The medium of instruction should be the, national language in primary, middle, and higher educational institutions, because any language which cannot be made *lingua franca* and which does not serve legal proceedings in court should not find a place. In the same way English, which is merely taught as a foreign language cannot be considered as an important medium of instruction in educational institutions. The use of a national language can bring about equality among all classes of people, can be an anchor-sheet for Nepalese nationality, and can be the main instrument for promoting literature.

The present system of secondary and higher education has indeed brought about some improvement in the country and promoted to some extent the economic condition of the people, but at the same time, has made the Nepalese lose much of their moral stamina. The system must be changed to suit the moral atmosphere. In the modern system of education, books on other subjects besides those for learning languages should be translated into Nepali.

Taking into consideration the economic condition of the majority of the people, it is proper to shorten the period of secondary education. Crafts such as weaving, knitting, etc. should be made compulsory but there should be no curtailment of the period in higher education, nor should crafts be made compulsory here. After the completion of common school or pathshala education, we wish our sons and daughters to devote themselves to the progress of the country and its literature and be able to earn their living by getting employment according to their merit.

The names of those who have unanimously subscribed to the above mentioned suggestions are.... (Here follow the names of 78 villagers)

An individual in the extreme western part of Nepal contributes the second example:

We find the progress of education in our country lagging behind when we compare it to the political, social, and industrial development of modern times. The real cause of backwardness lies in the fact that, the educational institutions are not properly discharging their duties and are treating with contempt the true character of education.

People say that democracy is already here. With it many new

problems are arising for which we have to formulate a new plan of education and implement it. It is necessary for our countrymen, to know the value of democracy in a democratic set up. Every individual has some responsibility in democracy and his duties towards it. It appears as if great forces are at work in bringing about the democratization of the country, but we the citizens of the country are not being educated for it. We are more actuated by a spirit of intolerance, want of co-operation and selfishness. The system of education prevailing in the country is not broadening our outlook.

In the present educational system there are many defects, the chief two of which are (a) that nothing has been done to teach civics and the social sciences, nor (b) has anything been effected for providing the means of livelihood for the people. When young students come out of these institutions, they still grope in the dark, and like the blind, they have to find out the means by which to make a living. Whether they are qualified or not in any Government department does not matter; all they have to do is to work in the department for a livelihood. The result is that the Nepalese community is totally deprived of the real pleasures of life.

It is necessary now to give more prominence to the people in general than to individuals. Therefore, planning of education is a necessity for the people.

A citizen should not be made to feel that he has been burdened by the state with too much education. This will be only possible if every citizen gets an opportunity to select and learn subjects of his own choice. Every individual of society should also feel that his education is a necessity, not only for his own good, but also for that of the society. He should bear in mind that it is an instrument for establishing a connecting link between him and society.

Efforts must be made to co-ordinate social life with that of industry. We must devise such instruments and plans of education as may undoubtedly enable every person of society to embrace an opportunity for education.

Unemployment in the country is ever on the increase and it is very important that education imparted should serve as an aid rather than as a burden to society, so that the individual might not only be able to preserve his own individuality, but also safeguard his country's glory. We are in great need of this kind of education and have to think of such planning as may suit the situation of the country and our own genius. It is hoped that the country will be prosperous very soon, if the educational institutions carry out the plan already suggested.

I have laid a great stress on civics, because our life totally lacks civic sense. We cannot even sacrifice a little for the good of our social life. We are so much engrossed in our selfish pursuits that we don't mind harming others, if we can gain our object thereby. Democracy does not admit of such

narrow-mindedness. On the contrary, it is a sort of family life where the policy of "give and take" and sympathy for others plays an important part.

The education towards which I am trying to draw the attention of the National Education Planning Commission, will, I think, enable a person to preserve his own individuality as well as transform him completely into a social being. It will also teach him the significance of self-sacrifice in society which is merely an aggregation of individuals, and make him a partner in the pleasures of family life in society.

Industrially our country is far behind the other countries of the world. It is now a country of starving and naked people, in spite of the fact that it possesses great resources. If industrial education is properly organized we can develop our industries with a rapid pace. We can send our young people for training, develop our industries, and crafts, and banish, in a few years, our country's misery and poverty.

It is hoped that the planning by the Education Planning Commission will be suitable and useful to the country. It is of paramount importance that the first step be taken not only to launch a mass literacy drive but also expand adult education.

These areas which are at a considerable distance from Kathmandu and suffer from lack of communications are always beyond the pale of central Government. So far, no officials sent here from Kathmandu have affected or tried to affect any educational reform. Their work has merely been to collect revenues and earn their emoluments. Even a few educated people here have received their education in India and not in any of the Government-owned institutions. The reason is quite obvious. Indian cities are nearer to them than Kathmandu is. But what a small percentage of well-to-do people might have done is worth consideration.

The people in the districts which are at a considerable distance from the Centre suffer from ignorance and poverty. Text-books are lacking. Getting them from Kathmandu presents a difficulty. Teachers in sufficient number are not available for starting schools or pathshalas. More pay is demanded by teachers who come from outside, and it is very difficult to meet the expenditure from public funds. If even it were adequate, it is rather difficult to obtain official sanction.

The officials bestow little consideration to the situation of the district, and act as if they are just like those of Kathmandu.

The Government does not seem to encourage those people who have received their education in India. Swifter decision in matters of education for far off places and greater facilities for those who have been sent there from the Centre are essential. We are fully confident that the Education Planning Commission will, with recommendations of their own, draw the attention of the Government to the necessity of providing facilities to the far off areas just like ours, which have been hitherto neglected.

The third illustrative report comes from an Inspector of Schools in Eastern Nepal, who speaks in terms of the people with whom he has come in contact:

There should be one educational institution, whether you call it a school or vidyalaya, where Nepali, Sanskrit, English and Hindi can be taught. Compulsory education of crafts should be imparted in every lower and high school, but the subjects must differ in each. A general knowledge of vernacular and arithmetic and civics and nature study is what is required in the primary stage.

The system of Sanskrit education as it obtains today, and as I see teachers working in vernacular schools (where Sanskrit is also taught), prepare the student to act as an officiating priest. No notice is taken of the girl students because girls are debarred from acting as officiating priests. The pandits give greater attention to the study of priesthood than to secular subjects.

Talk of contributions frightens the Nepalese. Therefore, I think it would be better if the Panchayat imposed an education cess (tax) on the people, which they are quite willing to pay when once it is imposed. It is funny to see the Nepalese freely spending their money on beer and other intoxicating drinks, and on gambling, and mortgaging their houses and lands when it is necessary for them to corrupt the officials in litigation. But they loudly complain if they are made to pay school-fees for their sons and daughters. When told that they should be educated, the people in reply will say "Who is going to look after our cattle?"

This explains the attitude of the Nepalese towards education. To them the acquisition of knowledge is a means of getting an official „post or riches. Once they get through their studies and become officials, they think they or their sons can wear the gold badges like those of the Khardars, Dithas and Subbas, and make money. The reason is not far to seek. In times gone by, and even now, people serving in many places as Khardars for only a year have been found to have enriched themselves enormously and to be in no necessity of serving the Government again. The simple minded villagers see before their eyes their splendors.

Therefore, if real impetus is to be given to education, scholarships must be given to poor village boys and girls. So far only the sons of the rich have availed themselves of the benefit of the scholarships. People from Kathmandu in large numbers and some kith and kin of rich men from the districts have been sent to foreign countries for education. So there has been no marked improvement in the condition of the poor. They are just the same. No opportunity is given them for education. The scope of Government activities does not extend beyond the Kathmandu Valley, and if it does, it is limited to district centres only. It seems that the rich really do not wish the countryside to be educationally progressive.

We want education for the people but have no means to effect it.

Even primary education is denied to the bulk of the people. Primary education, free and compulsory or with small fees and compulsion, is what is required. High schools are very few and far between. There are no colleges except those of Kathmandu which are far off from our locality. Moreover, the fluctuating exchange rates of Nepalese coins are abruptly cutting short the chances of many for higher studies. In the area where I am stationed, Indian currency is current, Nepalese rupees are appearing just now for the first time, but still are not current. There are no exchange banks. There is no possibility of sending young ones from the hill-side to Biratnagar and Dharan, let alone India.

In Dhankuta district, institutions should be started at Athrai and Therathum or Madi; in Illam, at Illam Gounda and Karfok or Jitpur; in Morang, at Dharan; and in Jhapa, at Bhadrapur.

Opportunity should not be given indiscriminately to every one, whether rich, or poor, to go in for college studies. Intelligence tests should be used as a guide. Some should be diverted to crafts in order that they may increase our country's wealth. Both boys and girls of outstanding merit should receive scholarships. In sending out students in any plan of study utmost care must be exercised in their selection. Not only boys and girls of the rich or those people of Kathmandu only, but also those of the poor in every village must be selected. The Government might help the rich students in getting seats for further studies, but only the poor ones should be financially helped. As education has become a problem of economics these days, it is all the more important that shall scholarships should be given to rural areas. If any division cannot utilize the grants, they should be transferred to another division. I have suggested these measures because the people of Kathmandu do not like to part with their gay city life, and neither do the sons of the rich care to enter into Government service. Very few people of the latter category have the leisure to render honorary service. The present Government policy with regard to education does not seem to confer any benefit on the country at large.

The selection of crafts in basic education must be compulsory. On Calling in these subjects there should be no promotion. Learning of crafts wears out the feeling of shame which is harbored by many gentlemen and contributes to more substantial work for the country.

The people of this area should not only be made to take more interest in working out doors, but also should be taught how to do it. Training in facilities for fruit-gardening which may bring in more money, the selection of soil where fruit trees may be planted, a better „method of cattle and poultry farming, the tanning of leather and methods of utilizing it, cotton planting and cotton weaving, making of compost manures, the repairing of articles of tin and iron, and the making of soap should also be provided. There should be a centre of teacher training for crafts. From here teachers equipped with necessary tools and techniques should be detailed to the different parts of the country according to the needs of each village for a

specified period. They should be transferred to another place when their work is done. The vacancy thus caused may be filled in by getting a man from another place in order that he might teach some other trade to the people of the area. If this scheme is continued for 15 years, there will be no dearth of skilled hands and most of the problem of unemployment will be solved.

Every girl must get proper military training when they are still in their educational institutions, the girl students also getting compulsory education on domestic science. Many people are of opinion that boys and girls should have separate institutions for education, but I think it impossible to do so in view of the present condition of Nepal. We are witnessing the opening of separate schools for boys and girls at places which can scarcely maintain a single one. The result is that not a single school is functioning properly; they are on the point of collapse. When teachers are not available in adequate number, it is utterly foolish to sanction two kinds of institutions. The girls who have received their education in the girls' school from the very beginning are found to be speechless owing to their bashful nature.

The people of this area are quite willing to have free compulsory primary education. They are willing even to pay an education-cess. During my tour of inspection, people of many places demanded of me that the Government should be approached for enacting a law of compulsory education for all.

The fourth example, learned but practical and far-seeing, represents the outlook of a college professor:

I am grateful to you for inviting me to offer my humble suggestions. I start with the proposition that due to poverty and illiteracy our country has remained backward, and I am sure that this statement will meet with universal agreement. Democracy in itself is a symbol of people's representation. The foundation of a modern Government rests on a principle of representation, portraying the character of the people of a country. We welcome the timely efforts of the Commission and appeal to the people to extend their co-operation in the matter so that it might bring about a unity of purpose of fundamental principles

In a country which is in a fluid state with no stability of any kind and where the people have to shoulder their own responsibility, a fair criticism must be judged on its merit. The responsibility of maintaining the country's honor intact devolves on us. At such a time criticism for the sake of criticism will do no good. It is better to put our heads together and solve our problems by ourselves. In this very spirit, I openly express my views, little caring whether they are unpalatable, and I hope the Commission will not overlook this aspect of things when going through these suggestions.

We have neither universities for higher education nor an adequate number of primary schools for driving away illiteracy. It will be too late if we do not take any steps to do something either way. The country is suffering

from a want of planning of education. At such a time it is utterly ridiculous for the Government to undertake five or six systems of primary education in a restricted area and misuse their money and men.

The face of the country will undergo a complete change in case the Commission is able to plan education for whole country. While thanking the personnel of the Commission for trying to collect the opinions of the people by sending out a questionnaire, I warn them not to determine their policy in the mere strength of votes. The mental horizon of the mass of our people is very much limited and for this, if not for anything else, their opinion is practically of little value. I think the Commission should try to acquaint the experts of educationally advanced countries with the particular time, place and condition of our country, and on their advice carry on the task they are entrusted with.

It is curious to note that while in some places the benefit of having five or six kinds of primary education is being enjoyed, there are villages where even literacy campaigns have not been launched. The Commission should liquidate this anomaly as early as possible. Instead of multiplicity, one system education should prevail, which will be the easiest method of spreading literacy.

Opinions differ on principle with regard to the medium of instruction in primary schools. The advantages of local languages are:

- (1) Children can easily be made literate if they are taught in their mother tongue.
- (2) Love of mother tongue instead of distaste for the national language, will be the emphasis.
- (3) The less advanced tribal languages will be developed and this will go a long way in helping to bring about an all round progress in the country by mutual good will of all concerned.
- (4) The Government will be credited for preserving the right of its people to publish books in their own mother tongue for the medium of instruction.

The advantages of the national language are:

- (1) If the national language is made the medium of instruction, the Government will tide over the immediate difficulties of preparing text-books in many languages, and implement their plan at once. Local languages generally lack grammars and dictionaries and it takes a long time to prepare them.
- (2) In a small country where languages are spoken, it will not be practicable to give the same status to all the languages simultaneously. Therefore it will be imperative to adopt a general policy to give status to a language which is spoken by the majority of the people. Moreover, taking a census and the collection of statistics will involve much time before it will be possible to take up the

problem of many languages.

- (3) The national language will be easier to learn than Hindi. No truly Hindi speaking people inhabit any part of the country.
- (4) As an official language for a long time, Nepali has been current every where and therefore is not difficult for the local people to understand.
- (5) Newars, Magars, Lepchas, Gurung, Chepangs, Tharus, Khas, and Rajputs who constitute the different communities of Nepal, easily understand the language and express their thoughts to one another through its medium. It is thought that it will not be so unintelligible to boys and girls of every tribe in primary schools throughout the country.
- (6) Nepali bears a closer affinity with Hindi than any other local language and both Nepali and Hindi are unlike Maithli, Newari, and Tibetan, using Deva Nagiri script.
- (7) The most important thing that strikes the readers of our earlier history is that the bond of language has been the greatest factor in determining the frontiers of our country. Garhwal and the other conquered parts of Nepal broke away because of different languages prevailing there. To solve the problems of multiplicity of language, stress and importance will have to be laid on one language, if the integrity and sovereignty of Nepal is to be maintained.

Education should be compulsory for all. The people of the village and the lower classes of towns and cities are generally denied the opportunity of education. They have to labour all day to eke out their living—the chief thing for keeping their body and soul together. Therefore night schools for driving out illiteracy for adults, the preparation of suitable text books for them, and a shorter period of study are all that are required.

With respect to Basic Education, the purpose and principle which Mr. Gandhi stressed as his ideal, "A house, food, and clothing for everybody," was not of practical value to the extent which he wished. it to be. It is deteriorating everyday, even in India, because it is' merely paying respect to a principle without any response from the people. The ideal put forward is that a barrister's son who learns spinning, will establish a closer relation with a weaver's son; and a carpenter's son who learns the trade of a shoe-maker, will benefit the world by doing away with class or caste distinctions between the high and the low and thus bring about a unity of all walks of life by providing opportunities for exchange of views. But this did not happen.

This does not mean, however, that we should encourage theoretical education at the cost of teaching some technical skill. The mere imparting of technical skill will be a handicap to a promising village-boy who aspires for a higher education. Therefore let everybody be initiated in the noble task of completing five years of secondary education. Then those who are qualified and promising should have an opportunity for higher education for enlightenment and leadership of the

country.

But even when the Bill of Human Rights of a democratic Government abolishes all the social distinctions, it will not serve as a timely solution to wean away people from their traditional crafts and arts which should be fostered. The shoemaker should benefit by being trained to be a better one and the blacksmith should make better edged khukuris for the Nepalese by improving the trade and having a better world-market for his wares.

Specialized skills and crafts, which are notable features in any region of Nepal should be provided with permanent and travelling schools for teaching them in a benefitting way. In agriculture, production of crops should be undertaken in places suitable to them, giving full consideration to soil, manures, irrigation, climate and altitude. Due to utter ignorance the people in their homes and villages all over the hills raise only a maize crop and live on it. If better education was provided and encouragement given, the peasants could raise their standard of living by growing pistachio-nuts, almonds, pomegranates, grapes, mangoes, oranges, bananas, sugar-canes, spices, fruits, etc. Nepal has not yet learnt to exploit the natural resources—trees, creepers, various minerals, and wild life lying on the lap of the Himalayas.

The present system of education instead of being suitable to the country has created more unemployment by diverting the people from their callings while professing to do just the contrary. The country will go to the bottom of the sea for all time to come, if the undesirable features of the present system of education are not eliminated and better ones grafted thereon in order to expand the scope of education. Character, patriotism, nationalism, reverence for culture, the spirit of self sacrifice and service should characterize - the people.

This reminds me of some of Deva's words which say, "Ignorance is far better than the knowledge gained by serving arrogant people. What benefit will accrue from nectar which has already been mixed with poison?" My idea of basic education is that it should suit the country and be fitting to our times. Beehive-keeping, dehydration of fruits, cattle farming, plantation preservation of trees, weaving, ironwork, pottery, scientific commercial researches, engraving, sculpturing, etc., should form the curriculum of basic studies together with national music and dancing. Education that teaches us merely to copy and imitate others will bring ruin upon the country and its people.

No one can ever dream of any progress in a country as long as its motherhood remains uneducated. Man will remain only half-developed as long as woman goes without education. The country demands wider education for woman than for man. Family quarrels, misunderstanding among brothers, and blind adherence to many of the social evils are the outcome of woman having received no education. In a country where more females are born than men, it is a problem the importance of which need not be stressed. But the present system of education will surely corrupt the minds of women, and invite more disasters if timely reforms are not introduced. Therefore, a system of education unfolding the inner self should be included in the course of their studies. If military training is made compulsory for boys, music and dancing must be made compulsory for girls.

With regard to co-education, it is my personal contention that the opposition by the mothers of this generation to co-education is depriving a large number of girls from receiving education. This state of things should be remedied by providing separate institutions for the grown-ups. As the system of marriages follow a different pattern of culture, those opposing co-education cannot be charged for not harbouring liberal views. When these girls attain mother-hood they shall have the choice of decision in the matter. Then only the real foundation of co-education will have to be laid.

Education should always be directed by a Committee supervised by an intellectual body. I am not in favour of handing over the direction of education to the Panchayats or Municipalities. A Managing Committee composed of Government officials, independent intellectuals and members of Panchayats and Municipalities may be set up separately in each place, but a Managing Committee with representatives of various regions must be organized at the centre to supervise the whole structure.

In order to spread literacy it is necessary to open primary schools and pathshalas in every village, and secondary high schools in every city and town. Students of secondary schools who are interested in higher studies must be promising and qualified. These will have to be sorted out before they are allowed to proceed for higher education. In case of charging fees for higher studies, a free grant of books and scholarships for the students of backward classes is recommended.

It is a matter of shame that Nepal has no university of her own. This is a fact which is deeply felt and deplored by all. Indeed, a few colleges do exist, but they are not even properly managed. The recently started Sanskrit College has neither a building nor a library of its own. No doubt there is a great disparity between the expenditure on defense and on education in the budget of every country in the world, the defense being considered to be a more vital matter. But there is no compulsion that we should repeat this policy. The matter must be thrashed out when the country's budget is presented. Lack of medical colleges resulting in the shortage of doctors should be a matter of concern to everybody.

If the Government takes over buildings belonging to the Ranas on five or ten years' leases on a reduced scale of rent, the problem of want of accommodation can be easily solved. If the present owners of these mansions are unable to keep them in order, they should be nationalized. But on no account should they be demolished and the materials sold by the Ranas. They have been built at great cost and nobody can tolerate their demolition. At present some of the mansions are utilized as hotels and cinema houses for which licenses have been issued by the Government. Licenses have been issued for them on such a large scale in a poor country like ours that they are bringing utter ruin on the people. Lal Durbar, which is leaking with rain-water, and the Jawlakhel Durbar are in a deplorable condition. These are our country's property which should not be allowed to go to rack and ruin. Should the need arise; we have plenty of buildings in Kathmandu which might serve as universities.

It is time now—we cannot brook delay any longer—to organize a Managing Committee for setting up a university and handing over to it the task of formulating a higher education system. There will be no harm if the Managing Committee for the university includes among its members foreign experts who can tender us advice. A plea of shortage of funds should not stand in our way. The country can well bear the burden of debt for setting up a university

Specific Suggestions

Some of the remainder of the many suggestions have been roughly grouped according to the general topics and problems discussed in this Report. Some overlap into several areas, but in general they pertain to specific aspects of education. No attempt has been made to tabulate or evaluate these suggestions; they may have come from only one person or from many.

The Educational Scene (Part I of Report)

Today's education results in rowdism and is leading our promising youth to ruin.

The Sanskrit system of education merely fills the minds of boys with ideas of heaven and hell.

Sanskrit does not supply bread and butter; it creates blind belief, and class distinction.

The ideas of highly educated people today, clash with those of the village pundits and old people. They have become too progressive.

Factors opposing education are: poverty, lack of teachers, lack of textbooks, blind belief and superstition, financial stringency, lack of school buildings, bad communications, inadequate courses of study, and inactivity by the Department of Education.

The country is in a state of utter barbarism and ignorance.

Parents should be punished by fine or imprisonment for failure to send their children to school.

So-called "educated" persons cannot pronounce or write correctly, and do not understand, Nepalese literature.

Schools are weak today because they do not offer social studies, vocational education, or leisure-time training.

Sanskrit and English education do not fit village needs; a new system must be established for our people.

Eighty percent of the educated people live in Kathmandu.

Everyone today who gets an education thinks the government owes him a job.

Sterling character, patriotic and national feeling, feeling of reverence, spirit of sacrifice and service generally characterize the villager but are rarely found among the "educated."

Basic education encourages self-help and should be strengthened.

Middle and high schools have been started in some areas that still do not have primary schools.

Many pundits of Sanskrit pathshalas consider their jobs as sinecures. Some of their "schools" do not have a single student, even though they receive government aid.

Change should not come all at once. New schools should be started where none exist and the old ones can latter change over to the new system when they are ready.

A universal desire for education must be created.

Nepali should be the medium of instruction from the primary school through the college.

Individuals should be allowed a choice of subjects according to their interests and abilities.

Our country is rich in natural resources, but they can't be utilized efficiently until we have sufficient education.

We need education that will feed, shelter, and clothe us and make us self-reliant.

The Nepalese drink only the refreshing water of the Himalayas and consequently have sharp mental faculties.

A National Plan of Education (Chapter VII.)

Physical education and military training should be compulsory in every school.

Institutions for scientific research in history, geology, agriculture, and mineral resources should be started as soon as possible.

The government should set up a primary school for every unit of 1000 population, a middle school for every unit of 10,000 population, and one or more high schools in each district.

Educational cinema, radio, drama, and exhibitions should be used more widely to educate the people.

Education should be multi-faced to meet the needs of all.

Boarding and lodging should be provided for poor and illiterate, but promising, children.

Schools should be started in the larger centres first because teachers will refuse to live in remote villages with poor accommodations.

Technical and professional training institutions should be started at once.

The new education must teach boys how to earn their bread. The Government must provide colleges for its youth.

Different levels of education must be carefully coordinated with each other to insure planning and continuity in education.

There should be a Ten-Year plan for driving away illiteracy among adults.

One way to spread education would be to organize an Educational Body to tour the country, offering encouragement and advice to Managing Committees and Panchayats on educational matters.

Educational efforts today are scattered; they should be merged into a strong, national, unitary effort.

We must take care that wide-spread education does not lead to "white collar" unemployment.

It would be a mistake to copy a foreign system of education.

Optional technical education should be available for all, to remove unemployment.

Technical education is more urgently needed at the moment than general education.

To encourage education, the government should enact a law depriving a boy of his right to inherit property if he has not finished middle school.

An All Nepalese Teachers Association should be organized and a national conference held once a year.

Education for women must be emphasized.

Primary School Curriculum (Chapter VIII).

The medium of instructions should be Nepali after the first two grades; English and Hindi should not be offered in primary school.

Our country is mainly agricultural; therefore our schools must teach boys and girls how to make a living.

Basic education must be reformed for use in Nepal.

The Government should take steps to increase the number of girls in our schools.

The primary school curriculum should include Nepali, Arithmetic, Geography, General Knowledge, and Cottage Industries.

One of the major tasks for the Government is to provide textbooks for our schools.

Sanskrit Pathshalas have out-lived their usefulness. Education imparted by them makes the people blind and do not solve the problem of earning a livelihood.

Primary education should be free and compulsory.

Secondary School Curriculum (Chapter IX)

Secondary education should not be the kind that will used unemployment.

Secondary education should be broader than preparation for government post.

The SLC examination should be abolished in favour of continuous assessment.

Secondary education students should gain knowledge and artistic skills in handicrafts and agriculture; industries should be developed.

Vocational training should be compulsory at the secondary school level.

Extra-curricular activities should form a definite part of the programme.

The Government should encourage intellectuals to write textbooks for our schools.

English should not be compulsory for the medium of instruction; it should be optional in the high school.

The curriculum should include social science; a general knowledge of agriculture, trade, or industry; geometry and algebra; and Nepali.

Sanskrit, English, and Hindi should be optional subjects at the high school level. Nepal history should precede foreign history.

University Education (Chapter X)

There can be no coordination of higher education until Nepal has a University of her own.

In a small country like ours we cannot afford many different kinds of schools and colleges; we must unify under one great University.

A University Planning Committee should be appointed immediately to lay out and implement a scheme.

There need not be any great changes among our colleges or increase in funds in order to create a coordinating university.

We must start a University on the ideals of Sevitarāma Maṇa Vihāra, Bhṛīṅṅ Lhasa and the other Sanskrit institutions of yore. (Sect of Buddha Kanaka Muni who preceded Buddha Gautama; and other educational institutions of the 4th-5th century A. D.)

We should have colleges in East and West Nepal as well as at Kathmandu.

If a University cannot be established at once, let an administrative committee be appointed for the interim.

Adult Education (Chapter XI)

An adult literacy drive should be organized.

All school teachers and village development workers should be taught how to lead adult literacy classes.

The schools and libraries should be used in the evenings for adult education groups.

Adult classes should be started in farming, house-keeping, crafts, and other useful subjects.

Radio education, films, cartoons, stories, and other modern methods should be used in adult education.

Textbooks, fortnightly newspapers, and simple pamphlets should be prepared for adult literates.

High school students should be taught how to teach literacy classes and thus spread literacy faster.

Training of Teachers. (Chapter XII).

Textbooks on modern methods of teaching are urgently needed in Nepali for all teachers.

Short-term courses must be set up at once to train teachers. We need thousands of primary school teachers.

Teachers' salaries must recognize training as an incentive for getting trained teachers.

A teacher training centre is needed to train new teachers and retrain the old ones.

Teacher training should be extended to all parts of Nepal to give training on-the-job and train teachers in the villages where they will work. There must be teacher training in many centres.

Model schools must be part of the teachers' training centre.

Teachers must be given better pay to attract better young people to the training centres.

Instructional Materials (Chapter XIII)

Some of the unemployed educated people should be put to work translating English, Hindi, Urdu, Sanskrit, Bengali and other materials into Nepali for use as textbooks and other reading material.

There is a great paucity of textbooks and materials outside the Kathmandu Valley.

Paper mills must be set up in Nepal to produce cheap paper for cheap textbooks.

All other planning will be useless unless a good plan for the distribution of books and materials is set up.

We should use magic lanterns, radio, charts and graphic materials, and community resources to enrich our teaching methods.

Preparation and printing of textbooks in Nepali must receive first priority.

Administration and Supervision of Education (Chapter XIV)

Each district should have a separate over-all managing committee for the entire district, which would be responsible for regional administration of education.

A new education code should be prepared to provide suggestions, rules and regulations for the administration of education in both Government aided and in private schools.

The Central Government should lay down the guiding policies for education but should leave the administration to the regional and village authorities.

Each village or group of small villages should have a managing Committee to administer the local school. This committee should be representative of local people and should be responsible for applying the educational code.

A school inspector should be appointed for each district, but these school inspectors should be made responsible to the present zonal inspectors.

Many schools are closed for want of teachers; the Central Government should provide teacher training on a broad scale.

The indiscriminate grants now given by the Central Government to certain schools (some of which are not even in operation) must be replaced by a more equitable system based on actual need, local contribution and similar factors.

There is a great anxiety in most schools because of the lack of Government aid or the failure of the Government to meet its financial commitment promptly.

Government should provide jeeps or elephants as transportation for the inspectors.

Eighty-three percent of Central Government education funds are spent in the Kathmandu Valley; this inequity should be eliminated at once.

Financing Education (Chapter XV)

For rapid expansion of education Government should increase its percentage of funds spent on education; if necessary expenditures for the army must be reduced.

In order to finance education the Central Government must tax Birta land and income from religious endowments. Taxes must also be levied on luxury goods.

An educational tax of two to four pice per rupee (2 to 4%) should be levied on all income.

One-fourth of the land revenue realized by the Government should be set aside for educational purposes.

At present the Government gives grants to schools regardless of size or quality; Government aid should be distributed on the basis of number of pupils, number of teachers, willingness of the village to help finance the school, and similar factors.

We must accept co-education as an economy measure because we cannot afford separate schools for boys and girls.

Local land revenue should be increased by 10% with the understanding that the additional income would remain in the district where it is raised for educational purposes.

The Government should impose an educational tax on the income of wealthy merchants, high salaried officials, big land lords and other rich people.

The income from Guthi lands should be taxed in the same manner as other

lands.

Some of the income of religious endowments, monasteries, temples and so forth should be diverted to education.

The Educational Environment: Site, Buildings, Equipment, Supplies (Chapter XVI)

We can use open-air areas in place of a building temporarily, but a building should be available as soon as possible as it gives solidarity and permanence to the school.

Where villages are small, but close together, several can go together to have a consolidated school.

In remote, small villages, several classes may be combined in one room under one teacher.

The people of the village should join hands and build a building together.

Hostels should be provided for higher schools to take care of residential students who come from afar.

Library facilities for the school and community should be provided in all buildings.

The school should be built as a community centre.

Each school should have a large well-drained play area and an area for practicing agriculture.

Special Services (Chapter XVII)

Nutritious, hot mid-day meals should be available for all children, and should be free to those who cannot afford the cost.

Clubs and Scouting should be organized in each school.

Guardians clubs (Parent-Teacher Associations) should be organized to help run the school and provide for discussion on educational matters.

Summary

One of the major charges to the Commission was to survey opinion and facts relative to present day education. Opinion was studied through a questionnaire and personal interviews. This chapter has summarized the opinions of representative Nepalese from all walks of life.

In brief, there is a great thirst for education, a dissatisfaction with present schools, a skepticism of Sanskrit and English and foreign educational patterns, and a desire for something practical. Nearly everyone wants a single, dynamic system under Central Government leadership, but administratively shared with the local community. Nearly all agree on universal primary education as a base, followed by secondary education for an increasingly larger number, and topped by colleges coordinated under Nepal's own National University.

Many other ideas are presented, and each must be considered by the

Commission, but not all can be used even though a larger number of people support them. This phase of the study has inestimable value and the findings here may serve as guideposts for the rest of the Report.

Ministry of Education

CHAPTER VI

NEED FOR EDUCATION IN NEPAL TODAY

The first part of this report has been devoted to a survey and review of educational facilities in Nepal today. The results are not encouraging, but they are truly challenging. The years immediately ahead may be described by future historians as the "Golden age of education," *if the challenge is met*. Those who are privileged to serve during this period will incur great rewards and the blessings of posterity for their services.

We saw in Chapter I how the great need for education was realized by many educational officials, and how the Commission was appointed to tackle the problem. We noted in Chapter II the extraordinary cultural heritage that is Nepal's and the part that it must play in the formulation of a national education plan. Chapter III revealed the pitifully inadequate facilities and finance now available to less than 3.7 per cent of the youth of Nepal of school going age and a literacy rate estimated to be only two per cent of the total population. And in Chapter IV we learned that the curriculum for even this small number of children is obsolete, narrow, academic, and in general unsuited to the real needs of our youth and our country. Finally, Chapter V shines forth as a ray of light from darkness, revealing the tremendous thirst for education for all-children and adults alike—and the willingness of the people to do their best to support it. Our only requirement now is to design a plan and provide the leadership to carry it out.

The Need for Education

The need for universal education in Nepal is clear. First, democratic government and the democratic way of life—which Nepal has chosen—are based on an enlightened citizenry; they cannot survive in darkness. As a matter of fact, they cannot be achieved until we have widespread learning. We now have only the forms of democracy; its complete realization must await the full enlightenment of the people. The knowledge to vote and share in making decisions, the assumption of responsibility, intelligent use of one's rights, cooperative enterprise—all essential to democracy—are predicated on education.

Second, there can be little technological advancement without education. There can be no trained leaders to make discoveries or utilize the discoveries of others. There can be no use of technology by the consumer until he is educated. Science and technology, Aladin's gift to the twentieth century, must go unheeded, yes, unwanted, among an ignorant populace. We are refusing the gifts that have sped advancement in other countries that could take ours out of darkness if we become educated.

Third, there can be little improvement in our economic conditions without the help of technology and education. We cannot even exploit our natural resources without scientific knowledge and help. We cannot build industries, open mines, get the maximum yield from our farms, renew our forests, harness our water power, build railroads and highways—we cannot make any improvements in our economy without education.

Fourth, we have become a part of the world, whether we like it or not. We can no longer remain isolated; the world has come to us. How can we meet this world without education? Must we—who once were the crossroads of civilization—bow our heads in shame to our worldly visitors? How can we evaluate the "gifts" that are offered us—ideologies, new customs, inventions, and the ways of a new, strange world? How can we protect ourselves against slogans and ideologies detrimental to the interests of our country? We can do none of these without education to give us understanding and strength to lead us.

Fifth, our isolation has made us proud and nationalistic, and we wish to remain so. We wish to develop our national individuality, our heroism, and our reputation among other countries of the world. During the last few centuries, we have neglected these essential characteristics of all strong states—national pride, virility, individuality—because we have allowed ourselves to go into darkness. Education must restore these values to our country.

Sixth, we must regain our place in the world of education. Few countries have as rich a cultural heritage as Nepal. But in our carelessness, we have nearly lost it. It will take years of research to restore it to us and to the world. This calls for highly trained researchists, and an educated people to support such research and appreciate its findings.

There are so many other reasons for education, so many values to be gained. But any one of the foregoing is sufficient reason to place education first and foremost in the scheme of national development. We simply cannot survive without education.

The Need for Educational Planning

If we are to have education on a national scale, it must be planned. At present there are many different systems of education prevailing in our country, some indigenous to our early isolated life, some imported from the outside world. None were planned for the Nepal that we know today.

The English system of education was introduced into Nepal during the reign of the late Maharaja Jung Bahadur Kunwar after his return from England. The Basic or the Wardha system was started recently when it was realized that the existing system of education failed to meet the most urgent and pressing needs of our national life. The Nijamati system was specifically created for recruiting the lower civil service personnel in the administration. Sanskrit was of course being taught through the Bhasha Pathshalas from times immemorial, It is really difficult to state, how much any system of education has benefited this country, but it is now generally realized that education should be of a national type to meet the nation's aspirations, wants, and needs. Today in democratic Nepal, quick and far-reaching changes are taking place in our national as well as international life. The Commission has therefore, from the very beginning felt the urgent need of evolving a system of education that is national in character and suited to the genius of the people.

This system must be planned in the beginning and provision must be made for continuous appraisal, re-planning as our needs shift, as we evolve new patterns and methods, as we learn better ways. There is a desperate need for educational

planning in Nepal today for the following reasons:

1. In a democratic government the role of education becomes crucial since it can function effectively only if there is an intelligent and active participation of the masses in the affairs of the country.
2. The success of planning in a democracy depends on the growth of the spirit of cooperation, the sense of disciplined citizenship and the degree to which it becomes possible to evoke public enthusiasm for planning ahead.
3. Planning is essential for the successful implementation of the educational programme itself.
4. Educational planning helps to train the people to place their responsibilities before their rights, and prepares the people to shoulder the task of educational development in the country.
5. Educational planning is a part of the total national effort.
6. Planning reduces to a minimum the wastage that occurs in an unplanned, uncoordinated, and hotch-potch effort and directs our efforts and energy to proper channels.
7. A planned system of national education will stimulate the growth of the creative faculties, increase the capacity for enjoyment, and help to develop a spirit of critical appreciation of arts, literature and other creative activities.

For these and other obvious reasons, there must be systematic planning. We cannot continue with the wasteful hotch-potch efforts which thus far have netted us so little by way of truly useful learning.

Criteria for Education

As we approach the task of setting up an educational scheme for Nepal we recognize certain characteristics of good education wherever it may be found. These should be applied to Nepal's programme.

- First, education must be universal. It must reach all the people, not just a few. Not even the majority is enough; education must at least be available to all of the people. This means that schools must be opened within the reach of all, so that lack of transportation does not deny learning to some; that education must be free, so that poverty does not deny it to some; that it must be compulsory, so that indifferent parents cannot deprive their children of the benefits of education; and that it must be geared to individual differences of children, so that it is not reserved only for minorities who may be academically or otherwise more favoured than the majority.

Second, education must be adapted to the needs of the people for whom it is intended. Imported schemes are not likely to be suited to our needs. The educational needs of our people must be analyzed and then a curriculum must be designed for these specific needs. Furthermore, all of the needs of all of the people must be met. Academic learning is not enough. Education must fit the learner for

earning a living as well as teaching him how to meet his social obligations.

Third, education must be a cooperative enterprise. All must share its cost according to financial ability rather than whether one has children in school or not, whether he is interested or not, or for any similar reason. And the people in the villages must carry the major burden for the support of education. The central Government can give leadership and provide administrative organization, but it cannot carry more than a small part of the financial burden. Children, teachers, parents, administrators, and managing committees all have a part to play; each must carry his share of the load.

Fourth, education for special groups is not properly a government responsibility. Schools for training priests and lamas, or giving English education, or other special training, should be operated on private funds. Private schools should not be discouraged but government money should be reserved for common education.

There are other criteria that define the general characteristics of education, but these are brought out in the various chapters in Part 11 that outline the Commission's proposals. The need for education is clear-out. Our country's survival as a free country, our economic improvement, our general advancement, our cultural improvement, and the assumption of our place among other nations of the world all demand it.

PART II

A NATIONAL PLAN OF EDUCATION FOR NEPAL

CHAPTER VII

GENERAL OUTLINE OF THE PLAN

Introduction

The present facilities for education in Nepal, as outlined in the first part of this Report, are not encouraging to the rapid growth and development of our country politically, economically, socially, or culturally. Wholly inadequate, and borrowed from other cultures and other times, the present schools, systems, philosophies, and facilities are quite unsuited to the needs of a new Nepal in the mid-twentieth century.

The very appointment of the National Educational Planning Commission is evidence that these present educational arrangements are considered to be unsatisfactory. Only a cursory examination of the situation was necessary to confirm this. Thus, in this setting the Commission undertook its second, and most important, task: the preparation of a plan for national education for Nepal.

The Commission resolved to salvage the good features of present educational schemes in Nepal, but not to be influenced by so-called "traditions" and "precedents" attached to these schemes; their values had to stand on their worth to survive and be incorporated into the new plan. Operating on this principle, we find in the new plan the vocational emphasis of Basic Education, the activity method of learning in the Montessori school, the religious influence of the Pathashala and the Gompas, and the academic standards of the English and Sanskrit systems.

The Commission resolved to study foreign systems of education and the educational research that has been conducted in other countries, but not to adopt or accept a foreign system in its entirety, or in any part unless that part fitted the needs of Nepal; we would learn from foreign countries, but not copy. Following this principle, the Commission has accepted certain administrative concepts from foreign systems, certain concepts of psychology and ways of working with children, principles of assessing pupil growth and progress, etc.

Finally the Commission resolved to build a plan of education that would be peculiar to the needs of our Nepalese culture, our people, and our country. To do this, we have studied our needs and our people, our potentialities and our future. We have surveyed and conferred; we have read and observed. Recognizing our rapidly changing needs, we have provided for modifications in our plan as they are deemed necessary.

In this chapter, we have attempted to give an over-all picture of the plan, with details to follow in subsequent chapters, and we have set some modest and, we hope, realistic targets.

Characteristics of National Education for Nepal

- 1 *Education will be universal.* This is essential to democracy. Everyone must have a minimum education to fulfill his responsibilities as a citizen. A two-

fold approach must be made through primary education for all and adult literacy for all. Within twenty-five years involuntary ignorance and illiteracy can be wiped from the face of the land.

- 2 *Education will be national.* There will be only one system of public, government-supported education, an integrated, unitary programme adapted to the needs of our people and our society. It will evolve from the existing isolated types of education described in the preceding chapters, but will meet the ideals of our national life in Nepal. We propose that the plan be known as the Nepal National Education Plan, that new schools be known as National Schools, the new curriculum as the National Curriculum, etc.
- 3 *Education will be free.* In few countries has this been completely achieved but many have come close. In Nepal, the Commission insists on free primary education immediately, for this is the common base, the minimum, the universal for all. Secondary education should be as free as possible under the circumstances. For many years, high schools will of necessity need to be residential schools. Help should be given to worthy students to defray hostel costs, and no able student should be denied secondary education because of the cost. The Commission has no objection to moderate tuitions for higher education, but this should not be allowed to deter the able student. Adult literacy training should be free; other adult education should be as inexpensive as possible.

The Commission believes in free education but compromises with reality. It insists on free primary and literacy education, with other levers as inexpensive as possible.

- 4 *Education will be for varying periods,* from six months to seventeen or more years, according to needs, aptitudes, and financial ability of the country or community to provide education. Many adults will content themselves with six months of formal instruction in literacy and then continue with self-education through libraries, radio, and eventually cinemas. Doctors, engineers, and other professional persons may study through formal schools for as much as seventeen years or more. In between these extremes, lacs of people will gain a minimum primary schooling, thousands will benefit by secondary education, and hundreds will receive higher education each year.

A "5 - 5 - 4/7 - +" system is planned for the present. This means five years of primary education, five years of secondary education, four to seven years of college and university education, and additional education for adults. This is admittedly a compromise between the ideal and the financially practical. The Commission hopes that some day — perhaps in twenty five years — primary education may be extended to seven years, and that effective two-year post secondary courses may be introduced for large numbers of our people. This would mean a "7 - 5 - 2/7 m +" system. (See Figure 5 for the Educational Ladder recommended by the Commission.)

- 5 *Education will be adapted to many and varied needs.*

- (a) *It will be vocational*, because most people — perhaps 98% — in Nepal must help earn a livelihood for themselves and their family. Only a few can afford to be idle, and even the wealthy must usually work to manage their holdings. Education, then, must have an agricultural and home-making emphasis for the majority, and other vocational training opportunities for the various minorities: industrial workers, professionals, business men, clerks, government workers, etc. Major justification of education must be found in its vocational training values.
 - (b) *Education will develop citizenship*. This is a universal demand, because all of us are citizens. We are citizens of a village, a district, and Nepal, and we have our duties and responsibilities to perform for each. Education will help us to learn these and to fulfill them. Education must teach the citizen to vote, pay taxes, cooperate, make joint decisions, and earn a living so that he can do the other things expected of a citizen in a democracy.
 - (c) *Education will develop the individual*, culturally, aesthetically, physically. It will help him to enjoy life more, live more healthily, and have a better standard of living. It will bring him aesthetic enjoyment, help revive our cultural heritage, and make our communities a better place in which to live.
- 6 *Education will respect people*, It will be a process of helping the learner to unfold, evolve, experience—for himself—the mysteries and simple things of life. It will not be formal, academic, and unrealistic; it will not be propaganda or catechism. Learning will be based on modern principles of psychology and philosophy. Learning will be practical, direct, down to earth, and useful.
- 7 *The primary school will offer general minimum education to the masses*. For the present the primary curriculum will be five years in length, intended for children from six to eleven; eventually, it will be lengthened to seven years. An attempt will be made within this brief period to help boys and girls become fully conscious of their problems, rights, and obligations and to be fully prepared to take up the vocations they choose for themselves, as well as their civic responsibilities. The curriculum will include social studies, science, the "3 R's," crafts, aesthetic arts, and personal development.
- The Commission believes that *the first goal of education in Nepal should be universal primary education*. It suggests as targets: at least one primary school for each 1000 people by 1965; 300,000 children in primary schools by 1965 (this is one-fourth the number children of primary school age at present) ; voluntary universal primary education by 1975 (i.e., enough schools that all can attend who wish to do so voluntarily); compulsory universal primary education by 1985 (i.e., *all* children of primary school age in school).
- 8 The secondary school will be multi-purpose, offering general and vocational education to an increasingly larger group who can profit by training for vocational leadership. This programme will be five years in length, now and

in the future, and will accept qualified pupils who complete the primary school. The curriculum will provide general education (social studies, science, language, mathematics, etc.), and vocational development (physical training, health, aesthetic arts, etc.), and vocational training in agriculture, homemaking, industry, business education, nursing, teaching, preparation for other professions, and general college training. High school training should qualify most students for positions of leadership in the civic and vocational world; some will continue in higher institutions for further training. Secondary schools must develop the skills and leadership required for the general development of the country's economy. To do this, they must provide complete, terminal education for the majority, basic preparation for college for the minority.

As a target, the Commission suggests: at least one multi-purpose high school for each of the thirty-two political districts by 1965 — new schools in districts not now having any high school, and the conversion of an existing school or establishment of a new one in districts now having traditional high schools; 20% of those who complete primary schools attending high school by 1965; at least one multi-purpose high school for each 10,000 people by 1975.

- 9 *Higher education will be organized under a National University.* Colleges and post-secondary institutions will provide practical professional and vocational training to develop high-level leadership for our country. Existing colleges will be organized under a teaching university and new colleges will be established as needed, both in Kathmandu and throughout the country as soon as they can be justified. A net-work of higher education will overlay primary and secondary education to provide special training now gained abroad by our people.

As a target, the Commission suggests University organization for existing colleges within two or three years; a complete university by 1965. We believe that the university enrollment should be held down to 1500 students for a few years; not over 3000 by 1965; not over 5% of the high school enrollment for the next twenty-five years. We feel that this restriction is necessary to provide proper emphasis on other phases of educational programme and to guard against "white-collar" unemployment. If these two factors cease to endanger expansion, then the Commission favours reasonable expansion of this target.

- 10 *Adult education will be available to all.* Adult education not only provides a short-cut to learning for our present adults who have had no schooling, but can also supplement in the future the education of those who receive only primary education. The programme must start with adult literacy; *the Commission considers the goal of universal literacy second only to primary education.* But the programme must encompass all aspects of adult education, agriculture, home-making, handicrafts, fine and cultural arts, widespread literature, etc.

As targets, the Commission suggests: 100,000 new literates by 1960; literacy

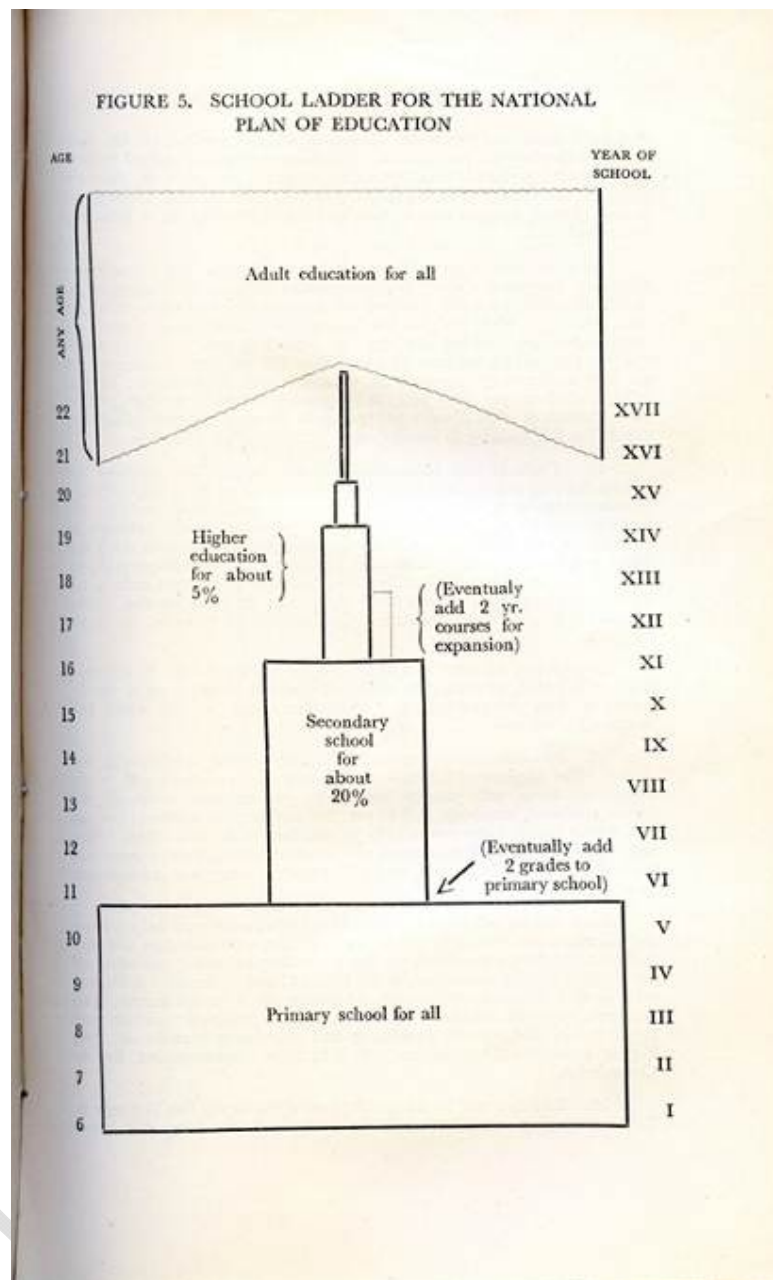
classes for 100,000 per year by 1965; other adult education classes for some by 1960, for all who desire them by 1965; village libraries for all by 1965; village radios for all by 1965.

- 11 *Professional and general education will be provided for teachers to develop this educational programme.* Teachers will be needed by the thousands to develop this programme. The present dearth of trained teachers, or of schooled persons to receive training, must be overcome by attractive amenities for teachers, an appeal to women to come to their country's aid in time of need, and the gradual development of teaching as a great and noble profession.

As minimum targets, to meet the demands for the expansion of education suggested above, the Commission suggests the training of : at least 1000 primary teachers per year for the next ten years, then 2000 per year leading to 4000 per year continuously to provide for new schools and replacements for retiring teachers ; at least 100 new secondary school teachers per year for the next ten years, then 200 per year leading to 400 per year continuously to provide for expansion and replacements; 10 to 20 college teachers per year and the up-grading of present teachers; 500 to 1000 teachers of adult literacy per year until the need is satisfied, and then expanding this training to include other phases of adult education.

- 12 *Textbooks and instructional materials, supplies and equipment, and suitable buildings and sites will be provided.* There can be very little effective learning without a rich educational environment. This includes the teacher, community resources (which are now abundantly waiting to be used by the wise teacher), textbooks and other printed materials, maps and other graphic aids, audio-visual aids, laboratory and workshop equipment, play area, a warm and dry building, and the other things that make up the learning environment, without which there can be little learning. These are part of free, universal education, and should be provided free to the learners.

Figure 5: School Ladder for the National Plan of Education



In addition, we must look in the not too distant future to hot midday meals, health services, club work and scouting, libraries, social service, parent-teachers organizations, and many other special services which help to make a good school.

- 13 *Education will be decentralized in organization, administration, and control.* The Ministry of Education of the central government will be the organizing force, will provide leadership and necessary uniformity, will insure minimum standards, and direct the training of teachers, but *each village must take the major responsibility for education in its area.* Each village will have a board of education or education committee to organize and supervise education in general, and will employ a competent administrator to administer the schools.

Each district will have a district board of education to help Villages get organized and start new schools, and a district superintendent and staff to lend administrative assistance. For some time, secondary education will be mostly a district matter, under the District Board. The central Ministry will sponsor research, coordinate education on a national scale, train teachers, supervise higher education, suggest minimal curricula and requirements, and provide equalizing and sponsoring financial aid. (See Figure 6 for the Organization of Education recommended by the Commission.)

- 14 *Education will be adequately financed, but largely from local resources.* Local managing committees will be authorized to levy and collect educational taxes. Central and district government funds will be used mostly for secondary and higher education and to help new primary schools get started. Most of the support for primary education must come from the villages served if this educational programme is to be realized; the central government could never support a programme so extensive.

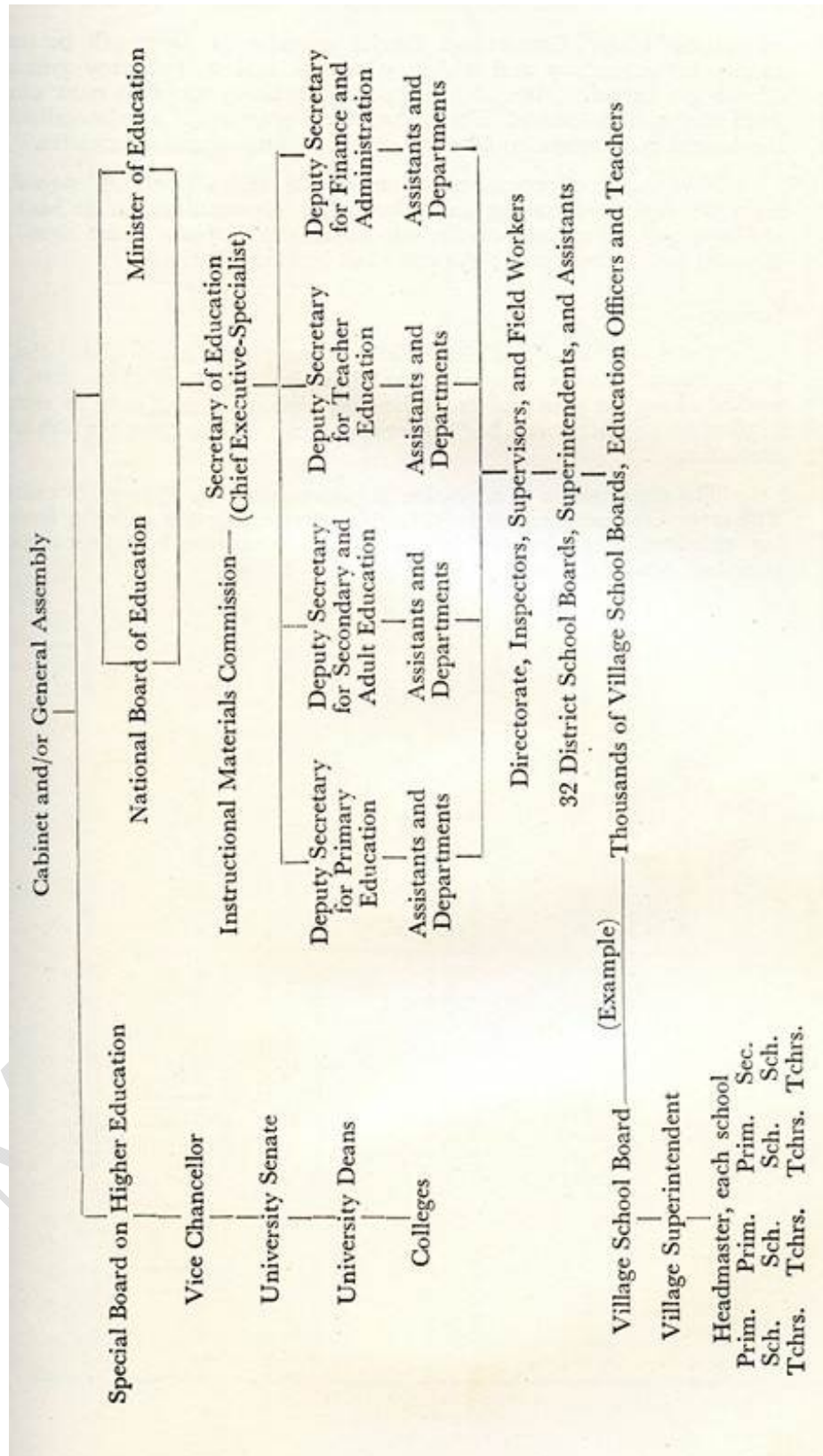
New sources of revenue must be tapped and support of education must be equalized among individuals and communities on the basis of ability to pay. Expenditures for education will increase many times in the next twenty-five years; the cost must be fairly distributed.

Summary

These are the major characteristics of our plan. Many of the details are presented in the chapters that follow, but many of them must be worked out as the plan evolves. The Commission has tried only to sketch a plan here; there must be "supervising architects" to carry the plan into execution.

The organization of education is summarized in Figures 5 and 6. The targets are summarized in Table 18. These, together with the foregoing characteristics, describe in general a national plan for universal, free, complete, practical education for Nepal.

Figure 6. ORGANIZATIONAL CHART FOR THE NATIONAL PLAN OF EDUCATION



General outlines of the plan

Table XVII. Targets for the national plan of education

	Immediate	1960	1965	1975	Ultimate
Primary Education (age 6-10)	Begin opening new schools; convert existing schools	150,000 children in school	300,000 children in school; at least one school for each 1000 population	Voluntary universality	Compulsory universality
Secondary Education (Age 11-15)	Gradually modify curriculum of existing schools	open some new multi-purpose high schools	At least one multipurpose high school for each district; 20% in school	At least one multipurpose high school for each 10.000 population	Gradual expansion of secondary education
Higher Education (Age 16-22)	Coordination of existing colleges under university	Additional colleges plus extension services; about 1500 in university proper	Complete university, with some outlying centres & widespread extension services; about 3000 in university proper	Expanding services, especially in the field of adult education; enrollment to be held to about 5 % of high school enrollment	
Adult Education	600 literacy classes per year	100,000 new literates; some other adult education	100,000 new literates per year; extensive other adult education; village libraries and radios for all	Universal voluntary literacy; universal availability of complete adult education programme	
Teacher Education	300 primary teachers per year; 300 teachers of adult literacy	1000 primary teacher per year; 100 secondary teacher per year; 10 to 20 college teachers per year and upgrading; 500 to 1000 adult education teachers per year continuously		2000 primary teachers per year; 200 secondary teachers per year; 20 to 30 college teachers continuously	4000 primary teachers per year; 400 secondary teachers per year
Text books, etc.	experimental printing	2,000,000 per year	4,000,000 per year	No shortage of instructional materials	
Finance	75 lac rupees per year	200 lac rupees per year	400 lac rupees per year	800 lac rupees per year, increasing as enrollments increase.	

CHAPTER VIII

THE CURRICULUM FOR PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Introduction

Primary education is the basic foundation of learning. For some, it is the base for an educational career; for most of our children in Nepal for a long time to come, it will be the *only* education they will have and thus it becomes comprehensive and terminal. The primary school is the child's first formally organized learning — the instrument for learning the fundamental skills, understandings, attitudes, and habits essential to the "educated" citizen.

The primary school is like the foundation of a building, without which there can be no sound educational structure or system, or sturdy citizenship that will stand the ravages of foul weather. Primary education can eradicate illiteracy and can form a bond of common understanding and effort that will give strength to our young democracy to withstand the evil forces that prey upon it.

Primary education provides supervision, guidance, and direction to the child from age six to eleven. This stage of the child's life has great importance of its own. During this period, the child is developing rapidly in mental, moral, emotional, and physical attainments. It is during this period that we can most easily mould his personality and character to worthy and healthy social ends. His plasticity enables us to guide his energies into useful, social paths and habits, and in the direction of effective membership in the society of which he is a part. This elasticity, of course, may also benefit the evil forces that would mould the child, so it is imperative that there be a constructive, organized primary school programme to combat these negative influences.

Apart from these psychological factors so important to the individual child, primary education is essential to the social, political, religious, economic, and cultural development of the nation. Education means "to lead out", but society must determine the direction in which children are to be lead. Man is a social being. He is born into society; he lives in it; he dies in it. He relies on his fellowmen for many of his needs and desires. He in turn contributes to their well-being. Thus, he is constantly influenced by society, and thus in his feeble way — sometimes strange way — he influences society. He is rarely completely subjugated to it. He tries to reshape his immediate surroundings to his own liking, tastes, and interests.

The society in which we live today in Nepal is not completely satisfactory. In fact, it was so unsatisfactory a few years back, that we as individuals and as a group changed it. Now we are struggling to further improve and perfect it. Because this is a task for all our citizens, we must teach our children, the future citizens, how to eradicate social evils for the betterment of society. But to do this, we must refine the temperament of the individual, who basically is selfish, and make his interests similar and unharmed to the interests of other members of society. Unhealthy, personal, and often indecent interests usually result from the lack of a common education.

Nepal today is quite different from yesterday. It has adopted a democratic form of government, and this has made it necessary for the people to shoulder the complete responsibility of the state — its successes and failures. Therefore, it becomes an urgent need of the people to know their rights and privileges, their duties and responsibilities so that they may always work for the good causes of the nation. Moreover, the recent political changes in Asian countries have put our country between two thorns. Living in the midst of two big and powerful countries, with different ideologies and causes, Nepal faces her most critical period in history. She must face the problem boldly and methodically. So every son and daughter must be ready to meet them and help solve them.

Nepal is facing an economic crisis. Much of the material wealth of the country has vanished, some across her borders. The government is operating on a deficit budget. Not only the luxuries, but many of the necessities of life as well, are being imported from foreign countries, thus shattering the very foundations of the economic structure of the country. There are no mines or factories, but there are minerals and human resources to create mines and factories. There are uncultivated lands and human resources to make Nepal self-sufficient in the necessities of food, shelter, and clothing. If this hapless and degenerate reliance on foreign countries for our economic needs is to cease, the people must be educated.

The people of Nepal today live a humdrum life. Ninety-eight percent are culturally illiterate. They have no conception of the vast cultural heritage of our country. For them, the field is fallow and uncultivated. The nature of the present meager economy provides very little leisure time, but culture now plays too small a part in the limited entertainment of most of our people. Changes in these conditions can come about only through education.

Thus, the broad purposes of primary education may be summarized:

1. To wipe illiteracy from the face of the land
2. To provide a minimum fundamental education for the majority of the nation's youth
3. To provide a foundation for the higher education of a small group who will take the positions of leadership in the next generation or two
4. To provide satisfying, enriching, properly directed development of children through their most formative years, that they may become wholly effective citizens
5. To provide for the political, economic, and cultural regeneration of Nepal

Objectives of Primary Education

The foregoing discussion has dealt with the broad purposes of education, particularly at the primary school level. How, then, can we best realize these purposes? Every system of education has goals or objectives; in Nepal, the objectives of the various systems now existing have been conceived on something

less than a national basis. They have not been directed towards the solution of our broader national problems, the elimination of our difficulties and the reshaping of the nation.

The objective of our national system of primary education should be oriented in the broad purposes laid out above. They should be to help the child:

1. To develop competencies in the basic skills of communication, including language and mathematics
2. To develop civic competencies—attitudes of responsibility and cooperation, appreciation of our struggle for democracy and the contributions of our national heroes, understanding of the working of democracy, skills in civic participation, a feeling of national unity and solidarity, a desire for self-sufficiency and willingness to help oneself, etc.
3. To develop economic competency—ability to earn a living on an increasingly higher scale in order to improve one's own conditions and contribute to the national welfare
4. To develop aesthetic competencies—the appreciation of art and culture, music, dancing, literature, and folklore
5. To develop personal competencies—good mental, emotional, and physical health, and moral and spiritual values
6. To discover latent talents and abilities that when developed will enable the individual to make his maximum contribution to the general welfare of society
7. To develop broad understandings of life, the world, its environment, the universe, etc. to enable the child to probe into unsolved mysteries and the unknown, so as to develop a spirit of inquisitiveness, research, open-mindedness, and a willingness to experiment
8. To develop a desire for leisure time, and knowledge and practice in the effective use of it

Although these objectives are not intended to be all-inclusive, they suggest the emphases to be stressed in primary education. Their full attainment is perhaps a dream, but they point the way to what the Commission believes will be a better system of primary education, and hence a better Nepal.

General Structure of Primary Education

Five years has been suggested in the previous chapter as the period for primary education. The Commission does not believe that five years is adequate to accomplish the purposes and to achieve the objectives of primary education outlined above, but the limited financial resources for education in Nepal at the present time necessitate a compromise between the educational ideal and the financial practicum. It is hoped that the five years may eventually be extended to six or even seven years.

The Commission believes that primary education should be *free and compulsory* for all boys and girls between the age of six and twelve. Free education is an immediate possibility through the introduction of local assessment or taxation, or voluntary contributions, but compulsory education cannot be enforced until some 40,000 to 60,000 teachers have been trained. In the meantime, it is only hoped that there will be enough classrooms for those who freely desire education.

The primary school should have graded standards. Pupils should be grouped into grades or classes on the basis of ability, social development, and physical maturity. Many schools will have enough pupils to have a separate teacher for each grade; others will perhaps have only one or two teachers for all five grades. In this case the teacher will have to combine groups of children whenever possible (e.g. sports, arts, music, crafts, etc.) to have sufficient time to develop all phases of the curriculum for each grade level.

"One-room" schools are quite common in the sparsely settled rural areas of other countries and can be quite satisfactory if the pupil-teacher ratio is not excessive (maximum 30: 1). Children learn as well in mixed groups as in more homogeneous groups if the teacher concentrates on "teaching children" rather than "covering textbooks." If education is conceived as guided living, the one-room school has certain advantages because it encourages informal, practical learning. Children of all ages can learn to work any play together. They can share experiences, teach each other, and otherwise develop a closer community of living than is possible in larger schools. The Commission believes that one-room (or two-room) schools should be encouraged where villages are scattered and the population is sparse. It further believes, however, that economy demands "consolidated" schools, i.e. a school for several villages combined, where the walking distance is not over half an hour or so. The larger school provides a broader base for financial support and builds strength in the school and communities by uniting them.

The Commission assumes that all primary schools will be *co-educational*, and hopes that the number of girls in attendance will be equal to the number of boys, for girls are homemakers and citizens and need education as much as boys. It is further suggested that as rapidly as possible the practice of segregation of boys and girls by seating arrangement, in play activities, and in other educational activities be discontinued.

The climate of Nepal makes it possible to have school the year round in most parts of the country except for seasonal demands on the children for labour.

Although many holidays are recognized, the Commission believes that 200 days per year of schooling, exclusive of holidays, should be considered the minimum. The present practice of five days per week with one half day additional for community service activities is sound and should be continued.

There is ample evidence that children can enjoy without tiring four to six hours of schooling per day if the programme is properly planned. Therefore, the Commission suggests a four or five hour schedule for the primary school grades.

The Commission also believes that punctuality and regularity are virtues that should be stressed in school, and that economy demands them in the attendance of children. With hundreds of children waiting for admission, fairness to them demands full attendance of enrollees except for personal illness, or death or illness in the immediate family.

The Curriculum

The content of the curriculum must be adapted to the culture and needs of the people. Present patterns of living in Nepal demand a high degree of self sufficiency on the part of the individual and on the part of the village. On the other hand, the curriculum must not encourage isolationism, because future transportation and communication systems will shrink distances in Nepal as they have throughout the world, and provide for greater exchange of goods, services, and culture.

Also, at the present time children take on the responsibilities of earning a living at an early age, and secondary education will be available to only a very few children. Therefore, the primary school must assume some responsibility for general vocational training. The curriculum cannot provide training in specific skills, but it must introduce the basic crafts because 85% of our people depend upon them for a living. Also the primary school curriculum must develop the traits that make up a wholesome personality and sound character, which are essential to vocational success and cooperative endeavor in any field of work or activity.

To meet the purposes and objectives of primary education in terms of the present culture and needs of the people, the curriculum must provide learning experiences in the following areas, common and compulsory for all children:

1. Social studies—how mankind lives
2. Science—nature study, health, and physiology
3. Language—mother tongue, leading to Nepali
4. Arithmetic—fundamental processes and skills
5. Crafts
 - a) Feeding ourselves—growing, preserving, and cooking food
 - b) Housing ourselves—shelter and accessories
 - c) Clothing ourselves—growing, preparing cloth, and making garments
6. Aesthetic arts
 - a) Fine arts—painting, drawing, sculpturing, etc.
 - b) Music and festivals

- c) Folk-dancing
- d) Literature
- 7. Personal development
 - a) Physical training
 - b) Moral and spiritual training

It should not be assumed that these experiences need to be unrelated or provided as separate "subjects." Indeed, many of them cannot be segregated. For example, a study of the "village water supply" has both scientific and social aspects. It also provides an opportunity to practice skills in arithmetic, language, fine arts, and other subjects. It is closely related to "feeding ourselves," keeping our clothes clean, certain festivals, irrigation, etc. The Commission believes that primary education should be highly integrated, and that insofar as possible the experiences should be organized around broad, central themes or units which may be studied for three to six weeks or longer, and which involve as many different types of activities as possible.

To continue the illustration a little further—along with the study of the science of clean water, children can investigate methods of village cooperation to improve or increase the supply of water if needed, and water supply in other parts of Nepal and other countries of the world. They can paint or draw scenes illustrating unsanitary and sanitary wells, or model from clay an ideal well arrangement. They can calculate the amount of water needed for domestic use and for irrigation, capacity of containers, etc. They can discuss the importance of boiling drinking water and dish-washing water, the effect of water on digestion, etc. They can prepare simple songs, dances, and other festival activities to celebrate a new well or other events. They can write stories about the village well ; they can discuss etiquette at the well. In this way the many activities of learning take on significance and meaning, become practical and useful. Skills and understandings of the type suggested above have value if developed functionally, but are merely academic hurdles if taught separately and out of relationship to other learning.

The outline above and the discussion of curriculum content that follows should be considered as guides to the scope of the curriculum, not the organization. The latter should be developed in suggestive form by qualified primary school teachers and experts, and made available as a guide or manual for all primary schools.

Social studies experiences should be centered around the social activities of mankind, especially those naturally engaged in by children. They should emphasize cooperative, constructive behavior among children and adults. They should develop desirable social attitudes that promote community living. They should promote understandings of their own and other cultures. They should develop appreciations of the democratic way of life and the responsibilities of democracy.

To accomplish these objectives, the Commission suggests the following emphases:

Grade I Life in school and at home

- Grade II Life in the neighbourhood
- Grade III Life in the region—the valley, the hills, or the Terai
- Grade IV Life in the other parts of Nepal
- Grade V Life in the outside of Nepal

These themes provide for the gradual expansion of the child's vision from his immediate environment to as broad a world outlook as possible for him to comprehend. They move from the immediate to the remote, from the concrete to the more abstract. These themes further provide integrating bases for developing the skills of other subjects. For example, a study of life in the neighbourhood offers opportunities to understand science, nature study, and health, and to practice skills by painting or drawing scenes of the village, by learning to use money, by speaking and writing about incidents observed in the village, and by reading stories of village life.

Science experiences too offer opportunities for integrating learning activities from other phases of the curriculum. Science in the primary grades should emphasize the simple phenomena of nature that surround the child. It should offer simple explanations for the creation of the earth and universe, weather, geology, etc. It should capitalize on children's love of animals and the great outdoors, and their natural curiosity. Science experiences should include a simple study of the human body and the environmental conditions that affect its health. They should emphasize personal hygiene, home and village sanitation. They should promote inquisitiveness, open-mindedness, inventiveness, and a respect for science in contrast to superstition.

To satisfy these objectives, the Commission suggests the following emphases:

- Grade I Personal cleanliness, pets and birds, time and seasons
- Grade II Hygienic habits, nature study, simple safety and first-aid, growing food
- Grade III Simple physiology, nutrition, weather and seasons, stars and planets
- Grade IV & V Two-year sequence of elementary general science, physiology, astronomy, nutrition, and geology.

From these general themes, broad units should be developed that open up the world of science to the child. The immaturity of the child and the lack of time prohibit a full study of these and all the other phases of science, but the most important science needs can be met and each child can be encouraged to explore further according to his interests, and on an individual basis.

Language is the most important medium of learning. The language skills and techniques are basic to group living; without them men could not live together. The effectiveness of the development of these competencies will determine, in no small measure, success in other areas of learning.

The emphasis in language should be on the communication of ideas. This involves more than mere haphazard exchange of thoughts. Every person should be able to express himself orally and in writing in a clear, forceful, organized, and

creative manner. Likewise, he should be able to interpret the similar expression of others. This requires competency in speaking, listening, writing, and reading; these in turn require skills in penmanship, spelling and grammar.

To most effectively develop these techniques and skills, there should be definite *teaching* periods for each, but there should be many times as much *practice* of them in social studies, science, and other integrated areas of learning. Children need to be taught how to form their letters, but unless there is purposeful practice, learning will be slow and meaningless. They need to know how to identify words and gain ideas from symbols, but the practice of this in reading about national heroes, about sanitation, etc., develops the habits that we desire.

Thus, "themes" in language follow the themes for social studies, science, and other subjects, especially for *practice* experiences. The Commission believes that the earlier this transition is made, the better, and that the techniques of reading and writing should be developed only in Nepali. In non-Nepali speaking areas, the first grade teacher must communicate with his pupils in the beginning in their mother tongue, but he can begin to build the Nepali vocabulary immediately. For example, the reading readiness pictures that are placed around the walls of the class-room can have their descriptive words printed in Nepali; orally the teacher can introduce the Nepali word along with its local-tongue counterpart. He can introduce Nepali words and phrases of action, such as "be seated", "stand," etc. If the first few months are devoted to building oral Nepali vocabulary and readiness to read in Nepali, children should be ready to start reading (in Nepali) by the middle of the year. Children learn new words quickly, and will often introduce them into their homes, especially if parents co-operate and encourage them. First grade teachers, also, should use as much Nepali as possible in teaching other subjects.

If this informal approach is used to build vocabulary, it is believed that many pupils will cease to be dependent upon their mother tongue by the end of the first grade; certainly from the end of the second grade the medium of instruction should be entirely Nepali. And it should be emphasized that if Nepali is to become the true national language, then we must insist that its use be enforced in the primary school. Should Nepali not be the mother tongue of the teacher then special care must be exercised that the teacher does not frequently lapse into local tongue or become indolent about encouraging first and second grade children to use Nepali as early as possible. Otherwise, Nepali, though learned, may remain a "foreign" language rather than the child's basic, thinking language. Local dialects and tongues, other than standard Nepali, should be vanished from the school and playground as early as possible in the life of the child.

The Commission has considered the fact that some children may wish to learn to read and write other languages which contain a wealth of literature, such as Hindi (which is the mother tongue for some), or English. It has considered the advisability of suggesting these as "optional" subjects in the primary school, but has rejected this possibility for the following reasons:

1. It is contemplated that for the next few decades only a very limited number of children will go on to high school and college and thus have any practical use for additional languages.

2. The study of a non-Nepali local tongue would mitigate against the effective development of Nepali, for the student would make greater use of it than Nepali — at home and in the community — and thus Nepali would remain a "foreign" language. If the younger generation is taught to use Nepali as the basic language, then other languages will gradually disappear, and greater national strength and unity will result.
3. There is adequate research evidence to show that *most* children cannot learn several languages well; yet if Hindi and English were offered, many parents would feel that their children should study them as evidence of erudition, even though they had no practical value.
4. The limited amount of time and the tremendous burden placed on the primary school curriculum by other factors do not justify the inclusion of additional languages. (In some countries, 40% of the school time is devoted to teaching as many as three or four languages. If we accept the goal of mass education, such extravagance cannot be justified on any grounds.)
5. A poorly taught foreign language is worse than not teaching it at all. There simply is not enough primary school teachers qualified to teach foreign languages, nor could they qualify in the short time allowed for their training by the programme envisioned by the Commission.
6. Additional languages may be introduced from the sixth grade. By this time Nepali can be firmly established, and written Hindi can be quickly learned by those whose mother tongue is Hindi. English or Sanskrit can be studied by those who desire it.

The Commission has considered this problem carefully, and has been guided not only by psychological and educational considerations, but the desires of the government, and the will of the people as indicated in Part I. It wishes to resolve the country's language problem quickly before it grows worse or is aggravated by the spread of multilingualism in the primary school.

Arithmetic experiences in the primary school should be confined to the essentials of everyday life. Mathematics is another form of communication and thinking, and should be taught as such. Mathematical symbols are shortcuts in expression and enable us to think in quantitative terms. Simple arithmetical usage requires ability to add, subtract, multiply, and divide whole numbers, fractions, and decimals. Practical applications of these processes require familiarity with coinage, weights and measures, mensuration, daily time, the calendar, simple interest, etc. In addition to these processes, the student should learn to think quantitatively, make estimates, use calculation shortcuts, develop speed and accuracy, and appreciate the place of mathematics in nature and the physical world.

The Commission suggests the following standards:

Grade I Counting and addition to 100, simple coins, weights, measures, fractions, time

Grade II Simple addition and subtraction to four digits, weights and measures, meaning of fractions, calendar, money, flat surfaces

Grade III Counting to 100,000, multiplication tables to 10, addition and subtraction, simple multiplication, short division, fractions, reduction of weights and measures and coinage, solid figures

Grade IV Compound addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of whole numbers and simple fractions ; simple decimals ; simple constructions

Grade V Four fundamental processes in whole numbers, fractions, and decimals; simple interest and percentage, simple geometry, constructions, and mensuration, personal and domestic budgeting.

Insofar as possible arithmetic should be taught in connection with other subjects requiring these skills or knowledge. Although the process, say of subtraction, may be taught as a specific skill, it will not be learned until there has been much practice, and practice opportunities of a practical nature can best be found in the many experiences comprising the rest of the curriculum. Simple surveying (measuring) may be a part of making a map of the village or estimating paddy production. Fractions may be taught through sharing an orange. Throughout, the emphasis should be on the practical uses of arithmetic.

Crafts include skills and understandings relating to the processes of feeding, housing, and clothing ourselves. It is not assumed that children can be made self-sufficient in these crafts within a five-year period, but they should satisfy these needs as much as possible. Every person, throughout the world is concerned with these phases of life, and here in Nepal, especially in the villages, the people are largely dependent upon themselves for meeting these needs. Even if one buys cloth instead of spinning and weaving it, he must know how to select good quality and material suited to the purpose for which it is to be used. Even if he is to employ help in construction of his home, he should know correct practices in order to get full value for his investment.

Therefore, the crafts should develop competencies in the degree necessary for self-sufficiency, understandings and appreciations of good workmanship and quality in products and services to be purchased, aesthetic attitudes leading to refined living, a sense of the dignity of labour, habits of cleanliness and efficiency in these functions of living. The primary school alone cannot give complete training for farming, carpentry, bricklaying, tailoring, cooking, etc., but some experiences in these areas are essential to improved living.

Some of these experiences especially those leading to understandings of how other people of the world carry on these processes, can best be integrated with social studies; some, such as those involving plant and animal life, with science. Others, especially the skills, will involve related projects and activities. At some points in the curriculum these several crafts may be fused together, as for example, the growing and spinning of cotton and wool, or the growing and cooking of rice. At other points, they may develop completely separately. The outlines that follow are intended to suggest emphases only:

Grade	Feeding Ourselves	Housing Ourselves	Clothing Ourselves
I	Simple gardening, pets, food cleanliness	Play house, our responsibilities at home,	Making toy dolls and animals, simple weaving, sewing yarn

		making accessories	on cloth
II	Flower and vegetable gardening, poultry raising , tending small livestock	Decorating room, making play house or store, home accessories, clay pots	Spinning, weaving, simple sewing, home accessories, yarn braiding, stringing beads
III	Grains, vegetables, raising small livestock, storing food, insects and pests	Making book covers, albums, simple furniture, toys	Sources and growing of cloth fibers, all processes, dyeing, simple garments and home accessories
IV	Land Preparation and care, manuring, grains, horticulture, livestock, food preparation and elementary cooking	Kinds of houses, making simple furniture, and home accessories, home decoration	Clothes of other people of the world, processes, sewing, quilt making
V	All Kinds of farming, livestock raising, food, nutrition, food budgeting, farm accounting	Simple house construction, simple furniture and finishing, making bricks, using bricks, wood and bamboo	Leather and other clothing materials, cloth qualities and uses, patching, darning, knitting, crocheting

These suggestions are not intended to be all-inclusive and must be adapted to the various areas of Nepal. For example, quilt-making is more appropriate in the hill regions than in the Terai; house construction of bamboo would be inappropriate for the valleys and hills.

To accomplish the aims of the crafts, each school should own or rent or have access to a plot of land large enough for raising flowers, vegetables, and small animals. It should have a supply of tools similar to those used in the area, simple equipment and tools for teaching spinning, weaving, sewing, cooking, etc. Because some of the primary school teachers may not have had adequate training in these crafts, they may need to rely on assistance from skilled craftsmen and farmers in the community. In areas served by Village Development Workers, help from these men can be solicited and the work of the school closely related to their work in the village.

The crafts provide excellent opportunities to bring the school and community life closer together. In this way, the curriculum becomes practical and a centre of community activity. Academic barriers are torn asunder and education and life become synonymous.

The Aesthetic Arts offer children an opportunity to develop a finer cultural side of life. They are intended to elevate the participant above the humdrum of everyday life, to furnish guidance for leisure time, to lift his existence above the bare necessities of life.

These experiences may be found in the fine arts, music, dancing, literature, and other forms of aesthetic expression. The emphasis should first of all be an appreciation of the beautiful and the finer motifs of life. To attain these appreciations at the highest level, the student should develop skill in as many media of expression as his talents permit, and in the absence of skill he should have understanding of the processes involved in the medium. In the fine arts, he may uncover his own talents in drawing, painting, sculpturing, or creative design in other media. In music, he may find expression vocally or by instrument.

The objectives in these aesthetic arts should support those in related areas. For example, sewing, embroidering, and knitting should be well designed and artistic; a flower garden can be a creation of beauty; colour and design in nature follow artistic principles; literature can contribute to many of the attitudes, understandings, and appreciations we desire in social studies.

No particular emphases are to be suggested for the various grades. Children of all ages like to draw, paint, sing, dance, and read. They should be encouraged in these activities to the limit of their talent. Many of these experiences can be related to festivals and holidays and seasons of the year. Children from the several grades can join together at these times to express themselves and enjoy the aesthetic emotions that are brought forth.

Personal development experiences, for the most part, permeate the rest of the curriculum. They are concerned with the physical and mental health of the child and his moral and spiritual development. Many of the learning will be concomitant outcomes of other experiences. However, there should be daily activities—physical

training, sports, and games—leading to the development of physique and general physical health. Many schools may wish to set aside a few minutes each day, too, for spiritual experiences.

High morals and character cannot be developed through a special course; they are the outgrowth of properly supervised and clean daily living. Nevertheless, they should be recognized as an important part of the primary school curriculum.

Time allotments for these various areas of the curriculum cannot be definitely fixed and will vary from grade to grade, from school to school, from community to community. The Commission suggests as a guide only the distribution of time shown in Figure 7.

Methods of Instruction

The Commission conceives education to be guided experiences in living. Children should not be forced to step into "another world" as they cross the threshold of the school. The primary school should assist children to live normal, healthy lives, centering around practical, useful activities that help to satisfy their educational needs.

Figure 7. Suggested Time Distribution

Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV	Grade V
Social Studies				
Science				
Language				
Arithmetic				
Crafts				
Aesthetic Arts				
Personal Development				

Children learn more effectively, more rapidly, and more permanently when they take an active part in the learning process. So-called "passive" learning is likely to result in passive behavior; it rarely leads to dynamic, active, self-directed behavior, or develops responsibility and leadership.

Therefore, the primary school should follow the activity or project method in which pupils are taught to identify their problems, plan and direct their solutions, and evaluate the results for themselves. Co-operative teacher-pupil planning, problematic activities, life-like projects will make the classroom a workshop where boys and girls learn by doing. Teachers should be guides, not lecturers or dictators. Learning should be individual, not *en masse*.

Thus, we might expect to find in a first grade room a hen setting on eggs and hatching chicks, a flower garden, a play-house or a play-store. We might expect all of the children to turn out to help in a village "clean-up" campaign. We might find a pupil-committee of three fifth-grade children calling on the Panchayat leader to find out how the village government operates, or the children busy preparing a single-copy village newspaper to be posted in a central place.

The Commission believes that the primary school should be a beehive of activity, each pupil or group of pupils busy at work on his or their project activities. If asked, they should know why they are doing what they are doing, and they should

be interested in their activities. If schools are less than this, they will defeat the purposes and objectives of education.

Instructional Materials

The utter dearth of suitable textbooks and other instructional materials makes it necessary for the teacher and pupils to improvise both materials and methods. The raw materials are present in every community — the boards for furniture, the straw for mats, the cloth for a blackboard, the people to tell of life in the community and elsewhere, to recite poetry, to explain civic activities, the birds and flowers and animals for nature study, the geological formations, the bazaar, the fields, the clay for modeling — all, and much more, are present to make the school and community a living laboratory of learning. Learning deals with processes, not materials, and the processes are present wherever there is life.

The Commission does not ignore the dearth of materials. It faces the problem squarely in another chapter and suggests lines of attack. But these will take time; in the meantime, teachers and pupils must face the shortage realistically and capitalize on the situation and learn to improvise and do the best they can. Certainly, there are in every community enough interesting phenomena to provide five years of purposeful learning.

Some communities now have the start of a village or school library or both, and these should be encouraged. As reading materials in Nepali become more readily available the library will play an increasingly significant role in primary education. But it would be fatal if education became "book-centered"; it must utilize materials of learning from *all* sources.

Pupil Evaluation and Progress

We have said that education is the promotion of better living and that children must be active participants in the process. We have set up certain purposes and objectives to be attained. We have suggested that children be grouped according to their age, their physical, mental, and social maturity. Children who are ready to begin to read should be grouped together for these experiences. Children of approximately the same size should be grouped together for games and sports and physical activities.

Now it is only natural that children, teachers, and parents will want to know if they are achieving their goals, and to what extent. But if we believe in well-rounded, complete education, then we must consider *all* goals. Many teachers and parents fall into the trap of checking progress only on academic goals or those that can be achieved through mental effort, because they are believed to be the easiest to measure.

The evaluation of pupil progress must include physical and social development and all aspects of mental development. The ability to think, inquisitiveness, initiative, responsibility, skills in reading charts and graphs and maps, honesty, good health, friendliness, cooperation—to name but a few of the many goals of education—are all important, perhaps more than the ability to memorize in parrot-fashion.

To measure these varied goals, more than paper tests must be used. Observation, self-rating, performance and other devices must be used, and they must be used frequently if we are to help the pupils improve. Evaluation should be continuous and records should be kept for each pupil so that he may know from time to time how he is progressing. If this is done, there is little need for the traditional "final examination" as the teacher knows in advance whether the child has progressed with the average of his group.

There may be special cases when a child becomes a total misfit with his group, mentally, physically, and socially. The only humane action is to reassign the pupil to a group in which he may become homogenous, but this should not be considered a "failure" (or "grade-skipping") unless the child has become maladjusted due to his own negligence or indolence. Thus, normally, nearly every child will progress with his group through five years of the primary school. "Failures," e. children who are not working up to capacity, will be discovered through continuous evaluation procedures before they lose too much ground, and helped before it is too late. There should be very few, if any, "failures" or "plucked" students at the end of the year.

At the termination of primary education, each pupil should be given a certificate indicating completion, and in a general way the quality of work, and a recommendation regarding future schooling plans as determined by his strengths and weaknesses.

Curriculum Planning

The Commission recognizes the dynamic nature of culture in Nepal today and the varying needs of different sections of the country. No single curriculum can be designed to meet the specific needs of each locality or of tomorrow. Therefore, the curriculum sketched in this chapter must be considered tentative, general, and minimal. It must be adapted to fit each situation, present and future.

Although the Ministry of Education should assume the responsibility for the general implementation of this curriculum and for keeping it "in tune with the times," each local school staff should be organized to make local adaptations, and each teacher should adapt it to his particular group within the general outline presented here. This may require occasional school staff meetings, teacher committee meetings, conferences with district and centre officials, and joint planning with pupils.

Summary

In summary, the Commission in this chapter has suggested that:

1. The purposes of primary education should be to
 - a. Wipe out illiteracy,
 - b. Provide minimal fundamental education for all children,
 - c. Lead the most promising pupils to higher levels of education,
 - d. Assist in the transformation of children into competent citizens, and
 - e. Assist in the political, economic, and cultural regeneration of our society.

2. The objectives of primary education should be to develop
 - a. Basic skills,
 - b. Civic, economic, aesthetic, science, and personal competencies,
 - c. Latent talents and social essentials, and
 - d. Worthy use of leisure time.
3. Primary education should consist of five years, 200 days each of four to six hours (and be extended to six or more years when national finances permit).
4. Primary schools should be free immediately and henceforth, and compulsory as rapidly as facilities can be supplied.
5. One or two-room schools should be encouraged for sparsely settled areas, but consolidated schools are preferred if the walking distance does not exceed one half hour.
6. Primary schools should be co-educational in the fullest sense — about the same number of boys and girls, non-segregated seating, etc.
7. Only illness and death in the immediate family should be considered excuses for less than 100% attendance.
8. The primary school curriculum must be geared to the actual needs of the masses of people of Nepal.
9. The scope of the primary school curriculum should include social studies, science and health, language, arithmetic, crafts, aesthetic arts, and personal development, common and compulsory for all boys and girls. Individual differences in abilities, interest's aptitudes, etc., should be provided for within a common curriculum, not by optional courses.
10. The organization of the primary school curriculum should be based on broad, integrating units, involving many pupil projects and activities.
11. The expanding themes of, social studies and science suggest many topics for integrating units.
12. Language and arithmetic are tool, or skill, subjects, and as such service the other subjects of the curriculum.
13. Nepali should be the medium of instruction, exclusively from the third grade on, and as much as possible in the first two grades.
14. No other languages should be taught, even optionally, in the primary school because: few children will have need for them, they would hinder the teaching of Nepali, parents would insist on their children taking them whether capable or not, time is needed for other more important and fundamental learning, there are not enough well-qualified teachers, and those who wish, and need, additional languages can begin them in the sixth grade.
15. Because 85% of our people rely on the basic crafts for existence, they should be developed to as high a degree as possible.
16. The aesthetic arts contribute to personal development, make life more enjoyable, and should be encouraged to the fullest.
17. Time allotments should be flexible but for the five-year period should

be approximately: social studies, 20%; science, 15%; language, 15 to 20% ; arithmetic, 10 to 15%; crafts, 10 to 20% ; aesthetic arts, 10% ; personal development, 10%.

18. Methods of teaching should be informal, based on the project or activity method, and well adjusted to children.
19. In the absence of suitable textbook materials, it is imperative that the community and its resources be utilized as a laboratory of learning.
20. Evaluation of pupil progress must be as comprehensive as the total objectives of education, all of which must be measured and recorded in appropriate records; this will reduce to a minimum so-called "failures".
21. Provision must be made for continuous curriculum planning and reorganization to meet changing needs.

Ministry of Education

CHAPTER IX

THE CURRICULUM FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Introduction

Secondary education in Nepal, for at least the next two decades, must be recognized as an intermediary step for those very few of our youth who will go to college, as a terminal program for a somewhat larger group, and as simply beyond the reach of most of the children who complete the primary school. The Commission has repeatedly favoured the target of universal primary education rather than widespread expansion at the secondary level. Nevertheless, secondary schools must be provided for as many children as possible to develop skills and leadership needed in the general improvement of the country's economy, and to provide the basic learning necessary for advanced training in the colleges.

Secondary education thus is charged with the fulfillment of several purposes, and because the facilities must be limited to the very few that can profit most by this training; it must be extremely functional and efficient. The secondary school under these conditions cannot afford to admit students promiscuously, or fail them in large number. Every child who fails in the secondary school, and every graduate who does not make his maximum contribution to the progress of his country, must be chalked up as failures of the school and the teachers who direct the work of the school.

Purposes of Secondary Education

The purposes of secondary education must be conceived in the light of these factors. They must be accepted for conditions as they exist today in Nepal ; the Commission can only hope that a more liberal definition of purposes—that will encompass a larger percentage of our young people—can come about at the earliest date.

The *first purpose* of secondary education must be to provide appropriate experiences for those boys and girls who will become the political and civic leaders of Nepal for the next generation. Presumably these youth will continue their education through college, specializing in some phase of the nation's work. They will need to be farsighted, intelligent, philanthropic and civic-minded individuals. They will need proficiency in several languages, in the art and techniques of leadership, and in some special field of enterprise. They will need wide understanding concerning the rest of the world and the role that Nepal can play in bringing about world unity. Secondary education must provide a vital link, during the crucial adolescent years, in the education of the future political and civic leaders of Nepal.

The *second purpose* of secondary education must be to provide appropriate experiences for much larger group of boys and girls who will become highly skilled leaders in the professional and economic phases of our national development. For some of these youth, the high school will provide sufficient training to enable them to serve society to their fullest potential. Others will continue their training in the colleges or in special post-high school training institutions. These youth, too, will

need intelligence and a philanthropic outlook. They will need a high degree of competence in their chosen field, and skill in sharing their competencies with others. They should have vision and the initiative to make their visions become realities. These are the youth who tomorrow will be our so-badly-needed doctors, nurses, teachers, engineers, and lawyers, our home economists, agricultural specialists, mining and lumbering experts, and industrial leaders, our economists and merchandising specialists. These are the young people who will help to determine the future of Nepal's economy.

The third purpose of secondary education must be to provide vocational training in the skills essential to a twentieth century economy. There is an increasing demand in Nepal for truly competent secretaries and clerks, for mechanic and metal workers, for workers in the building trades, for clothing processors, and other skilled laborers. These workers must come from the ranks of secondary school youth. They, too, must have general proficiencies in working with others, in communication, and civic leadership. But they must become highly competent in their chosen trade or vocation. Nepal cannot afford partly or poorly trained workers in the jobs requiring a high degree of skill. The extension of training in these skills must not weaken that provided under the present apprenticeship system. It must speed up and strengthen general training in the skills and make effective use of apprenticeship experiences in perfecting individual skills.

These three major purposes of secondary education must be supported by a *fourth purpose*, which is perhaps in the nature of a corollary or concomitant purpose. Secondary education should contribute to the advancement of the general culture of Nepal. It can increase the number of "well-educated" persons, and instill a desire for the extension of educational facilities as rapidly as financial resources permit. It can build respect for education and for teaching. It can indirectly create interest in adult literacy. The accumulating effect and increasing potential power of the graduates of secondary education over the years can become a potent force in making Nepal an "enlightened" nation.

Finally, but certainly not of least importance, secondary education must promote democratic concepts — democracy as a way of life, and the democratic form of government. Although this is a common purpose of all levels of education, the susceptibility of adolescents to idealism makes the secondary school staff a particularly crucial period for developing democratic ideals. If we fail in this purpose, at this level of education, we

fail in the major faiths of our country. Thus, although the purposes are wide and varied, the extent of facilities needed at the moment is limited. A broad curriculum must be developed to meet these many varied needs, and it will necessarily be expensive when compared with the curriculum of the primary school. But the limited number of students makes it possible to provide a good, and adequate, program in spite of the cost per student.

General Organization of the Curriculum

The above purposes suggest a wide range of needs to be met by the secondary school curriculum. It may be noted that some of these needs are common to all boys and girls who attend the high school and some are quite specific. In the second category, some are vocational needs and therefore quite essential; others are a vocational and hence more or less optional with each individual. To best meet these needs and purposes, the curriculum must include a core of common learning for all youth, and specialized learning for each student according to his or her choice of vocation and life career.

The core subjects, or common learning, of the curriculum, must include social studies, applied science, Nepali, applied mathematics, and personal-physical development. These subjects deal, respectively, with man's relationship with his fellow men, man's relationships to his environment and universe, man's communication faculties (including both language and quantitative or mathematical concepts), and man's development of his physical, mental, and moral self.

The specific vocational subjects are so many that they must be divided into major groups according to the demands in a specific community. Considering *all* of the high school communities of Nepal, it is conceivable that there will be demands for several of the following "majors" in each school (in communities having more than one high school, there should be careful planning to avoid duplication of offerings among the several schools unless the needs actually exist): pre-professional (for teaching, medicine, nursing, law, engineering, and politics); commercial (for secretaries, accountants, clerks, and government office workers); agriculture (for all phases of agriculture and forestry); industrial (for small and large industries, and mining); homemaking (for all phases of home economy); and general work leading to higher education.

The specific a vocational subjects may be some of those in the vocational majors (e.g., weaving and woodworking from the industrial group), or they may be advanced courses in the areas represented by the core subjects (e.g., western literature, economic geography, history of Europe, classical languages, technical science or mathematics), or they may be subjects developed simply because there is sufficient interest to make them worthwhile avocations (e.g., dramatics, folk dancing).

The principle subjects of each of these three broad groups now are described in more detail.

Core Subjects, or Common Learning

Social Studies include those experiences that help young people to better

understand and appreciate, and to practice, democratic relationships among mankind. Each student should be familiar with the political and economic geography of Nepal, Asia, and the rest of the world, the historical antecedents of Nepal and Asia, and significant phases of world history ; the origin, meaning, and development of culture, and the culture of different people of the world; political forms and their origins; economics of trade, industry, agriculture, and commerce; the government of Nepal in detail, and general concepts of government in other countries; community life in Nepal, social problems, religion, and other problems, that affect man's social life. Each student should develop skills in social research, meeting and solving problems, community survey, working cooperatively with others, parliamentary procedures, self-expression, self-analysis, and using maps, time-lines, graphs, charts, pictorial display, etc. to receive and express ideas. The emphasis here is not on segmented bits of knowledge to be retained for possible future use, but on the immediate day-to-day, self-directed and purposeful behavior that enable youth to become independent, resourceful, useful members of adult society.

To attain these goals, Social Studies must be organized in a sequential series of broad units from grade IV to grade X that cut across traditional subject lines such as geography, history, civics, etc. For example, a unit on "The Story of Democracy" must involve the geography of certain European countries and the United States of America ; the history of government and political movements, the biographies of King John, Joan of Arc, Patrick Henry, Mahatma Gandhi, and Nepal's democratic leaders; the Magna Charta, the American Declaration of Independence, and other great literature in the long struggle for democracy; the scientific and economic achievements of democracy; a comparative study of governments; and many other types of materials. Who can say "This is geography," or "This is history"? Social Studies that emphasize behavioral objectives result in units built around the developments of mankind, not in academically organized knowledge.

Furthermore, behavior can be modified and moulded along desirable lines only through units that permit and encourage a wide range of behavior. Pupils must live in a democratic environment if they are to become democratic—it is not enough merely to read or hear about democracy. They must plan together, direct their own activities, make community surveys, write constitutions, work on social projects, construct contour maps, write stories and plays, evaluate their own successes and failures—in short, they must experience democracy if they are to learn it. In every grade, in every unit, yes, everyday, the emphasis must be on living the kind of lives that make effective and competent citizens.

The Commission does not conceive its function to include the detailing of the various subjects of the curriculum but suggests the following themes for Social Studies (to follow, and strengthen, the themes developed in the first five grades—see previous chapter).

Grade	Theme
VI	How People Live (Food, Shelter, Clothing, Vocations, etc.)
VII	Great Men and Women Who Have Made Nepal
VIII	Life in the Countries of Asia

IX	Social, Economic, and Political Life in Nepal
X	World Culture and Government

Applied Science includes experiences that lead to understandings and appreciations in Nature's world of plants and animals, the origin and formation of earth forms, natural laws, and phenomena, the origin and physiology of man, personal and social hygiene, operation of scientific principles on man's inventions, and other practical scientific matters. But these experiences must also develop skills and habits in the utilization of these principles and phenomena of science. It is not enough to know about disease; the adolescent must daily practice the principles of sanitation and disease prevention. Furthermore, they must develop attitudes of open-mindedness, curiosity, persistence, skepticism, and respect for experimentation.

To achieve these goals, young people must live with science, must study rocks and plants and natural phenomena first-hand, must practice health habits, must experiment, and create their own solutions to their daily problems. They must investigate personally their village water supply and sanitation safeguards. They must actually disprove for themselves the myths and superstitions that abound in most primitive cultures.

Thus, once again, traditional compartments of biology, chemistry, physics, geology, etc., are inadequate bases for organizing the science program. *Applied science* does not come in such neat compartments. It consists of such broad units as "Getting the Most Nutrition Out of Our Food," "Prevention of Disease," and "Making Our Natural Resources Serve Us." Though some students may wish to study Applied Science each year in the secondary school, the Commission believes that because of the pressures of other common learning, only three years of science should be required of students. The first two years should be elementary science, the last year, advanced. Suggested themes follow:

Grade	Theme
VI	Local Environment (nature study, village sanitation, etc.)
VII	Earth and Universe (geology, astronomy, soils, etc.)
X	Advance Applied Science. (Community Hygiene, Personal Hygiene, Physical Laws, Biology, etc.)

● *Nepali* is the chief medium of communication, and the medium of instruction throughout the schools except for the first year or two in certain districts. For these reasons, and because it is the national language, high school students should be expected to develop a high degree of competence in this language. It should become their "thinking" language as well as their medium of oral and written communication.

As the basic language, the teaching of Nepali should result in proficiency in four fundamental techniques: listening intelligently, speaking fluently yet pertinently and concisely, reading rapidly and with understanding, and writing forcefully and expressively. To perfect these techniques, they must develop skill in penmanship, spelling, and grammar. In the process of developing these techniques and skills, students must become familiar with the literary heritage of Nepal and be brought into contact with modern-day writers. The importance of developing a high degree of competency in the national language cannot be over-emphasized,

because of the whole education program rests on this.

Nepali should be taught every year of the secondary school, or as long as necessary to develop competence. A minimum skills test might be used annually to determine progress of the students and to direct them into groups emphasizing composition, reading, spelling, penmanship, speaking, or literature appreciation, as the respective needs are indicated. There can be no single theme for Nepali for each year except perhaps in literature, because each year's work should stress all of the techniques and skills on a progressively higher level. Part of the literature should be selected to correlate with the work in other subjects, but much of it should be read to develop appreciation of the literary heritage, or just for the sheer joy of it.

Needless to say, Nepali should be taught by using it. Compositions should result from an expressed need to write something; speech from a recognized need to say something. Reading should have purpose. Grammatical structure should be studied to correct obstinate errors, not to show erudition with respect to grammatical forms. Spelling should be taught on a remedial basis, penmanship to develop legibility; neither should be taught equally to all students, but rather on the basis of need.

Applied Mathematics should be taught on a strictly functional basis, and only for as long a period as necessary to develop minimum competency. Here, too, a minimum skills test might be given annually to determine when the minimum competency has been attained. Presumably some students might attain this level of performance by the end of the seventh grade; others might require the full five years.

It should be noted that additional courses in higher and technical mathematics will be offered for those needing them for vocational purposes, or for personal reasons; the discussion here concerns only the common learning of Applied Mathematics. As in the case of Applied Science, the Commission suggests a minimum of three years, the first two years (6th and 7th grade) to emphasize the four fundamental skills in whole numbers, fractions, and decimals and related problems on an increasingly higher level, and a third year, to emphasize practical problems in interest, taxation, mensuration, commerce, etc. For students who have not attained minimum competency by the end of the eighth grade there should be further work offered in the ninth grade, and tenth if necessary, of a remedial nature.

As in the case of Nepali, the work should be practical and functional. Drill should be preceded by established need and should be used for remedial purposes. Problems should be drawn from life, and mathematics should be utilized in everyday experiences.

Personal-Physical Development includes all types of experiences that contribute to physical, mental, and moral well-being. These experiences should promote fine physical stature and good health, enjoyable and healthy recreation, a well balanced mental outlook, and a high sense of moral responsibility. These experiences must develop pleasing personality and strong character in Nepal's youth.

Many of the experiences of other subjects will obviously contribute to these objectives. In applied science there will be many understandings and skills concerned with physical and mental health. In literature, stories of right-doing will contribute to character building, as will the stories of the lives of national heroes from social studies. Command of language will contribute to well-balanced personality.

These experiences, to promote personal-physical development, should be organized into a course of physical training, into games and sports, into spiritual training, and into a constructive counseling, guidance programme that will provide an understanding and sympathetic faculty sponsor for each student. These experiences should be continuous throughout the five-year period, and should promote physical skills, social attitudes, and essential understandings, related to personal-physical development, on a progressively higher level. Corrective exercises should be included, but joy and relaxation should dominate physical exercise and sports and games. Character training may result more from indirect experiences than from direct ones, and other objectives may develop concomitantly as much as directly.

Vocational Subjects

Underlying vocational education there should be a carefully developed guidance programme that will provide (a) group instruction in the general or common competencies needed in every walk of life (e.g. ability to work with other people, responsibility, etc.), a general survey of vocational opportunities, how to choose a career, how to choose training for that career, how to get a job, etc., and (b) individual counseling in these and related personal problems of students. This programme should be introduced in the first year of the high school and should continue as necessary until the student is ready to get a job after leaving the school. This may take the form of a class meeting once or twice a week, or it might become a unit at different points in the social studies curriculum. It should definitely serve as a "leveler" and common ground for students pursuing different "majors."

The Pre-Professional Major should provide experiences that will prepare students for post-secondary training in teaching, medicine, nursing, law, engineering, government administration, and other professions. In all of the special work of students in this field there should be emphasis on leadership training, on a philanthropic outlook, on speech development, and other factors necessary for successful college study and professional life.

Most of these students will need advanced science courses, especially in physiology, biology, and chemistry, for nursing and medicine, physics for engineering, and general applied science for the others. It is suggested that at least one or two years of advanced science be required of these students.

Those heading towards engineering will need also advanced technical mathematics, and better than average mathematics will be needed for mastery of the advanced sciences. It is suggested that at least one year of advanced mathematics be required of all of these students, and two years for the pre-engineering group.

These students will definitely need reading (and some will need conversational) competence in Tibetan, Hindi, Bengali and English, because so much of the literature in these fields has not yet been translated into Nepali. Also, they will need higher than average competence in the Nepali language. It is suggested Tibetan, Hindi, Bengali and/or English be required of these students each of the five years and that a special course in Nepali speech be offered in the tenth grade.

Special courses in mechanical drawing, Nepali Law, Education, Nursing, etc. should be offered to provide special skills or a general introduction to the various professions, and numerous opportunities should be given to students to observe on-the-job practices in the different vocations and to actually try their hand at their chosen job. This will call for close cooperation with men and women in the community who have been successful in their professions, but these experiences will be invaluable in this pre-professional training.

Because of the dire shortage of primary school teachers and nurses, the Commission suggests that complete one-year professional programmes in these two fields be offered in the tenth grade. Following two or three years of successful practice as aids or assistants, students in these fields could then continue their respective advanced professional training at the college level. Those who enter the teaching course should also take a special course in methods of teaching adult literacy so that they may help meet this vital need.

The Commercial Major should provide experiences for students who expect to go directly into secretarial, clerical, accounting, and other commercial jobs immediately upon completing high school. Provision should be made, however, for the most able students to proceed into Business Administration courses at the college level if they wish to.

These students will need at least two years each of typewriting and stenography (shorthand), and/or two years of book-keeping, and one year of merchandising. In addition, special courses in business Nepali, business arithmetic, commercial law, advertising, etc. should be offered for those who need them.

Finally, these students will need on-the-job experience as part-time and full-time apprentices. This apprenticeship training should be considered part of the training of these students and be under the supervision of the school authorities. Only through such training, and only with full cooperation of business men and others in the community, can vocational training in the commercial field be truly functional.

The Commission suggests that most of the training in this major begin in the eighth grade and that apprenticeship training be reserved for the tenth grade.

The Agriculture Major is perhaps the most important of all of the vocational fields. It should provide experiences that will enable young men to become leaders among their people in the field of agriculture. Some of the students who complete this field will go on into the agricultural college for further training, but most of them will go directly into agricultural pursuits in the rural areas surrounding their homes.

Agriculture has already been stressed in the primary school as a means of

producing one's own food. Presumably 85% of the people of Nepal will continue to produce their own food for many years to come. This means that many students who do not intend to specialize in agriculture should have some continued experiences in the subject, if only for a vocational purposes. Even girls should continue some of these experiences from the primary school, especially in the topics of nutrition, selection, and storing of foods, raising small livestock, etc.

For those who major in agriculture, there should be a continuous five-year programme, intensifying in the last two or three years. Needless to say, the programme should be practical and a considerable portion of the time should be given to the raising of livestock, grain, and other projects in which the students themselves actually grow poultry, pigs, sheep, goats, cattle, etc. at home, having ownership and complete responsibility vested in their hands. They should have small plots of grain, vegetables, and other foodstuff under their care, both at school and at home.

Every rural high school should own or rent a substantial plot of land for agricultural purposes, and appropriate buildings and facilities for livestock raising. These facilities should be used for experimental research and demonstration purposes. They should serve for teaching the students and also as models for the adults of the area to observe and follow. There should be a close relationship between these farms and those used for demonstration purposes by the rural extension programme. These facilities make possible the functional teaching of agriculture in the secondary school and are essential to the programme.

Furthermore, these facilities must be supplemented by farm shops, greenhouses, laboratories, and libraries at the school itself. All of these facilities, including the school assembly hall, must be at the disposal of the farmers of the area as well as students. Many projects should be undertaken jointly with the boys and their fathers, thus encouraging a relationship that will do much to hold the boys on the farms and make them see that their future lies in serving the people of their village area. The entire school should be community-centered, but certainly no more so than in this field of agriculture.

The programme for agriculture should include courses in nature study, biology, botany, and for the 9th and 10th grades, agricultural science ; horticulture, livestock raising, bee and fish cultivation, forestry and similar courses according to agricultural practices of the area ; farm mechanics, mechanical drawing, surveying, etc.; and farm management, business practices, etc. These formally organized experiences should be supplemented by club activities, home projects, etc., and throughout the programme there must be a practical emphasis. As much as fifty percent of the time devoted to this major should be in the shops, laboratories, and fields, the true "classrooms" for these students.

The Commission suggests that no other special courses be offered for those who might go to the agricultural college, and that, through guidance and counseling, an effort be made to control the number moving into advanced study to prevent "white-collar" unemployment in this field. It is believed that students, who are unusually successful in this high school course as described above, will be quite ready for college work without special preparatory courses. Presumably these

students would "elect" from the general curriculum, courses in speech, etc., which would better fit them for college in a general way.

The Industrial Major should include experiences that will fit boys for the various industrial trades found in the area served by the school. In most areas there will be need for tradesmen to build houses and other buildings, or to manufacture material for their construction. The skills of the carpenter will vary from the Terai to the hills, and the brick making and brick laying trades will be found only in certain areas. Charpais will be made of wood in some areas, of bamboo in others. There will be a demand for clay pots in some areas and copper or brass in others. Only in Kathmandu and certain Terai towns will there be a demand, at present, for auto-mechanics. But in most areas there will be a need for blacksmiths or metal-workers.

Because of these varying practices and demands, it is difficult to suggest a pattern for experiences in this major. A survey of local needs will have to be made and courses offered accordingly. Obviously, the school cannot hope to meet every need; it cannot afford to train one or two potters anymore than it can afford to train only one or two in secretarial work. Furthermore, the school must incorporate apprenticeship training into its programme so that the tradesmen of the area lend their craft experience, and the programme becomes practical.

It is suggested that introductory work be taught in the 6th and 7th grades to all students in this major. This work should be selected in terms of common needs in the community and should be designed to develop general mechanical and industrial skill. For example, some simple wood-working or metal-working offer elementary training opportunities if they are common to the area. Students can learn the use and care of tools, and gain mechanical skill (or be redirected into another major if found to be lacking in skill). Or a general crafts course, including some wood-working, some metal-working, some pottery, some drawing and painting, some sculpturing, etc. might be offered these during two years. An effort should be made to discover specific and special skills and aptitudes as a basis for recommending specialization for the last three years.

For the 8th, 9th, and 10th grades, the school should offer several specialized programmes according to local need. For example, there might be three years of carpentry and cabinet making, or of ceramics, or of masonry and brick work, or of cloth making, dying and printing, or of other small-industry trades of the area. In addition, there might be courses in business relations, accounting, and management in the 10th grade for students with managerial promise.

Fundamental to all of these courses is apprenticeship training, which might begin on a limited scale in the 9th grade and develop on a more extended basis in the 10th grade. This training should be kept under close supervision of the school to insure maximum learning experiences and minimum exploitation of the students' labor.

The Home-Making Major will appeal mostly to girls, and where separate schools for boys and girls exist, may not be offered in the boys' school. However, because boys will be partners in homemaking, there are certain experiences that should be included in their programme; these might be included in social studies, science, mathematics, etc. in boys' schools.

For girls, the Homemaking major should include experiences that, first, will make them better homemakers, and second will help them to make other women better homemakers. These should include all of the skills and understandings required to convert raw cotton and wool into finished clothing, raw grains and foodstuffs into tasty edible food, and the bare walls of a house into a comfortable livable home, to maintain good mental and physical health in the family and care for illness and accidents when they occur, to care for babies and bring them through childhood to successful adult citizenship.

It is suggested that the competencies of food, clothing, and shelter be emphasized in the 6th to 9th grades, that those of health and baby care be stressed in the 8th and 9th grades, and that during the 10th grade, the girls be encouraged to take up the professional courses in Nursing, or Primary School Teaching, or a special one-year course for Home Extension Workers. This latter course should include techniques of working with adults, methods of giving demonstrations, organization of adult groups, advanced work in food, clothing, and shelter, etc. Graduates of this course presumably would work as Home Extension Aids, and after some experience might enter the Home Science College for further training.

Those who enter Teaching or Home Extension Work should also take a course in methods of Teaching Adult Literacy so that they will be prepared to do their part in eradicating illiteracy from the villages.

There should also be provision for those girls who do not wish to enter any of these three professional fields. Some may wish to go directly into marriage and the business of making a home. Others may wish to move into a liberal arts college, or specialize in fine arts, or take up another career. Adjustments should be made for these girls on an individual basis in order that they may serve both themselves and society to best advantage.

The General College Preparatory Major should be used by those students who have the ability and are bent on going to college, but who have not decided on their field of specialization. Many of these students will go to a liberal arts college and perhaps decide on a specialty at that time. Although there should be provisions for careful career guidance and counseling in all fields, it is of special importance here. Provision should be made for transfer from this major to others at any time the student becomes confident of his career choice.

The major should include general experiences fitting the student for college and, insofar as possible, transfer to a specific career field. It should include general science, leading into chemistry and physics; general mathematics, leading into algebra, geometry, and trigonometry; one or two languages in addition to Nepali; general social studies, leading into world history and world economic geography; and electives from the a vocational group of studies. The advanced and more technical subjects should be offered in the 9th and 10th grades, the general subjects earlier, to ease possible transfers to other majors.

Additional Majors may be developed for all of the Nepal high schools, or for specific schools as the need arises. As the term "vocational" implies, these majors should be designed to fit the student for a job or career, and/or for further training in his chosen field of endeavor.

Vocational Subjects

The vocational subjects are intended to supplement training in general and vocational education. They should serve individual purposes on an elective basis. Some students may select courses to fill in leisure time, some because they want the courses to supplement a particular vocational choice, some because they are essential to preparation for college, some simply because they are interested in them.

Thus, in the teaching of these vocational subjects, the teacher must be aware of the many different purposes for which the courses have been chosen. For example, one student who elects a course in painting will desire skill-perfection to enable him to become commercially competent; another will desire only the enjoyment that comes from painting. The standards of achievement in these courses should be flexible enough to meet these varying demands.

The Commission believes that most high schools will find a demand for many of the following courses: five years each of English, Hindi, and Sanskrit; two to five years each of painting, sculpturing, drawing, ceramics, leather-craft, light metal-craft, weaving, and general design; two to five years each of instrumental music, vocal music, music appreciation, and folk dancing; and one or two years of literature appreciation, forensics, journalism, and dramatics. In addition, certain courses included in some of the vocational majors should be open to students who wish to elect them and have the required ability, e.g., chemistry and physics, world history and world economic geography, mechanical drawing, cooking, methods of teaching adult literacy, etc.

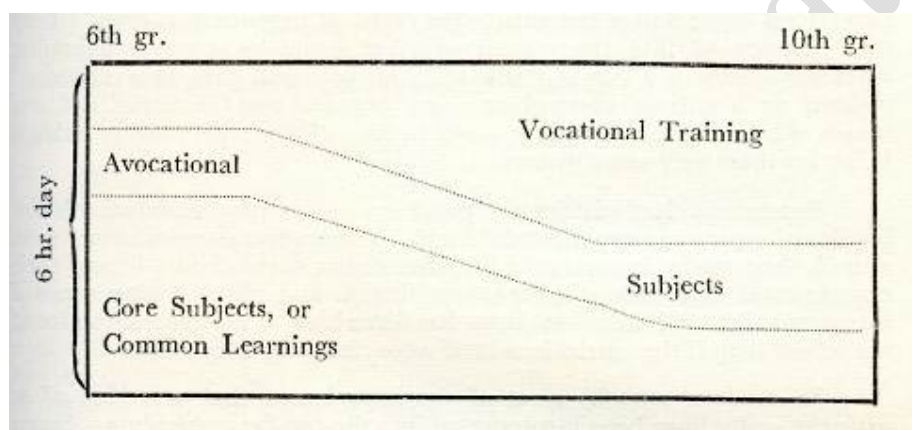
Some schools may offer courses in this group that in other schools would be extracurricular activities, e.g., various games and sports activities, school plays, debates, etc., publishing the school magazine, musical and cultural programmes. Regardless of how these vocational experiences are offered, their chief purpose should be to help students round out their other educational experiences.

Scheduling the Curriculum

Preparation of the schedule, or time-table, for the school is the responsibility of the Headmaster and his staff, but the Commission believes that it should be predicated on certain minimum standards. The Commission, recognizing that ten years for common schooling is two years less than in many other countries, believes that the secondary school in Nepal should operate: not less than 200 full days per year exclusive of holidays; not less than five days per week with an additional half day or more for community service and social work; and not less than six hours per day of actual supervised educational activity, exclusive of recesses, Tiffin, etc. The Commission further suggests that the periods of the school day be not less than fifty minutes in length, but that longer periods be encouraged if the experiences of several related subjects can be integrated into larger units. For example, and especially in the lower grades of the high school, science and social studies can be integrated in such units as "Community Health," "Origin and Structure of the Earth," etc. Composition and literature can be integrated with either social studies or science or both. Much of the work in agriculture, or in industrial courses, or in

homemaking, can be integrated into comprehensive units. These efforts should be encouraged, and longer, or even double periods, provided for them.

The programme of an individual student should include three types of courses with a gradually shifting emphasis from the common learnings to the vocational courses as suggested in the diagram below:



Subject-wise, a typical student's programme would include the following subjects:

6 th Grade	7 th Grade
Nepali I	Nepali II
Social Studies I	Social Studies II
Applied Science I	Applied Science II
Applied Mathematics I	Applied Mathematics II
Personal-Physical Devel. I	Personal-Phys. Development II
One Vocational Subject	One Vocational Subject
One Vocational Subject	One Vocational Subject

8 th grade	9 th grade	10 th grade
Nepali III	Nepali IV	Social Studies V
Social Studies III	Social Studies IV	Applied Science III
Applied Mathematics III	Personal Phys. Devel. IV	Personal Phys. Devel. V
Personal Phys. Devel. III	Three Vocational Sub.	Three Vocational Sub.
Two Vocational Sub.	One Avocational Sub.	One Avocational Sub.
One Avocational Sub.		

Adjustments would necessarily have to be made in the programmes for individual students and for all students in certain majors. Programing would also be affected by the amount of integration developed in the various courses and majors. These details should be further developed, and guidance should be offered, in a

manual to be distributed by the Ministry of Education, but the final programming must be left to each school for each individual student.

Extracurricular Activities

Extracurricular activities consist of those experiences held under the supervision of the school but outside the realm of organized courses. They were introduced into the schools of other countries as means enlivening what was otherwise a very dull school life for boys and girls, as a means of making an academic curriculum more practical and functional, and as a means of bringing the curriculum closer to life. They exist in many schools today for these very same reasons.

Extracurricular activities also provide a medium for introducing learning situations on an experimental basis. If they prove successful and meet a need, they can be incorporated into the regular curriculum; if not, their experimental trial through the more flexible and informal programme of extracurricular activities has been less disturbing to the general routine of the school than if the curriculum itself were changing frequently.

In modern schools, most of the experiences that we think of as extracurricular have been incorporated into the regular curriculum. Sports are part of the physical education programme; the school magazine is prepared and published in a regular class in journalism or in the language class as a special project; debating, reciting, etc. are part of a class in forensics, or speech, or language; cultural programmes are special projects of courses music, dramatics, and dancing. In this type of organization, these activities have dignity and status. They are available to all on an equal basis and there is time in the regular school programme for everyone to participate.

One caution is necessary, however. Extracurricular activities have always been characterized by a high degree of students planning and control of the activities and projects undertaken. Regular curricular experiences should be dominated by the same characteristics, too, but sometimes they are not. Certainly we must avoid making extracurricular activities dull, routine-ridden, unreal, uninteresting, and removed from student planning and control, by curricularizing them. If they merely become teacher-dominated academic exercises, they had much better be left as extracurricular activities.

Ideally, debates, drama, school publications, and the like should become part of the language arts programme; field-days, competitive games and sports, dancing exhibitions, scouting, first-aid, and the like should become part of the personal-physical development programme; clubs should be a part of the class work with which they are associated, e.g. a calf club would be part of the agriculture course, a social club part of social studies, etc.; community projects would become part of social studies, science, homemaking, or some other course to which the project is related. In this way, these activities can have practical value and they can give dynamic realism to the regular curriculum.

Presumably there will be some extracurricular activities in every good school, for the curriculum must be dynamic, and this can be, only if there is continuous

experimentation. Thus, some new activities would always be under trial, sometimes as part of the curriculum, sometimes as extracurricular activities. But the trend would be in the direction of curricularization of these activities.

Perhaps a major exception to this would be student government; although some schools successfully integrate this activity with social studies, others find that it operates better if set up as a separate phase of the programme. Needless to say, it is an essential part of the school life and must be a part of the democratic school environment.

Methods of Teaching

Methods of teaching, in the broad sense, refer to the function of the teacher in relationship to the curriculum. The work of the teacher can be divided roughly into two phases: planning curricular experiences and supervising the development of them in the actual learning situation. Part of teaching methods consist in getting ready to teach—(a) planning the year's work (in which the teacher must be assisted by the entire staff in joint planning, and by appropriate manuals or guides issued by the Education Ministry), (b) planning the work by broad units of perhaps two to six weeks in length, (c) planning each day's work in each class, preparing work sheets and other learning aids for students, locating materials, ordering supplies, and similar activities. Many teachers in the past have been content to substitute a textbook for this important planning, with a bookish, dull, non-functional curriculum the result. Individual differences in communities, schools, and students demand adaptations that can be made only by careful, extensive pre-planning on the part of the teacher.

This planning by the teacher should emphasize the procedures that he intends to use when he meets and works with his students; it should be flexible and amenable to change. For the first step in good teaching is student planning, and they may alter the teacher's plans. But if students are to learn responsibility, how to plan and organize to meet their life problems, they must do so by actually planning. Presumably, this planning, and sharing in group decisions starts in the first grade, so that by the sixth grade, students should be quite adept at this.

Students, within the general framework of the curriculum, should discuss and select the major topics for study, determine their objectives, identify the various problems of each topic, decide on research activities to guide their study, organize and report their findings and evaluate the results. They should plan the details of community surveys on special topics, of excursions, of contour maps to be constructed; they should decide on resource visitors to interview or invite into the school, on books to be used in their research, on how to organize their findings and evaluate their progress; they may construct classroom tests for themselves and administer and score them.

Furthermore, they should make the community their classroom. The materials of learning should be as broad as life, as extensive as the total environment surrounding the school. As pointed out above, the school should become the hub of the community. The laboratories, the shops, the library, the assembly hall, and all the rest of the facilities of the school should be used by the

entire community.

The most important task of the school is to accept children in the first grade who are almost solely dependent upon the teacher for guidance and help them to develop into independent responsible young men and women by the end of the tenth grade. This cannot be done if the teacher continues to make all of the decisions for them throughout the high school years. Students *must* plan, make decisions, yes, make mistakes, if they are to become truly effective citizens. Textbook memorization and lectures contribute very little to the characteristics needed for democracy. The high school must be a living democracy, both in class and out.

Guidance of Students

In a large multi-purpose high school, students need careful guidance by adults in the selection of their career fields and special courses, in their progress in these courses, and in personal problems. Each student should have at least one teacher to whom he feels he can turn for advice, or when in difficulty.

Every good teacher provides such guidance to a number of students of his acquaintance. His classroom philosophy is dominated by such an attitude of helpfulness. It had been said that "Education is guidance; guidance is education," meaning that good teaching and guidance are synonymous. The guidance concept (in sharp contrast to the traditional "teacher-as dictator" concept) should pervade teaching, and teachers should practice "guidance" all of the time.

In a large school, however, some students are likely to be overlooked unless there is a systematic plan by which students are assigned to faculty advisors. Insofar as possible students should be allowed to choose their advisors, but these should be definite, recorded assignments so that the headmaster knows that each student has an advisor. Generally speaking, each teacher should carry his share of advisees, but there may be reasons for exceptions. Often students continue with the same advisor from the sixth to the tenth grade.

Advisors should help students plan their educational programme at the beginning of the year, help them, with their parents, choose a career, help them on personal problems, and help them make necessary adjustments if they should be failing. The students should be encouraged to come to their advisors with their problems, but if they don't, the advisor should keep an eye on them and invite them to his office for a conference when trouble is brewing.

Student Progress

One of the most important aspects of education is the provision for normal, successful progress through school and a feeling of true accomplishment upon graduation. This can come about only when the curriculum is properly designed to meet their capacities (i.e., the content increases progressively in difficulty), and when it is in consonance with the objectives of education.

If we accept the purposes outlined in the beginning of this chapter, and if we lay stress on habits, attitudes, appreciations (responsibility, self direction,

punctuality, integrity, imagination, etc.) as well as skills and understandings — in short, if we stress the total behavior of the learner rather than his ability to memorize factual data — then there will be no problem in permitting his normal progress through school. If we conceive education to be properly guided life itself, if we set as goals the ability to work with others, to solve one's own problems, to contribute to the civic life of the community, to earn a living, to make a home — then we concern ourselves with the developing behavior of youth, not merely his academic erudition.

The normal progress of a child in school can be measured in terms of his physical growth, his social development, his emotional control, and his mental power. Who can say that one of these is less important than the others in the total growth and development of the child? All are represented by the objectives of modern education. Therefore, any system of evaluation of student progress must recognize these four factors. Examinations must measure all phases of growth, not just one. At the end of each year, and at the end of the high school programme, we must ask, "Has this student shown normal growth and development physically, socially, emotionally, and mentally?" If he is lagging in one respect, then we must ask, "What is best: shall he move ahead with his classmates, or shall we make him adjust to a new group, make new friends, and suffer the bitter defeat of what he and his classmates consider to be failure?"

There are times when it is desirable and necessary to make adjustments in class groupings. If a child is underdeveloped physically it may be best to place him with a group in which he can more fairly compete. Or if he is underdeveloped in several aspects, there should be an adjustment. In extreme cases, it may be necessary to shift the child who is not working up to his capacity (but he should first be checked for the cause of this deficiency, perhaps by a physician).

Assuming a functionally designed curriculum and behavioral, not academic, objectives, the Commission believes that there should not be higher than 3% to 5% of "failures" or adjustments per year in the average school. More than this reflects on the teachers and those who are responsible for the educational programme. Every student failure represents the failure of one or more adults.

Student evaluation must be as broad and comprehensive as the total objectives of education. We must measure not only the development of worthwhile skills and understandings, but physical stamina and strength, character, personality, emotional adjustment, friendliness, cooperation, fairplay, and a host of similar objectives. In the absence of objective instruments for measuring these, we must resort to observation, conferences, medical examinations, self-rating, and other devices. On the progress report form, all of these objectives must appear, and continuous assessment records should be kept cooperatively by the teacher and the student, so that at any time each knows the status of the student's development.

Within the philosophy of modern education outlined here there is no place for '*final examinations*' in the sense commonly accepted in some Asian and European countries. If such an examination were to be given, it should be as comprehensive as the objectives of education and should give equal weight to physical, social, emotional, and mental development and it should measure mental

power in contrast to memorized data. But if there has been continuous assessment and frequent reporting of progress throughout the years, then all the information is known that could be had by a comprehensive final examination.

To systematize student progress accounting, schools in the USA have adopted a "*credit*" system. Each subject studied successfully for one year counts as one "credit." Once the student has "passed" his subject, he is given credit for it and when he accumulates the normal number of credits that can be earned during his high school years, he is given a diploma. Applying this principle to the secondary school curriculum outlined in this chapter a student might be expected to successfully complete six or seven credits per year and receive his diploma at the end of five years when he had completed 30 to 35 credits.

With this system, a student could be asked to repeat one subject without repeating the entire grade, or if necessary take six years to complete the programme instead of five. Students should not be allowed to use this system to accelerate abnormally their progress through school, for this system provides an accounting only on mental development, not on the other aspects of growth.

The elimination of the final examination does not suggest lower *standards*. If anything, they must be even higher, especially in terms of the kind of behavior and growth we have been discussing. Each student should be expected to work every day to his fullest capacity; anything short of this should be considered failure! But the Commission believes that with the kind of curriculum and methods it has advocated here, students will want to work to capacity, that they will be interested, keen participants in the educative process, and that there will be very few failures and very little retardation in growth.

It is hoped that the teachers and headmaster will be in a position at graduation time to indicate whether they think the student could benefit by further and higher education, and that the colleges and post-secondary schools will accept such recommendations for admission to the higher institution. If the colleges wish, they may give special examinations, but these should be used chiefly for classification and grouping of students in their first year college classes.

Continuous Curriculum Improvement

Before closing this chapter, something should be said for a programme of continuous curriculum improvement. A changing world demands a dynamic curriculum and continuous adaptations to meet local conditions. The teachers who come in daily contact with youth and know their needs and problems are in the best position to make these changes. Therefore, the Commission suggests that in each school the staff should be organized to give systematic attention to curriculum change and improvements. This will require committees, perhaps monthly or fortnightly meetings, special bulletins, etc. Suggestions emanating from various schools can be coordinated by the district educational officer and by headmasters at frequent gatherings.

Summary

In summary, the Commission has suggested that:

1. The purposes of secondary education should emphasize the training of civic and political leaders, professional men and women and leaders in the economic life of the country, and skilled office workers and craftsmen in industry; and should contribute to the general culture of the country and the development of democratic ideals and concepts.
2. The secondary school curriculum should recognize three types of needs: Common learning, vocational skills, and vocational pursuits.
 - a. The common learning's, or general education, should include social studies, applied science, Nepali, applied mathematics, and personal physical development, for all students.
 - b. Vocational education should include "majors" in pre-professional training, commerce, agriculture, industry, homemaking, and general college preparatory work, each student selecting one major.
 - c. A vocational education, or optional subjects, should include foreign languages, fine arts and handicrafts, music and folk dancing, practical language arts, and certain courses from the general and vocational groups, to be elected by students as they wish, but not to consume more than 1/7 of their time.
3. The experiences of the secondary school curriculum should be organized around broad, functional "units" that cut across traditional subject lines.
4. In vocational education, provision should be made for careful guidance of students into appropriate career areas and for transfer from one major to another when necessary to correct errors in career choices.
5. Vocational education should be based on the actual vocational needs of the community, should include understandings and skills, and should incorporate apprenticeship training into the programme whenever possible.
6. Vocational courses should provide a means of meeting individual differences of students in ability and interests, of rounding out the individual programmes of the students in various careers, and therefore, with appropriate teacher guidance, should be elective.
7. The secondary school curriculum should be scheduled for at least 200 days per year, 5 to 51 days per week, 6 hours per day, 50 minutes per period, with a gradually shifting emphasis from general education to vocational education as students progress from the sixth to the tenth grade.
8. Extracurricular activities should be curricularized (i.e., made part of the regular curriculum) insofar as possible, with the possible exception of student government and activities introduced on an experimental basis.
9. Methods of teaching should follow modern principles of psychology and emphasize student sharing in planning and directing classroom activities, a wide range of direct life experiences, an educational environment as broad as the life of community, and learning materials and aids as varied

as the ingenuity of teachers and students can make them.

10. Teachers should be "guides," not "dictators," for the students, and each student should have an assigned faculty advisor to counsel him individually whenever necessary.
11. Because student progress through school is a continuous process, enveloping physical, social, and emotional, as well as mental, growth, there should be continuous assessment of progress on all objectives, not only academic achievement ; this would eliminate the need for a "final examination," and "failures" should be reduced to not more than 3% to 5% per year.
12. A "credit" system, by which each course successfully completed is "credited" to the student, should be used to encourage greater flexibility in programming, better recognition of individual differences, and simpler college admission procedures.
13. Provisions should be made for continuous curriculum study, improvement, and local adaptation by each school staff.

CHAPTER X

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION Introduction

The National Education Planning Commission has, from the very beginning, been alive to the need of planning for higher education. Perhaps in no other aspect of its work has there been more unanimity. All agree that a national system of education, to be really comprehensive and complete, must incorporate within it a well-thought-out plan for university education.

There has been a growing, though belated, realization among the people in Nepal that there must be a national university. To go without a university is neither in keeping with the dignity of an independent country nor consistent with the spirit of the times. Every year, hundreds of students trail down to various Indian Universities to seek higher education, and this has caused considerable inconvenience and expense to them. In addition, many students are sent to these universities on government scholarships, thus making a financial drain on the government. So long as there is no university, Nepal will always suffer from a dearth of leaders in various walks of life. We need administrators, doctors, engineers, lawyers, professors, etc., and it is futile to hope that we shall have enough of them by training them in Indian Universities. Moreover, if today there is a lack of adjustment between the needs and claims of the people and the knowledge which our administrators undoubtedly possess, it is also because their knowledge is keyed to a different time altogether.

For these and many other reasons, the need of a university was felt even in the old regime, and some serious thought was given to the matter.⁸ In the new

⁸ This is not the first study of the needs for a national university in Nepal, nor the first attempt to start a university. It was in the months of August, 1948, that a conference was held at Saraswati Sadan under the chairmanship of the Director General of Public Instruction to organize a university for Nepal. A commission consisting of 25 members was formed to prepare a plan for the establishment of the university. This was done in accordance with the announcement made by the prime minister in his speech of accession. The first meeting of the commission was held after four days at Saraswati Sadan with the following agenda:

- The type of university—whether affiliating or unitary and teaching as well; whether it should originally be suited to the tradition and culture of the country or imitate other universities.
- The subjects to be taught in the university.
- The medium of instruction and examination.
- Co-education.
- Organization for research.

A residential university was recommended by the commission. The commission met again after another four days. English was suggested as the medium of instruction and examination for at least ten years more. In the meantime, books in the Nepali language should be published in order to meet the needs of the university. The ultimate aim should be the recognition of Nepali as the medium of instruction and examination. It was suggested that an institution such as the Royal Academy for Nepali Language and Culture should be established before long in order to ensure the publication of standard books in Nepali (Such a Royal Academy has now (1956) come into existence with a Royal Charter in response to this need.)

As regards co-education there was unanimity in favour of it at the university stage, but girls in their teens should have separate institutions for education. It was felt that the university should have a research centre, at least in one subject in the beginning if there were no possibility of providing facilities for more than one subject. The commission then formed six committees to deal with the subjects to be taught, religious and cultural education, building sites and equipment, administration, student welfare, and finance. The agriculture and engineering committees met in November of the same

political set-up, when higher educational institutions of various types have sprung up rather fast, and when no attempt is being made to coordinate the activities of these institutions a university has become an absolute necessity, if only for the purpose of coordinating the works of these various educational institutions and systems.

In view of these facts, the Commission feels that a university should be established in Nepal as soon as possible. The Commission feels that it is necessary to visualize the setting up of the university in different stages. It may not be possible, even if desirable, to establish a full-fledged university endowed with all faculties immediately, but a beginning, small but significant, must be made at once.

But even then it is necessary to fit in university education with the broad national ideals and objectives. Present Nepal graduates are somewhat out of tune with the national scene. Besides, they tend to develop certain prejudices which are very harmful to the national interest. They tend to look at Nepal somewhat unrealistically through foreign spectacles. They develop distaste for manual labour and for parental occupations. As a result, they tend to grow into chattering parasites of the country, rather than productive citizens. They are more idle theorists, arm-chair politicians, and somewhat destructive critics, than active, constructive, practical men of the world, going ahead with confidence.

This is due to the fact that, as in India, we have a system of education imposed from the outside world in which each unit dominates the next lower unit. Patna University dominates the college; the college dominates the high school, the high school the middle school, and the middle school the primary school. To remove these defects it is necessary to insure that our university be inspired by a new sense of values and an expression or an embodiment of national ideals rather than a ready-made imposition from above or a cheap import from outside.

Though evolving out of the national needs and circumstances, and aiming to express the national genius, a university is after all the highest national seat of learning. It is the university that sets the intellectual tone of the nation. In order that it may discharge this function well, it must enjoy a degree of autonomy to organize its intellectual and cultural life without any undue interference from the State.

It is the purpose of this chapter to outline a scheme for university education, to suggest purposes, functions, organization, and administration, and to face squarely the problems of finance, buildings, student housing, curriculum, accrediting, student accounting, and other related problems.

The Functions of a University

The Eastern world has been influenced both by Europe and by the United States in establishing the functions of its universities. Many universities in this part of the world have as their major function the "accrediting" of numerous colleges under

year and individual members were asked to bring their own suggestions for drafting a plan for starting an agricultural and engineering section under the university. In April, 1949, a meeting of the university commission was held and conveners were appointed for drafting the courses of study for the various examinations. No further action was taken until that of the present commission

their jurisdiction. This consists of setting the final examinations, establishing the curricula and the methods of teaching and textbooks used, and, in general, determining the tone of the institutions.

Other universities are strictly teaching institutions, and consist of groups of schools or colleges centered on one campus, organized together for strength and coordination, using a common library, often common buildings, and common athletic fields. These colleges work as a unit and the university is complete within itself. There may be university domination of the curriculum, examinations, standards, etc., but the persons who control these factors belong to the various colleges—they are not remote and set apart from the actual classroom situation as in the former case.

A third type of university combines these functions; it consists of a centrally located group of colleges plus outlying colleges, all responsible to the same university. The Commission believes that this third type holds the most promise for Nepal.

Because of geographic and population factors, Nepal now needs, and will always need, a strong centrally located teaching university. This should comprise colleges in all essential fields of learning. In addition, there are certain outlying centres which could support small liberal arts colleges and technical schools or at least the first two years of such work. Also, certain curricula (e.g. teacher education, perhaps nursing, etc.) could be offered at outlying centres as long as there is a heavy demand for training in such fields. Some of the work outside the capital city might be offered on a temporary basis by extension courses, while other work might be offered through permanently established "junior" colleges.

All of the colleges in Nepal—all post-high-school education—should be coordinated under one administrative body and directed from one centre. Thus, the Commission envisions a strong teaching university located in Kathmandu, comprising all essential colleges. In addition, each college would extend itself into the hinterlands as needed, and these extensions, whether they be temporary or permanent, would be under the supervision of the respective colleges and the university. Specifically, junior liberal arts colleges (first two years of work, or even more if the demand were great enough) might be permanently established in three or four outlying centres the teachers college might offer special courses by mobile teams that would move from town to town; the agricultural college might establish experimental farms or branch schools or special courses in outlying centres. But in each case, the work outside Kathmandu would be directed by the respective colleges of the National University.

The Commission does not believe it desirable for the University authorities to recognize independent colleges in outlying areas ; it would be better for such institutions to become field-activities of the respective colleges of the University. This, of course, should not result in indifference towards the outlying centres. They should be staffed by teachers from the central college on a rotating basis, not by inferior, younger, or lower paid persons "working their way up." If outlying colleges or courses are justified, then they deserve equal facilities and staff. Libraries must be maintained, equipment and buildings provided, etc. In evaluating a college, the field

work should be considered as carefully as the campus work.

Thus, accrediting, one of the functions of a university, assumes the role of supervising educational activities both on the campus and in the field, but through the responsible central college.

The most important function of a university is, of course, teaching. This requires a well-trained staff, competent professional leadership, a good library and other instructional facilities. The Commission recognizes the fact that a degree is no guarantee of effective teaching, but believes that a Master's degree or its equivalent should be considered a normal minimum for regular college staff members. An increasing number should have even more training in their fields of specialization. Young men and women of promise might serve as apprentice teachers with only the Bachelor's degree, but continuous upgrading of staff should be an integral feature of every college. It is the college teacher who opens new vistas of learning for the student, and only the best should be allowed to serve.

Another function of university is research. The Nepal National University should provide adequate facilities — staff time, material needs, and finance — for research for which Nepal has almost unlimited scope. Nepal is an old country with a chequered history extending over two or three thousand years. There are many dark chapters in her history which remain yet to be illuminated with the light of research. Geographically, too, Nepal is a rich kingdom. The vast expanses of the Himalayas and the Terai plains with their forests and jungles contain unpredictable secrets. In agriculture, production could be increased many times with the aid of research. Vast mineral fields may lie beneath our hills. The field of archeology has hardly been scratched, and nowhere in the world is there a richer collection of Tibetan, Chinese, Pali, Prakrit, old Nepali, and Sanskrit manuscripts written down in changing scripts through the ages.

Though strife has disfigured the history of many religions and regions, Nepal is particularly fortunate in this respect. How people of different faiths have assimilated the truth of each others' religions, how they have been living like brothers in a spirit of tolerance and mutual self-respect, is another chapter in Nepal history for research. Truly, the age of research in Nepal lies ahead, and it is the function of a university to open these sesames through research. Every college must provide for an extensive research programme that will enrich our country culturally, scientifically, industrially, financially, and in every way. The importance of this function cannot be over-stressed.

It must be remembered that a system of education that makes no room for research is likely to remain static and may, in a short course of time, grow stagnant as well. In order to develop research at the university it is necessary to have a good library and some dependable, well-equipped laboratories. They are indispensable, but even more important than a library and laboratories are the creation of an atmosphere in the university favourable for research. The scholars must be inspired with a spirit of enquiry and detachment so necessary for any research work. When these facilities are provided, many graduates with inclination for research are sure to come forward and a new atmosphere will be created. But this is not enough. Some research scholarships should also be provided for deserving scholars who cannot

afford expenses for research and also for meritorious scholars to make them feel that their talent is rewarded.

Still another function of a university is *public service*. The various colleges should cooperate in community and national programmes. They should stand aloof from politics in the mundane sense, but should stand ready to promote the social, economic, political, and cultural welfare of the country.

Specifically, the several colleges should organize speaker's bureaus to provide speakers for various functions, offer extension courses to groups who wish them, direct community surveys and similar activities if asked to do so. Staff members should write articles and books in their respective fields; some should offer concerts and other cultural entertainment. In short, the staff of the university should stand ready to serve the community and nation as public servants and as leaders in their fields. This should be considered part of their job, not something "extra" to be shunned or avoided.

Part of the function of public service will involve the establishment of junior colleges and extension centres at our outlying points throughout the country. As soon as the demand is established and facilities are made available, each college should consider the advisability of extending its work to the field. Insofar as possible every reasonable request for courses or a complete institution should be met. All of this field work, however, should be carefully coordinated and controlled by the mother college in Kathmandu. All accreditation of work by the university should be through the respective colleges, not directly. It is impossible for the Commission to foresee at this time the extent of such field work. Nevertheless, this is one of the major functions of the university, and should be fulfilled as expeditiously as possible.

Site and Buildings

One of the major problems associated with the establishment of a national university is the selection and procurement of a site and buildings. Ultimately, this task must be undertaken by a special committee or by the university officials themselves if the university is formally opened before a permanent site is selected (a procedure not unacceptable to the Commission's thinking). Too much importance cannot be attached to this task. The site and buildings will play no small part in determining the general tone of the university, the relationships between colleges, the strength of the library, the research programme, and the curricula, and the greatness of the university.

The Commission believes that insofar as possible all colleges should be clustered together on the same campus or within close proximity. This will make it possible to have a common library and hence a stronger one because expensive duplication of books can be avoided and there can be a single administrative staff. The same holds true for a single business office, a single registrar's office, unified student supervision, etc.

Perhaps the most important reason for a common campus is to permit an exchange use of courses. For example, the liberal arts college can service all colleges with language and mathematics courses, social studies, and science. The teachers college can service all colleges with psychology courses and special pedagogy courses, such

as the general nature of education, construction of audio-visual aids, etc. In this way the professional colleges can emphasize the professional aspects of their training, and the liberal arts college can provide general education for all students.

Perhaps the outstanding advantage of this arrangement, besides the economy factor, is that it gives purpose and reason to the liberal arts curriculum. Today, many students complete the B.A. degree unfitted for earning a living. Some countries have experienced serious "white-collar" unemployment because the liberal arts colleges are turning out thousands of "educated" but vocationally helpless graduates. One might even question how long Tri-Chandra College can continue with an enrollment of 600 before "white-collar" unemployment is felt in Nepal. This can be avoided if the professional colleges cluster around the liberal arts college, beckoning its resources to provide general education.

The Commission recognizes that it may be impractical to place all colleges on a single campus. For example, if the agricultural college must have livestock barns and large fields adjacent to the college, available sites may not provide such accommodations. The colleges of medicine and nursing must have access to a large hospital; can a site be found where hospital facilities can be sufficiently close?

In spite of these factors, great universities in other countries have found it possible to combine all colleges on one campus. Through flexible schedules, bus transportation, and other arrangements, distances between laboratories, fields, clinics, hospitals, and the like have been conquered. Therefore, the Commission believes that a major-effort should be made to find a site sufficiently large now, or through expansion, to accommodate all colleges.

Economy demands that such a site have some buildings on it if possible. It should be cheaper to purchase existing buildings than to erect new ones. With the number of large palaces to be found in Kathmandu, it might be hoped that some kind philanthropist with a deep regard for education and the future of his country might endear himself to his fellow countrymen and to posterity by donating a building and site. Perhaps his neighbours would further his effort by donating adjacent lands and buildings to present, in their entirety, facilities adequate to house a complete university.

• The Commission believes that for some time to come the strength of the university at *Kathmandu* should be held co 1500 to 1800 students. This assumes a more careful selection of students and a more economical elimination of the unfit so that the actual number graduating each year would approach 95% those completing the degree programme or taking the final examination. This can be brought about through an academic credit system discussed in more detail below. It also assumes that many additional persons will be trained in outlying "junior" colleges and through extension courses, many of the latter at sub-collegiate level. Even this number will tax our resources in finance and qualified personnel for staffing the institution. In certain fields, where there is great demand for trained persons — e.g. teaching, nursing, village development workers — additional numbers can be trained at outlying centres. Furthermore, the Commission recognizes the possibility of students living at home and at "boarding houses" as they do in western countries, thus reducing the hostel facilities needed. Also, with a centrally located library properly

equipped with adequate study facilities, a greater amount of independent study as found in certain countries, an eight or nine hour class-day which would give greater utilization of classroom space, and other modern college organization and planning, it would be possible to house a university of 1500 students in comparatively modest accommodations. A building such as Sital Nivas, now being used (infrequently to be sure) as a government guest house, would make a generous beginning for a great National University. It is adjacent to farm lands and is well located. It has buildings that would lend themselves to hostel accommodations, large rooms for classrooms, small rooms for offices, a reception hall for an assembly room, garret space for a library, a swimming pool, and space for additional buildings if needed. It has beautiful grounds with endowment for upkeep. And several other large buildings in the area might be available for further expansion when needed.

The Commission believes this to be the most logical, well adapted, and most easily obtainable site and building inasmuch as it is now owned by the government, It recommends the early dedication of this building as a National University. However, if such is not done, then search for a suitable site should be continued.

Administrative Control of the University

A university to be great and to serve its clientele freely and with integrity must be completely free of political influence or control. There must be academic freedom in the full sense of the word. The university must be established under charter and code which guarantee its sovereignty and perpetuate its ideals.

On the other hand the university should neither be set apart from the common school system nor be allowed to dominate it. Higher education should be a capstone to learning started in the common schools, and should be closely integrated with it. As a part of a total educational system, it should be integrally related to the total system, administratively as well as otherwise.

These two principles may be difficult to carry out together under Nepal's present form of government. The second principle suggests administrative control by the Minister of education who is responsible for common education, but he is always a political appointee. The first principle suggests autonomous control, but this sets the university apart from, and gives it a dominating, and often conflicting, influence over the common schools.

The Commission has suggested in Chapter VII an arrangement designed to accomplish these two principles for all education. It places administrative control in the hands of, first, an overall *Board of Education* (such as now exists) with a special board on higher education. Both boards would be appointed by Royal, Cabinet or Advisory Assembly action (later, possibly by election of the people) for five or seven year periods, with one fifth or one seventh retiring each year. This would give stability to the boards and require three or four years for a change in the composition of the majority, thus preventing a possible rapid change of the board personnel by a designing politician.

The Commission suggests a *Special Board on Higher Education* because of the more complex and time-consuming problems faced at this level. The general board would frame general policies, deal with specifics regarding primary, secondary, and

adult education, and confer on major action by the university special board. Some members of the general board might be ex-officio members of the special board to provide integration between them. The special board would (a) select and dismiss university administrative personnel and approve appointments of lesser staff members, (b) set policies governing the administration and operation of the university, (c) grant all degrees, (d) supervise standards, (e) authorize new colleges, curricula, and courses, and (f) be generally responsible for the operation of the university system.

The *Minister of Education* should serve both boards as an advisor and counselor and might serve in some honorary capacity for the University and for the common schools. The *chief executive officer* (Vice-Chancellor) of the University would be selected by the University special board. He, in turn, would select his university administrative staff subject to the approval of the special board. He would nominate heads of the various colleges, with their appointment subject to the approval of the special board.

Operating immediately under the Vice-Chancellor there should be a *Senate* composed of his administrative officers (Registrar, Business Manager, Dean of Instruction, Dean of Student Personnel, etc), the heads of the various colleges (Deans or Principals), and an equal number or staff members elected by their colleagues on a proportionate basis according to the size of the various colleges. The Senate should meet at least monthly, but because of its size it should elect from within its membership a five or seven-man *Senate Executive Committee* to meet more frequently and plan the Senate's work. The Senate should be an advisory body with respect to functions belonging to the special board, but a policy-proposing body for matters of internal and common concern to all of the colleges.

In addition, the *University Faculty* should meet regularly as a whole to advise the Senate, discuss measures proposed for action, and approve or disapprove proposed policies that affect the entire university.

Finally, each *college head and his faculty* would be responsible for internal matters affecting only the concerned college and not reserved to higher authority. Curriculum changes, particularly, would originate in the college faculties. Following approval here, they would proceed through the university faculty, the Senate, and finally to the special board.

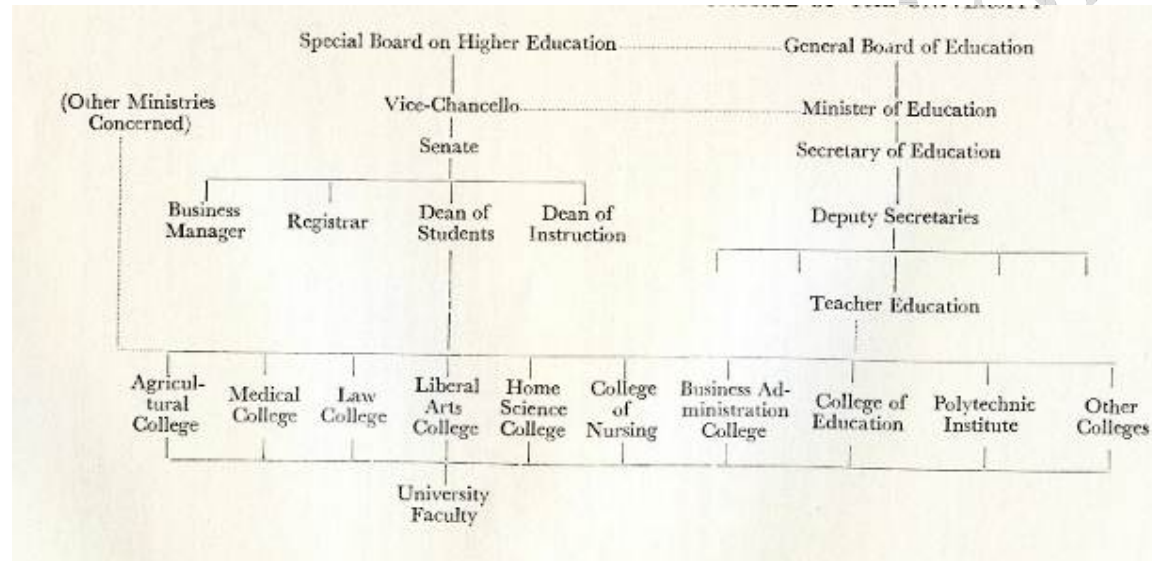
The details of this proposed administrative control and administration would have to be worked out by a special committee or administrative heads of the university and colleges, coded, and incorporated into a charter. The general plan is sketched in Figure 8.

Each college faculty should assume responsibility for directing its own internal affairs and should exercise initiative in developing its curriculum, in research, and in other matters, but its operations should be guided by general policies, uniform for the entire university. Insofar as feasible there should be reasonable uniformity in tuition charges, admission requirements, standards, registration procedures, credit system, methods of instruction, student guidance services, etc.

A team spirit should pervade the university; there should be cooperation. The university should come first, the interests of any one college second. Through experience, the organization sketched in the diagram should develop into a smooth working administrative relationship for all concerned.

Ministry of Education

FIGURE 8. PROPOSED ADMINISTRATIVE CONTROL OF THE UNIVERSITY



General Policies

Many of the general policies to be developed by the university authorities will be quite familiar and common to anyone well acquainted with university administration in England and India. The Commission believes, however, that the inauguration of a new National University provides an excellent opportunity to introduce certain new policies and thus correct some of the evils so frequently declaimed in the various reports on university education of the last decade or two.

The administrative control discussed above is based on policies and principles more frequently found in the western hemisphere than elsewhere. It is believed that these will overcome some of the problems often found in universities governed by a Syndicate.

With respect to *the relationship between the secondary schools and the colleges*, it is to be noted in Chapter IX that the Commission has recommended the discontinuance of the school-leaving or "final" examination at the close of the high school programme. High school students are to be advanced on a "credit" system, clearing each course as a unit. There is to be a continuous, objective-wide assessment. Each student who successfully completes five years of secondary schooling is to be awarded a diploma of graduation. Failures are to be held to 3% to 5%.

This means that it is now up to the colleges to set up their own *entrance examinations*. Presumably there might be a general examination for admission to the university} i.e., any college, and separate additional examinations to determine aptitude for certain professions. For example, a mechanical aptitude test might be used for the polytechnic college, a scientific aptitude test for the medical college, etc.

Many students who do well in a general entrance examination may need help in choosing their careers. The Commission suggests the establishment of a *Guidance Bureau* under the Dean of Student Personnel and with the help of the Teachers College. This agency would be responsible, with the help of the various colleges, for administering all entrance examinations, all subsequent psychological, aptitude, guidance and similar examinations, keeping necessary records on these tests, and counseling students regarding the results. It should have no responsibility for academic examinations or academic accounting. The Guidance Bureau could assist in the development of special tests needed by the various colleges. It could help students discover their aptitudes, and thus reduce the number of maladjustments and drop-outs among students.

The Commission recommends the adoption of *centralized academic credit system* similar to that used in universities of the western hemisphere and recently introduced into certain Indian Institutions. This would involve two things. First, there would be a single registrar's office under the direct supervision of the Vice-Chancellor's office. Thus, all records would be kept in one centralized place under a uniform system. The Registrar would be only an accountant of academic work; he would have no power to determine policies, academic marks, etc. that normally fall to the colleges. He would merely keep the records.

Second, this would involve the adoption of a credit system for accounting for student work. The academic year may be divided into halves (semesters) or quarters and the value of a "credit-hour" determined accordingly. For example, a class that meets five hours per week for one semester would carry five credit-hours; one that meets twice a week for an hour each time would carry two credit-hours. Successful completion of such a class would be determined by the teacher of the class with tests and other evaluation devices. Upon indication from the teacher that a student had passed a class, the Registrar would record the appropriate number of credit-hours for the student. If a student normally meets, say, four classes for four hours each per week, then sixteen credit-hours would be considered a normal load and he would be expected to earn sixteen hours per semester or thirty-two hours per year. Thus, 128 hours might be required for graduation.

This plan has several advantages. It encourages a student to proceed at his own rate of speed. If he wishes to work at a job part time to help pay his expenses, he may do so. If he needs to drop out for a half year he may do so. In certain colleges, he may earn part of his credit by attending special courses held during the vacation months, or in the evenings. This plan results in greater flexibility for student programming.

Another advantage is that the student can, if necessary, repeat one class without repeating the entire year's work. This reduces wastage both for the student and the institutions.

Finally, this system provides for continuous assessment and evaluation. There is no chance for a student to spend two or four years in college before learning that he does not have college ability; he would be dismissed as soon as he was failing in a majority of his work. There would be no chance for him to loaf for two years before cramming for an examination. Some colleges might wish to continue to use a final examination, especially at the postgraduate level, but only those students whose continuous assessment had been favourable would be allowed to sit for the final examination; thus, failures at this stage would be reduced to a minimum.

The introduction of a credit-hour system of academic accounting should have a salutary effect on the *methods of teaching* used in the university. Continuous assessment and progressing by passing individual classes rather than cramming for a final examination should encourage the use of modern methods and reduce the emphasis on lecturing and memorization.

Laboratory work may be introduced not only in science but in social studies (e.g., community surveys), education (e.g., working with small groups of children, in clinics, etc.), agriculture (e.g., field work), language (e.g., preparing radio dramatizations), nursing (e.g., hospital practice), and in every field of learning. Seminars, forum discussions, panels, projects, excursions, audio-visual aids, community projects -- all these, and many more devices, can be used to enliven learning, make the work more practical, and increase the effectiveness of education.

A wider variety of *instructional materials* may be used. There is much to be done in translating printed materials into Nepali and writing new materials. Maps, globes, graphic materials, films, slides, recordings, and many other aids must be prepared. But part of the research programme should result in the preparation of

such materials, and students should help in their preparation. The source and extent of learning materials must be increased if learning is to become rich and meaningful.

Elsewhere in this Report, the Commission has suggested the establishment of a National Education Press. This should serve as a University Press as well, a vehicle for bringing to life many manuscripts now lying neglected or forgotten on shelves and encouraging staff members to prepare printed materials for use in their own classes. Research and perhaps foreign aid might combine to produce films and other more expensive aids, but each teacher, each department; each college should begin its own slide collection and picture file, and amass its own equipment for modern teaching.

Perhaps the most important focus of any university is its *library*. Nepal is the meeting ground of the Southern and Northern cultures of Asia. It has given its own stamp to those cultures and provided a forum for both Hindu and Buddhist scholars for exchange of thoughts and expression of the noblest ideals. The treasures of Indian culture which have been lost in India either due to the vandalism of the invaders or ravages of insects are preserved here in our temples and chaityas, libraries and gompas. The Bir Library, the Bharati Bhawan Library and the Kaiser Library if combined and coordinated will be the biggest and best library in Asia from a research point of view, and with necessary equipment for research it can be the finest research centre for not only the local scholars but also for scholars of the world interested in Tantrism, Buddhist Philosophy, Astronomy, Astrology, Medicine, and also in fine arts. So this arrangement will be an asset of the university. (*)

The library should be centrally located and should house collections of films, slides, pictures, maps, micro-films, models, records and recordings, and other types of learning aids as well as the usual books, magazines, and pamphlet materials. It should be the centre for *all* instructional aids.

The library should also house the equipment necessary for library research: catalogues, reference books, micro-filming equipment, recording equipment, binding equipment, individual cubicles for writers, and other conveniences to encourage research.

The Commission determinedly has; faced the problem of the *medium of instruction* at the university level. In Chapter IX, it has recommended the requirement of English and Hindi or Sanskrit for those students who plan to go to college. Even so, many students will seek admission to college fully competent in all respects except foreign languages. The Commission recognizes the dearth of material in the Nepali language, and even though an immediate attack be made on this shortage, it will be a decade or two before this gap can be filled. Even then, all new materials from other parts of the world will still have to be translated into Nepali.

There is no doubt that students will do better and learn more if the medium of instruction is in their common tongue, Nepali. Classroom discussion, lectures, and other verbal exchanges can, of course, be in Nepali, but every student must have a reading competency in English and Hindi and in Sanskrit if he intends to do research in history, literature, or other subjects in which Sanskrit documents are the chief source of our heritage.

The Commission recommends that the oral medium of instruction in the colleges be in Nepali insofar as possible, and that students be encouraged to write their manuscripts in Nepali, but that a high degree of reading competency in the other languages be required of each student.

Another policy considered by the Commission in the matter of *compulsory military training*. This practice is common in other countries as an economical means of building up a reserve army and thereby reducing the size of the standing army and the current expenditures for it. As Nepal is the land of the apostles of love and peace, Lords Gautam and the other Buddhas, we naturally believe in world peace through their doctrine, but no country can afford to be without some protection to herself. Therefore, in the interest of military economy and national interests, the Commission suggests that not less than two years of five hours per week of military training and science be compulsory of all men attending the university. An additional two years of advanced military science should be optional. This training should be given by members of the National Army on active duty.

Either the army officials, or the staff of the department of physical education in the liberal arts college should offer classes in mountaineering — climbing, skiing, hiking, rescue and survival work, tourist-guiding, photography, etc. These and many other sports, cultural activities, music, drama, forensics, ceramics, etc. should be offered as vocational or hobby activities for students, either as "credit" classes or as extracurricular activities.

This brief discussion of policies and activities is not intended to be exhaustive or inclusive. We have dealt only with a few policies that represent radical or fundamental changes from Eastern practices. Many other policies will have to be developed by the authorities as the university becomes a reality.

Financing the University

The total costs of operating a National University can assume huge proportions if not carefully analyzed. But several significant factors should be born in mind. First, fairly large sums of money are already being spent for colleges and post-secondary training; presumably these amounts would continue to be spent under university organization.

Second, additional colleges have been proposed (e. g., agriculture, home science, nursing, teachers, polytechnic and others), and their establishment will cost money whether separately or as part of a university. Actually, the cost will be less if established under the type of university envisioned by the Commission, using a common library, a common liberal arts college, and sharing site and building facilities.

Third, the Commission's plan calls for a large building and common campus. Unless this is donated, it will cost a substantial sum, but a single building will cost less than several buildings for separately located colleges. Also, rentable space would presumably be released by the existing colleges and training institutions that would move to the new site. Single facilities would be an economy move.

Fourth, there are now about 1300 students enrolled in institutions of higher

learning in Nepal. The Commission cautions against increasing this to more than 1500 to 1800 locally (exclusive of those trained through extension or sub-collegiate level courses', but there will be pressure for these increases whether there is a university or not. A university organization could control these pressures more easily and equitably than separate colleges.

Fifth, the only additional cost above present expenditures or expenditures involved in setting up new separate colleges would be the administrative offices of the university—the Vice-Chancellor, the Business Manager, the Registrar, the Dean of Instruction, and the Dean of Student Personnel. Some of this additional cost would be absorbed by these offices taking over the work of the several college offices now handling these affairs. For example, the offices of the Registrar and Business Manager should effect a savings that could offset part of the increased costs of a Vice-Chancellor's office.

Sixth, certain other economies would be realized by the establishment of a central library, a single department of building and grounds maintenance, and common use of service classes of the several colleges, to mention only a few.

The Commission believes that the establishment of a university actually, over a long-range period, would not increase the costs of higher education in Nepal by a single rupee and promises to reduce the general costs, certainly the cost per student. Increases in expenditures for higher education during the next two or three decades, will result from the establishment of new colleges, the expansion of services, and increasing enrollments. These are inevitable; they had best come about through the coordinated and more economical efforts of a national university organization.

The financing of higher education whether by separate colleges or by a university is expensive and difficult. In Chapter III, we saw that minimum operating costs today are about Rs. 300 per student, and all who are familiar with the situation recognize this as an austerity expenditure. This represents about Rs. 4,00,000 per year, but allows none for building maintenance and expansion, library development, research, new equipment, dignified salaries, and the other expenses so essential if higher education in Nepal is to be upgraded to world-wide standards.

● Regardless of separate college or university organization, funds for higher education must be increased. The Commission believes that funds should be doubled within two or three years and doubled again within a decade. This would allow for upgrading standards, increasing enrollments by 50% to 75%, and the establishment of two or three new colleges along modest lines.

The Commission believes that it will be necessary to charge a modest tuition and that each student will have to pay for his own messing and lodging, whether it is in the hostel or in special homes in the city. However, the university should assist deserving students in three ways: it should provide full and partial scholarships for needy and capable students, it should set up a part-time employment bureau to help students get part time jobs (e.g., typing, small industries, etc.) to finance their own education and it should maintain a small-loan fund.

Tuition charges would provide only a tenth to a fifth of the operating costs of

higher education. The remaining funds should come from the general treasury as part of the annual budget. Further suggestions for raising these and other educational funds will be found in Chapter XV.

In addition to providing for these current operating costs, the Commission suggests that a group of public-spirited individuals be appointed to (a) assist in procuring a university site and buildings, soliciting donations if necessary, (h) assist in bringing together various book and manuscript collections into a large central library and raising funds for a building and equipment if necessary, (c) secure donations for a permanent endowment, (d) secure donations for scholarship aid and a student loan fund, (e) try to effect the transfer of funds from monastic and religious endowments, and (f) assist in similar activities involving the collection of funds for capital outlay.

The Colleges

The Commission has tried to look into the future and visualize the needs for various colleges in the university. It has tried to estimate the size of institution needed, the time in the future when each college might become a reality, and the most economical grouping of fields of learning. On these matters there may be differences of opinion and it is partly because of this that we urge the earliest possible establishment of a university, which would provide an official body to hear each problem and settle matters in terms of established and uniform policies. We do not feel competent to deal finally with the grouping of colleges, but do not believe their establishment and organization should be left solely to certain Ministries which are bound to have biases and are unable to see the proper place of a proposed college in the larger setting of a university. The Commission urges that the university be established before any additional colleges are set up so that its officials can lend a guiding hand in the coordinating of each new college with other colleges in the university. If this is unnecessarily delayed, new colleges now proposed or provided for by foreign aid agreements will have to move forward on schedule. This may mean expensive re-housing, reorganization, and reorientation when the university is organized.

The Commission sketches below its suggestions regarding existing colleges and proposed colleges, assuming early organization of a university.

Liberal Arts and Science College

Tri-Chandra College offers the structure, traditions, and staff for an outstanding liberal arts and science college. Presumably it would be moved to the new university site as the core of general education. Here it would service all colleges with basic courses, especially during the intermediate years. Basic science, mathematics, languages, literature, social studies would be taught, and would presumably be compulsory subjects during the first year or two for most students of the university.

With increasing emphasis on professional courses in the third and fourth years in the professional colleges, there would be a marked decrease in enrollment in general education courses, but this college should offer advanced courses in

science, mathematics, and the humanities to service the professional colleges and its own students majoring in these fields. The Commission believes that the number of graduates in liberal arts and science should be carefully controlled to prevent "white-collar" employment, and that this college should direct its programme more specifically than in the past to certain vocational fields.

We suggest the establishment of a Department of Business Science and Administration in this college (rather than a separate college at this time because the need hardly justifies separate college organization) to prepare competent business and government employees. A two-year course might be offered for secretary-typists; a four-year course would provide training for rapid advancement to junior executive positions.

We also suggest the establishment of a Department of Culture, or Fine Arts and Music. This Department might in time become a separate college, because one of its functions would be to service all students with cultural, aesthetic, and appreciation courses on an optional basis, and conceivably this service might someday attract all of the students of the university. Another function, though, would be to offer training for professional entertainers, commercial and private artists, and teachers.

These additional departments would strengthen the vocational emphasis and point up the fields of science, politics, government service, business, and cultural arts. Then gradually other courses could be pointed towards specific job opportunities. Only in this way can the college produce productive workers rather than social parasites.

The Commission further suggests that a Department of Military Science be added to this college to provide at least two years of compulsory military training of every male student. A Department of Health and Physical Education should also be established to provide compulsory service courses in this area for both male and female students.

At present, there are in Kathmandu three colleges in addition to Tri-Chandra that are liberal arts in character. The Commission suggests that the women's college be merged with the new liberal arts and Science College, which already is co-educational. A separate small struggling college for women, offering the same courses, simply cannot be justified academically or financially.

Earlier in this chapter, the need for extension courses as a public service was pointed out. The present night college should be merged with Tri-Chandra College and become part of its extension service. The present programme of evening classes should be continued, and expanded as necessary.

The Sanskrit College has recently added several courses now offered in the liberal arts and Science College. As a matter of fact most of its courses are duplicates, though some are more intensive and exhaustive. Therefore, the Commission suggests that the present Sanskrit College become an Institute of Sanskrit Studies in the new liberal arts and Science College, thus eliminating the unnecessary and expensive duplication of courses and strengthening the work. The savings could be applied to Sanskrit research and make the Institute the foremost Sanskrit Research

Centre of the world.

Each college of the university should devote considerable time and energy to research. Some of the major research efforts of the Liberal Arts-Science College should be on archeology, geology, Sanskrit, history, culture, and enrichment of the Nepali language. This work should be done under the department concerned, but it should be coordinated by a Research Bureau of the college or of the university.

In short, the Commission suggests the merger of Tri-Chandra College, the Sanskrit College, the night college, and the Women's College into a new strong new liberal arts and science college with Departments of Languages, Sanskrit Studies, Social Studies, Mathematics, Science, Military Science, Health and Physical Education, Business Science and Administration, Fine Arts and Music, to offer service courses to the other colleges and to direct its own work along more specific vocational career lines. These courses would reach all students in the university, making this the largest college; but the number who "majored" (i.e., completed their work) in this college might not exceed 300-500 per year for the next decade.

Law College

The Commission believes that the recently established Law College should continue as a professional college of the university. It should set up a recommended undergraduate programme and begin to supervise its pre-law students. As its contribution to public service and research, it should play a major role in the years ahead in the formulation of legislation, constitution, and codes for the new government. Presumably the annual demand for lawyers would control the number in this college at 50-75 per year for the next decade.

Teachers College

Arrangements have been made with the help of foreign aid (USOM) for the establishment of a Teachers College in 1956. This college, described in detail in Chapter XII, will provide for (a) short-term training of primary school teachers, (b) degree courses leading to the B. Ed. degree, (c) a post-graduate course leading to the M. Ed. degree, and (d) extension courses and field service as needed. The Teachers College will utilize the general education courses of the liberal arts and Science College insofar as possible and concentrate on professional work in its own college. Presumably about two-thirds of the work for the B. Ed. degree will be general education. Present plans provide for 250 students per year in this college, exclusive of those who would receive short-term training at a normal school level.

Polytechnic Institute

Proposals have been made for the establishment of a Polytechnic Institute that would absorb the present work in cottage and small industry training, engineering, and the handicrafts formerly taught at the technical school. The need for such an institution is clear. Much of the present economy, except for agriculture, is based on work for which a Polytechnic Institute could train, and the future economy depends on developments in this area. The need for exploring Nepal's mineral resources is obvious and a strong department for mining is a necessary.

The Commission believes that present training efforts along these lines should be continued (now being encouraged by foreign assistance from USOM, Ford Foundation, and UNESCO), that a nucleus staff for the institute should be sent abroad immediately for training, and that upon their return a Polytechnic Institute should be established, by 1956 or 1957. The post-high school training now being given could be absorbed at once and extension courses could be offered for craftsmen and others as special short-term training courses.

The Polytechnic Institute should have strong Departments in Engineering, Mining, Architecture, Small Industries and Handicrafts. It should develop a strong programme of research in all these fields. The estimated enrollment, exclusive of special extension work, especially small industries and handicrafts, should be about 200 to 300 per year.

College of Agriculture and Forestry

Some polytechnic institutes include departments of agriculture, but the Commission believes that, because agriculture engages 85% of the people of Nepal, there should be a separate college for this purpose. The College of Agriculture, like the other colleges would use the basic courses of the liberal arts and Science College, but the majority of its work would involve specialized courses, laboratory and field work, and research in its own college. A major task of this college would be the training of Village Development Workers and other agricultural specialists. To meet varying needs for qualified personnel in agriculture, the college should offer courses of different length, including short-term courses and extension courses.

The commission suggests that the college include Departments of Village Development workers Training, Animal Husbandry, Veterinary Medicine, Horticulture, Agronomy, Entomology, Agricultural Engineering, and Forestry. • The enrollment presumably would run to 300-350 per year.

Home Science College

The need for training women in home science and as Village Development and Extension Workers is quite obvious. At present, a nucleus staff for such a college is being trained with the help of foreign technical assistance (Ford Foundation and USOM), and actual training of women extension workers should be started by the summer of 1955. This work should be expanded as rapidly as possible into college status, perhaps within four or five years, but short-term training should be continued on a sub-collegiate basis until there is an adequate supply of women high school graduates. The Home Science College should offer work in clothing, food and nutrition, home nursing and health, home management, child care, and professional training for Village Development Workers and teachers, culminating in the Bachelor's degree. The enrollment here for the next decade probably would not exceed 100 per year.

Medical and Dental College

One of Nepal's greatest needs is trained medical and dental personnel. The population is ravished by disease. No place in the world does one find a greater concentration of malaria, cholera, and other tropical diseases than here. Life

expectancy is extremely short. Only through preventive and corrective medicine can this situation be improved. And yet Nepal is rich in herbs and other medicinal bases.

A strong medical dental college should be established as early as possible. Normally these two branches of medicine are separated, but economy suggests that dentistry be a department of Medical College for the time being. This college should supervise and direct the undergraduate training of its students, mostly in the liberal arts and Science College, partly in its own institution. Departments of Pharmacy and Public Health should also be parts of this college. The total enrollment probably would not exceed 100 to 150 per year during the next decade.

College of Nursing

The need for nurses is as great as for doctors, dentists, and pharmacists. Because the academic qualifications are less than for medicine and because this profession has a major appeal to women, the Commission proposes a separate College of Nursing. At present, foreign aid from two sources is available to assist in the establishment of a College of Nursing (USOM and WHO), and this opportunity should be seized without further delay.

The College of Nursing should service several groups. The major ultimate goal should be the training of registered nurses with the B.S. degree or equivalent, using the several hospitals in Kathmandu for practical work. In addition, advanced courses should be offered for administrators, supervisors, teachers, and public health specialists.

The present lack of an adequate pool of education women, however, makes it necessary to provide training on a lower level. The Commission has suggested in Chapter IX that a one-year course in Nursing should be introduced in the last year of the high school. The College of Nursing should supervise this course, and should offer in addition special courses for women not attending high school. These might be taught through the Nepal Red Cross, or through an Extension Division of the College. At the collegiate level, exclusive of these additional services, the enrollment would probably be about 75-100 per year.

Other Colleges

The need for other colleges may arise in the future. For example, the Departments of Business Science and Administration, and Fine Arts and Music of the Liberal Arts and Science College may increase in size sufficiently to justify separate colleges. Separate Colleges of Veterinary Medicine, of Dentistry, of Pharmacy, and of Forestry, might someday be desirable. But these are matters to be settled in the future.

There is immediate need for the colleges listed above; all efforts should be bent towards their realization. (The estimated enrollments total 1375 to 1825).

Implementation of the University

The Nepal National University seems to be a reality except for its actual implementation. Some of the colleges exist; some will come into existence within

two years. Financing does not appear to be a serious problem. Buildings and sites are available. Action seems to be the only catalyst needed.

Foreign Aid (USOM) has been preferred for the training of key university personnel and the establishment of a University organization commission. As the first step of implementation of the university, the Commission believes that this aid should be accepted immediately. The nucleus of a special Board of Higher Education, or a special committee should be appointed to select a Vice-Chancellor. Then he should nominate to the special Board a Registrar, Business Manager, Dean of Student Personnel, and Dean of Instruction and their appointments should be confirmed by the Board.

This team of five should be sent abroad for six to twelve months of training under foreign-aid grants. They should visit modern universities and study structure, organization, curricula, student personnel administration, finance, general administration, staffing, building and grounds maintenance and a multitude of other problems associated with the operation of a university. For at least three to four months, after visiting typical universities, they should take up residence at one university where they could, with the assistance of professional experts plan the details for our university.

As a second step, the special Board in the absence of the administrative team, should survey sites and buildings and select the most promising for the university. The special Board should resort to whatever means necessary to procure the facilities as a transfer from present government use, as a gift, by soliciting funds, by lobbying for legislative action, etc. Facilities should be available upon return of the team.

As a third step, and by the time the team returns from foreign study, the special Board should be enlarged to full strength in accordance with policies laid out earlier in this chapter. As a fourth step, the university office should be established, and the various existing colleges moved into the new facilities as rapidly as possible.

Finally, additional colleges should be opened as finance and staff become available and as the structure and organization crystallizes.

To finance this implementation, the central government should establish a fund to cover salaries of the university administrative officers and their assistants. Part of this money should be transferred from the administrative budgets of existing colleges, whose work would be reduced (e.g., Business and Registrar's offices) ; part should be new funds. Then, upon the return of the administrative team and enlargement of the special Board to full strength, the Board should be given authority to re-budget the funds of all colleges into a common fund, to charge tuitions, and take over the financial operation of the university. As pointed out above, considerable increases in operating funds for all colleges are highly essential, but implementation of the university can proceed on present funds plus some for the university administrative offices.

In addition to these procedures, the special Board should immediately after its formation prepare proposals for foreign aid for one or more aspects of university development. For example, a professional exchange programme should be solicited.

Various proposals for research aid should be prepared because considerable foreign aid is now being expended in different parts of the world on research. Proposals for the extension of present foreign aid (USOM) in agriculture, village development, teacher education, nursing (with WHO), and home science and small industries (with Ford Foundation and UNESCO), should be prepared. Help should be solicited in every area and careful attention should be given to every possible source of aid so that none goes unsolicited or unused if available. The special Board might well employ a specialist for this purpose, someone who would become familiar with possible sources, the interests of various agencies offering help, who would become adept at preparing proposals and following through on them, and who would coordinate for the university various requests for special aid. Such a person could earn his cost a thousand-fold if he applied himself, for it is well-known that more foreign aid is now available for Nepal than is being utilized.

Summary

In this chapter, the Commission has suggested that:

1. A National University is an essential part of educational system, and should be established at once; our present make-shift arrangements are unsatisfactory.
2. The major functions of a university are (a) accrediting, supervising, and coordinating colleges, (b) teaching, (c) research, and (d) public service, including extension and field work.
3. The Nepal National University should serve all of these functions; to do this, all of its colleges should be located on a common campus insofar as possible.
4. A suitable site and buildings should be obtained immediately while some of the large palaces in Kathmandu are still available; Sital Nivas, now used only infrequently as a government guest house, would provide an ideal beginning for a university.
5. Administratively the University should be completely free of political influence but closely coordinated with other educational activities. To accomplish this, control should rest in the hands of a special Board of Higher Education coordinated with a General Board of Education.
6. The executive officers of the University, to be employed by the special Board, include the Vice-Chancellor, Dean of Student Personnel, Dean of Instruction, Business Manager, and Registrar.
7. The executive officers should be assisted with internal administration by a Senate composed of college heads and representative faculty members, the University Faculty as a whole, and the various College Faculties in their own respective colleges.
8. The University and its colleges should make no effort to mould high school curricula to their patterns. Rather they should establish a common entrance examination for the University with special aptitude

examinations for the specific colleges as needed. Responsibility for admission should be entirely with the colleges.

9. The University should provide a Guidance Bureau to assist students of all colleges in personal and vocational-career problems and to sponsor and conduct research in non-academic examinations.
10. A centralized academic-credit system should be established to provide systematic centralized records of student progress under a single University Registrar, and modern academic accounting, combined with conscientious student assessment, to give more flexibility in student programming and place less emphasis on a final examination.
11. Methods of teaching should be improved to conform with modern practices. New instructional aids should be introduced, and variety should be the keynote in methods and materials of learning.
12. A strong central library should be established as a centre for study and research. Efforts should be made to incorporate private collections into this library as soon as possible. The library should extend its collections to include all types of instructional aids and research tools.
13. The medium of instruction in the University should be Nepali for oral and written use, but reading competency in English and Hindi will be essential, not only in the immediate future but for years to come, if we are to keep abreast of world developments.
14. At least two years of military training should be compulsory for all male students, and an additional two years of advanced military science should be optional for those who desire it.
15. The University will require very little additional financing above that now spent on the existing and proposed colleges, but the total expenditures on higher education should be increased several times as soon as possible.
16. Modest tuitions and actual hostel and messing costs should be charged, but some full and partial scholarships should be available to needy and capable students. The University should also assist students in securing part-time jobs and should have a loan fund available for them.
17. A special committee should be appointed to assist in fund-raising activities.
18. Tri-Chandra College should form the nucleus of the Liberal Arts and Science College. The Women's College, the Evening College, and the Sanskrit College should be merged into this college, and new departments should be added in Business Science and Administration, Military Science, Health and Physical Education, Fine Arts and Music, and Sanskrit Studies; extension courses and research also should form part of the regular programme.

19. The Law College should be continued, should strengthen the pre-law work, and offer its services in the various legal phases of establishing a new government.
20. A Teachers College should be established in 1956 as outlined in Chapter XII to provide training for primary, secondary, and college teachers.
21. A Polytechnic Institute should be established by 1956-1957 to provide training in engineering, mining, small industries, handicrafts and related areas.
22. A College of Agriculture should be established to offer training for Village Development Workers, veterinary medicine, forestry and all phases of agriculture.
23. A Home Science College should be established to offer training through short-term and degree courses for Women Village Development Workers, extension course teachers, high school teachers and others in food preparation, clothing, home decoration, etc.
24. A Medical-Dental College should be established as soon as possible to train badly needed doctors and dentists.
25. A College of Nursing should be established to offer sub-collegiate and college courses and supervise a high school course in nursing to meet the dire shortage in this field.
26. A nucleus of the special Board on Higher Education, or a special committee should be appointed immediately to select five University key personnel to be sent abroad for training, select a University site and buildings, establish the University organization, prepare proposals for foreign aid, and then inaugurate the Nepal National University.

CHAPTER XI

ADULT EDUCATION

Introduction

Education for adults in Nepal is essential if we are to have a perfect democratic country. Democracy cannot flourish in a country where 98% of the people are illiterate, where for centuries there has been no contact with the outside world, where the people have no way of benefiting from the experience of others, even vicariously. Illiteracy is wastage; people continue in their old ways, knowing nothing of the advances made elsewhere, the better life that could be had through knowledge of improved methods, facilities, and ideas.

The lack of modern government, the lack of communication and transportation facilities and the poverty of our country have combined to keep our people in darkness. They have not always been content but in their ignorance they could not see the way to education and light.

With the advent of democracy in Nepal, the new government, as well as increasing numbers of people, has become fully conscious of the importance of education. As a result, many new schools have been opened throughout many parts of the country. But these schools are suffering from poorly educated teachers, many of whom can barely read or write. Some have been forced to close and others are running with minimum strength because they cannot get additional teachers. The Commission's attack on this problem is described in other chapters, but the lack of good primary school education is not conducive to the spread of adult education. As education is necessary and indispensable for children, it is equally necessary and essential for adults. The two go side by side. Only literate adults can fully know the value of education for their children. They will know the uses of literacy; they will know the advantages of it. They will know the better ways of life, and have a different view of world affairs. They will want their children to be literate and educated. As adults see their children being educated, they will yearn for at least literacy for themselves; as adults become literate they will want even more education for their children.

Many adults desire to learn new ways of life or imbibe in new ideas in their social or political life, but they do not want to exhibit their lack of knowledge or inadequacy at the cost of their prestige as self-respecting adults. Besides, adult life presents all sorts of responsibilities and valid interests and if an adult wants to learn something or gain something more than his usual quota of knowledge, the outstanding difficulty is whether he, with his heavy responsibilities and his keen struggle for existence, can afford time and money to devote himself to learning new ways and developing a new outlook in life.

With the growth of knowledge and the march of civilization, human life is growing more and more complex in a world which is changing too rapidly for any person to master all he needs to know. Adults, in spite of their background, maturity, and experience, find that they are being outrun in the race for more knowledge and learning, and this lack or inadequacy acts as an incentive to learn or to improve

themselves in their status of knowledge. The central fact is that all adults want to learn and improve their status in society.

There are three types of incentives that attract the adult population to literacy:

1. They themselves feel the need for learning.
2. They realize that ignorance and illiteracy are degrading in their social life.
3. They recognize and appreciate their duties and responsibilities as enlightened citizens of democracy.

If democracy is to survive in our country, top priority must be given to the spread of adult education along with the introduction of free primary education. The prime need of the country under a democratic set up is the total liquidation of ignorance of the vast masses of illiterate adults of our country who are quite incapable of exercising independent judgment and who are thus made mere tools in the hands of exploiters and other interested parties and arm-chair politicians. All other attempts to make a show of democracy will bear no fruit in our society unless the vast majority of adults, now steeped in total ignorance, are made to feel their duties and responsibilities in a democratic nation and this can be done only by an intensive literacy campaign under careful planning.

It is the adult population of the country which is going to take direct part very soon in the shape of things to come by going to the polls on a country-wide basis and by setting up a Constituent Assembly which will be responsible for framing a constitution for the country for the first time in the history of Nepal. Hence, never before has the necessity of educating the adult masses been so urgently needed and keenly felt as it is at present when our country is going to make history in constitution-making and when a slight slip here or there might throw us out of gear and belittle us in international eyes. The speedy uplift of the adult mass is therefore a challenge to the Commission, to the people, and the government of a democratic Nepal and the challenge must be taken up in earnest and with a vengeance.

There are at present some so-called adult schools in our country which were started after the political upheaval, but in spite of the earnestness of their purpose and sincere humanitarian spirit, they do not visualize the practical difficulties in adult literacy, and adult education is being organized on the same basis as childhood education and the same textbooks prevail in the adult schools as in primary schools. This means that the very fundamental principle of adult education, which is summed up in the slogan, "Teach yourself and learn," is ignored. Besides, there is complete lack of experienced teachers, teaching facilities, and useful reading materials. The work has been generally carried on in such a disorganized manner that despite the enthusiasm of the literacy workers little has been accomplished.

A citizen in an enlightened state should be given an opportunity to secure the type of education suited to his tastes and requirements so long as he is capable of receiving it. Even those who have not had the good fortune to receive education in schools should be equally entitled to receive adult education of the type that they seek.

Just as primary education is like the foundation of a building without which

there can be no sound educational structure, so educated adults are the architects or builders of the very foundation on which primary education is to rest. Parents will want the very best education possible for their children.

Thus, adult education becomes an integral part of a total education scheme for Nepal. Not only must adult literacy be promoted, but there must be training in homemaking, agriculture, crafts and industries, and the cultural aspects of life as well.

The Adult Literacy Programme

A start has already been made on an adult literacy programme. In 1953, the Ministry of Education, in cooperation with the United States Operations Mission, invited Dr. Frank Laubach of the World Literacy Foundation to Nepal to work with a team of three educationists and two artists employed by the Government for six months. This team prepared a set of five charts, a primer, and a second reader in four parts as the beginning of a reading series for teaching adult literacy. The primer contains thirteen lessons and the second readers about twenty-five lessons each. The charts contain the alphabet in illustrated form. These materials have been sent to the printers. In addition, some work was done on the third and fourth series of readers.

This is a significant start towards a literacy drive. There can be no widespread literacy without the necessary materials printed in Nepali. It was thought that these first materials could be tried out on a limited basis and then revised and printed in large quantities. However, this is only a start. Literacy cannot thrive if it is not nourished. There must be additional materials. The series of readers should be completed immediately so that complete literacy may be taught. Then additional supplementary readers and simple books must be prepared and printed so that the new literates will have reading material to keep alive their interest and to give them continued practice to promote their newly acquired skill. Also a simple weekly newspaper and monthly magazines should be published at the literate level, not only to give reading practice, but to acquaint the adults with current affairs and to present interesting articles of local, national, and world significance. Finally, bulletins and pamphlets on health, agriculture, homemaking, the cultural arts, etc., should be prepared so as to use this new medium for the widespread dissemination of knowledge and information.

The preparation of these materials will require a team of workers and publishing facilities. The latter could be provided by the National Education Press proposed in Chapter XIII, but the preparation of the materials calls for special organization of competent persons on a permanent basis. The newspaper and magazines would require regular writers and editors; manuscripts for other materials could be solicited from free-lance writers on a royalty or commission basis, or could be prepared by regular writers.

But a literacy drive requires more than materials; there must be teachers. This requires organization and trained leaders to train these teachers. Several leaders should be sent abroad for special training. When they return they should then undertake the task of training hundreds of teachers to teach literacy classes.

The Commission believes that at least three sources of literacy teachers should be tapped. First, there are now several hundred trained village development workers in Nepal and more are being trained. These men in the field should be given short courses by specialists in teaching adult literacy, and this course should then be made a part of the training of village development workers in the future.

Second, the training programme for teachers outlined in Chapter XII should include a course in teaching adult literacy so that every trained teacher would be a potential teacher of adult literacy.

Third, there are experienced teachers now in the field and perhaps others (e.g., the women to be trained under the home science programme now under way with the cooperation of the Ford Foundation and USOM) that could be trained by a mobile training team. It is thought that training for this purpose might be given in twenty to forty hours and that within a period of three to six months there might be a pool of 500 or more trained teachers of adult literacy scattered throughout the country.

Classes could then be opened on a widespread basis and the drive thus launched. Teachers could be paid a small supplementary fee on the basis of the number completing the course and acquiring literacy. A suitable certificate of accomplishment should be issued to the new literates. The Commission believes that within five years such a course could be given to 100,000 adults, and by that time literacy classes could be available to nearly every adult in the country who desired to become literate. It will require several generations to eradicate illiteracy from the face of Nepal and a long-range programme is required, but great progress could be made under the plan proposed here.

Of course, adults will want to learn to write and do simple arithmetic as well as to read. These skills should be included in the adult literacy classes, and necessary materials should be prepared for them, too.

The Commission recognizes the tremendous cost of materials for such a programme, and, appreciating the foreign aid rendered thus far, suggests that efforts be made to secure continued foreign aid.

Agricultural and Home Extension Education

The major purpose of the Village Development Programme is to improve living conditions in the villages of Nepal. This is now being done by village development workers who are disseminating information by word of mouth and showing the people new methods and techniques by demonstrations. But the work is seriously handicapped and retarded by the illiteracy of the people. Hence, the literacy programme is designed to promote this work of village improvement.

As literacy spreads, adults can be taught through pamphlets, bulletins, newspapers, and magazines. The preparation and publication of these in the field of agriculture and home economics is a major avenue of adult education and should be undertaken by the appropriate ministries as soon as possible.

Another phase of this type of adult education has already been started. Farmers and craftsmen are being taught in rural extension classes, by

demonstration, discussion, lectures, pictures, and other modern techniques, and they will be taught in the near future by printed materials. But this phase of adult education needs to be expanded as rapidly as workers and teachers can be trained. Eventually, it should be possible to offer in every village every course that a dozen to twenty people want to take, whether it be in agronomy, animal husbandry, poultry-raising, bee-keeping, horticulture, preserving foods, cooking, sewing, knitting, ceramics, child care, home management, nursing, small industries or something else. It should be the long-range goal of the Village Development Programme to saturate the villages with general knowledge and special courses as demanded.

These courses, demonstrations, etc. should be offered for their inherent practical value. No attempt should be made to give school credit for these courses, but appropriate certificates of accomplishment might be given by the teacher or village development worker.

From these courses the village worker and his wife will come to know more about agriculture and home-making. They will learn to grow more food. They will get better ideas from the village development workers about agriculture, stock farming, cattle breeding, etc.; share knowledge with them and thus correct the old and wrong methods being following. He will be able to improve his agriculture by getting knowledge of the uses of different kinds of manures, soil and implements. He will get to know how to control the insects which harm the crops by using the different substances like D.D.T., zinc phosphate, etc.

With improvement in agriculture, the literate adult will be able to live in a better way. He will learn from books the ways of making good houses. He will learn sanitation and how to be healthy. He will learn more about feeding, housing and clothing himself and his family. He will be able to get more nutrition from simple and cheap food. Besides this, he will learn to live healthily. He will make the surroundings of his dwelling place neat and clean. He will take only fresh food, and drink only pure water. He will get inoculations against different diseases.

The major expense of this type of programme lies in providing a sufficient number of trained workers. At present, the goal is one worker for each three villages; this number may need to be increased. However, in Chapter III we saw that there are 26,000 villages in Nepal and the salaries of even 10,000 workers would soon bankrupt the central government. As in the case of regular schools, much of the financial support for this programme must come from the local community, through a voluntary cess or some kind of taxation. The cost should not be borne by charging fees for the classes; everyone should share the cost because the ultimate outcomes benefit all who live in the village, or for that matter, all who live in Nepal.

Cultural Education

Another type of adult education, the demand for which will naturally follow literacy and village improvement, is what loosely may be called cultural education. Many adults will wish to know more about the history and geography of their country and then the rest of the world. Many will wish to read poetry and literature, to enjoy dancing and music festivals, and to put on cultural and drama programmes. Some will wish to pursue a regular adult high school curriculum. The literate adult

will find a love for fine arts, music, culture, and handicrafts. He will learn to paint beautiful pictures, make clay models, and other arts as knitting, weaving, and spinning. He will make the members of his family learn to make all the necessary articles to be used in his own house. He will never waste his time sitting idle nor will he allow the members of his family to remain idle. Formal courses may meet the needs for some; informal organizations and clubs may be better for others.

The village school teacher may be called upon to teach certain courses, and other persons in the village may direct dramatic and music activities. The Commission envisions the day when various colleges of the University can reach into every region with its extension courses. Important as this type of adult education is, it must bow to literacy and village improvement education in importance and financing. It is, nevertheless, part of a long-range adult education programme.

The Village Library

The need for a village library has been mentioned several places in this Report. Even today there are a few people in most villages who can read a little and who could tell others what they had read, if there were anything to read. With the spread of literacy and primary education, the need will become even greater for materials to satisfy the thirst for knowledge and enjoyment.

There is at present in Kathmandu a United States Information Agency library, a British reading room, and several semi-public local libraries. There are in other parts of Nepal perhaps as many as 50 public, semi-public and/or school libraries. All of these libraries have been supplied with collections of 100 paper-bound books representing a cross-section of American publications, and other miscellaneous publications from United States Information Agency funds. In addition, they have a limited number of volumes in Hindi and Nepali.

It has been suggested elsewhere in this Report that the village school might expand *its* library to include materials of interest to adults and in this manner develop a school-community library. The Commission believes that a start should be made towards a library in each village as soon as there are people in the village who can profit by it. The school teacher could serve as the part-time librarian and the few materials written in Nepali, together with simple Hindi literature could be used as a nucleus for a collection.

The Commission suggests the possibility of giving some library training to new teachers at the Teacher Training Centre and experienced teachers now in the field. They could then encourage the villagers to furnish a building and almyras for storage of books, the reading materials could be solicited from various sources, and the Government could distribute certain materials free. This would at least provide a beginning.

Cinema and Radio Education

The cinema and radio are not many years off for many of Nepal's people, whether we like it or not. To be sure, these media of communication can be highly educational in a constructive way, but inevitably—at least in other countries—they have brought evil as well as good. Even strict censorship (a dangerous threat to

democracy!) has not been able to control the appeal that these instruments sometimes make to the baser levels of humanity. Educational values are often sublimated to more popular interests.

The Commission recognizes the values these tools may have in teaching literacy, in disseminating ideas for village improvement, for demonstrating better ways of working, for restoring our vast cultural heritage. However, these values can accrue only if positive steps are taken to reserve a good proportion of radio time for educational programmes and to match every entertainment film with an educational film.

We believe that a committee should be established to seek foreign aid in making educational films and radio programmes. A start has been made in radio education through cooperation of the government with USOM. A few radio receiving sets are to be purchased and a radio technician employed to prepare special programmes. Radio Nepal plans to increase its power so that it can be received in any part of the country. If this experiment in radio education is successful, further expansion should take place. Furthermore, electricity will gradually spread to areas outside the present three centres now having it and commercial cinema houses will be opened up. The government should develop a plan to make educational films available to them at no cost to encourage their use.

This area of adult education needs further exploration and study, and it needs to be carefully coordinated with the other phases of adult education. The Commission suggests a special study of the problem at an early date.

Organization for Adult Education

The need and importance of comprehensive and practical planning should be always realised before any education campaign is launched. From the point of view of educational requirements, the literacy campaign can be divided into a two-pronged drive: (a) for the illiterates who have never been literate, and who know nothing of the 3 R's, and (b) for the semi-literate, who could not complete their primary education, but have had some literacy at one time or another.

The main problem of the Commission is therefore to provide ways and means for all these people to profit from adult education. Some of the following techniques and devices may be used:

1. Following the teaching of literacy, the 3 R's should be taken up, then religious textbooks, current affairs, and vocational education according to the needs of each locality or district.
2. The preparation of textbooks is of prime importance, for the interests of adults are different from those of children. Materials should be compiled by writers having sufficient experience and interest in this special type of education. There is also a lack of proper post-literacy literature. This material should give necessary skill and practice in reading newspapers, books, and magazines intelligently, and provide information and knowledge of problems and subjects of wide interest.
3. Wall newspapers, educational posters, and maps should be issued

regularly, with special issues for festivals and national holidays.

4. Leaflets should be written in very easy language, and used for house to house distribution, and should contain useful information on matters of interest to the individual, community, and nation.
5. Mobile Projection Vans and equipment should be available for the composite blend of entertainment and instruction to stimulate the desire for education and to awaken interest in the various aspects of village or town improvement.
6. Traditional folk arts and crafts should be encouraged as an important organ in the drive for adult education for they provide a source of pleasure and an opportunity for creative activity and education.
7. The united cooperation of students, social workers, and voluntary agencies should be solicited to make people understand the value and need of education in our country.

The Commission believes that present facilities and conditions suggest separate organizations for the several phases of adult education discussed above. The Ministry of Education is best equipped to supervise and direct the literacy programme. It has taken the lead and should continue along present lines. A Director of Adult Literacy should be appointed under the Deputy Secretary of Teacher Education to work closely with the Teacher Training Centre and the Village Development Worker Training Centre. He should use the administrative organization recommended in Chapter XIV for schools—central, district, and local Boards of Education and administrators—to reach the villages with the programme.

His major duties would be to see (a) that materials are prepared, published, and distributed, (b) that teachers are trained, (c) that classes are organized and (d) that the entire programme is properly supervised. He should be given adequate help and the necessary funds. Further foreign aid should be solicited.

The Ministry of Planning and Development (Agriculture) has made a good start on the second phase of adult education, agriculture and home extension education, and should continue its present organization and procedures. A second training school has been proposed for the Terai side and this should speed up the programme. Substantial foreign aid is being used (USOM) and presumably will continue.

It is hoped that the cultural phase will be organized under the colleges and university extension division by the time there is real demand for this type of education. This is major function of the colleges—to carry their services into the field—and therefore may be left to them. Should they fail to meet this challenge and responsibility, then the Ministry of Education should take action to create the necessary organization.

With respect to radio and cinema education, the Commission suggests the continuance of present control until a thorough study of the problem can be made by a committee representative of all ministries affected.

Summary

In this chapter, the Commission has suggested that:

1. Adult education is an integral and essential part of a country's educational scheme, especially in a democracy.
2. An adult literacy drive is of first importance to eradicate illiteracy and pave the way for other adult education. This requires materials, teachers, and coordinated leadership. It includes reading, writing, and simple arithmetic.
3. Agriculture and home-making education are of utmost importance to the people of Nepal and should become widespread as rapidly as teachers and workers can be trained. This includes individual and class work, using demonstrations, discussion, lectures, visual aids, and printed materials.
4. Eventually there will be a yearning for cultural education knowledge of our cultural heritage, skills in fine arts and handicrafts, and greater enjoyment from music and dancing and festivals.
5. School-community libraries should be started in the villages as soon as there is sufficient demand.
6. Radio and cinema offer much for adult education, but must be carefully studied to ensure appropriate controls and safeguards against their abuse.
7. Effective programmes of adult education require systematic, strong organization and administration; for the present these activities may remain under their respective Ministries.
8. Foreign aid has been quite useful in the promotion of adult education thus far. Let it continue, and let it be expanded if possible.

CHAPTER XII

TRAINING OF TEACHERS

Introduction

The keystone of education is the teacher. Education can be no better than the teacher makes it. The educational environment is largely shaped by the teacher. The speed with which the national education scheme outlined in this Report can develop will depend upon the availability of teachers.

Teaching is an art and a science. Not everyone can become a good teacher. It has been said that "good teachers are born, not made," meaning that there are certain qualities that one seeks in the selection of teachers, some of which are inherent in individuals and lend themselves to further nurture, but there are others which may be developed through proper training. It is now generally accepted that teachers need special professional training. Selection of candidates with professional promise is essential, but proper training can contribute much to the development of truly effective teachers.

In Chapter III we saw that almost none of the teachers of the schools in Nepal today have even the barest minimum of training for their jobs. One person in all Nepal has a M.Ed. degree; perhaps half a dozen have a B.T. or B.Ed. degree; about a dozen have special training in Basic Education. All of this training was secured from Indian institutions.

In 1949, an institution for training teachers in Basic Education was established in Kathmandu. The school operated for about four years, providing professional training for a sufficient number of teachers to staff about 55 Basic schools which were opened during this period. Some of these teachers had completed high school; most of them had not. Training was discontinued in 1953.

The teachers of the other schools now operating in Nepal have virtually no professional training. A small percentage of the high school teachers hold the B.A. degree, but most of them are high school matriculates or intermediate (two-year College) failures. Teachers of the primary and middle schools have varying amounts of schooling, but no professional training.

From these facts, it may be seen that the rapid training of thousands of teachers is perhaps the first major educational task in Nepal. There is no pool of trained teachers to draw from — in fact, there is a very meager pool of *potential* candidates to draw from. Because of the absence of educational facilities in the past there are very few young men — and even fewer young women — who have had a minimum of schooling. To make matters worse, frequently this schooling has been narrowly confined to the "3 Rs." About 300 young people now pass the high school leaving examination each year in Nepal, and this meager lot must fill the first-year college classes, government positions requiring high school matriculation, and all the other vacancies open to this highly preferred, select group. From this group, already spoken for several times over, we seek 1000 new teacher candidates each year to meet the targets set up in Chapter VII.

It thus 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 sufficient 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 subject matter? Perhaps this is the source that must be tapped if we are to staff our primary schools with trained teachers.

Still another shortage exists among those qualified to direct the training of teachers. Only a very few have had any training or experience in training teachers and this was directed towards Basic Education. Just as the teachers determine the quality of education in the public schools, so the training staff determines the quality of the teachers they train and thus public education. If we are to have a fine educational system, we must have competently trained leadership at the top.

The needs for training teachers are multiple. We need thousands of trained primary school teachers quickly. But first, we must train staff members for a teacher training centre in which to train these primary school teachers. This suggests an even higher level of trained educationists to train such a staff. Finally we must upgrade our present teachers and give them professional training. These needs must be met promptly.

Principles of Education

Teaching is a noble profession. The teacher has been called "the architect of the human soul." Certainly if he does more than stuff the child's head with encyclopedic information and facts of doubtful practical value for some "final examination," he will make a lasting imprint on the character and soul of the child. The teacher who takes his task seriously, who is a humanitarian, who is interested in his fellowmen *as persons*, and who has a sincere desire to serve society, truly will be an architect.

Education in many part of the world is undergoing radical change. Until recent years, it was designed only for the economic elite. Later, and still today in many countries only the intellectual elite were permitted to pursue more than the minimum rudiments of learning. Secondary education was preparation for college. Education was isolated from real life. It was impractical and ignored the development of personality, it failed to encourage initiative or creativity and often stifled them, it largely ignored vocational training, and, for many students, it was aimless.

Education in Nepal, meager as it is, cannot escape these criticisms. The several types of schools have been designed for special limited groups, and they have largely failed even these groups. Educationists throughout the world are now trying to revitalize and reorganize education to meet the true needs of the people of their respective countries. So in Nepal, the National Education Planning Commission has tackled the problem. The very lack of a widespread system of education in Nepal, however, has simplified the task. The Commission has met the problem by designing

a programme from the very beginning, without concern for reform of the few existing schools. It has followed sound planning principles:

1. Education must serve as the most vital instrument for preserving our culture and improving our way of life — democracy.
2. Education must stem from the needs, ambitions, and aspirations of the people it is intended to serve.
3. Education in its planning and developmental stages must exemplify the democratic principles it is intended to promote.
4. Education is an active, not passive, process that involves the learner more than the teacher; the learner learns through his own experiences, by seeing and doing, not only by being told.
5. Education is a continuous, all-encompassing process that goes on both in and out of school, both before and after the school years as well as in school.
6. Education respects persons, and provides for individual differences.
7. The teacher is the keystone to the success or failure of education; he creates (or fails to create) the wholesome educational environment essential to success.

The result of this planning is a carefully designed programme for primary and secondary schools. (See Chapter VIII & IX.) The programme for the training of teachers is based on the type of schools envisioned by the Commission. The purposes and objectives of teacher training aim toward the development of teachers who can make the new education successful.

Purposes of Teacher Education

The first and major purpose of the teacher training programme is to provide competent teachers to staff the schools of Nepal. This requires an extensive supply of able young men and women as candidates, careful selection of those who show professional promise, an effective curriculum of teacher education, facilities for training, careful guidance of the trainees through the programme, and satisfactory placement in a school at the close of the training programme.

A corollary purpose is to provide training for promising young teachers now engaged in teaching in order that they may become better teachers, and may contribute to the remodeling of their schools and classrooms along lines recommended by the Commission. This will require careful selection of willing and promising candidates, and cooperation of their school heads, managing committees, and colleagues to provide relief for their temporary absence from their classrooms.

The second purpose is to provide for the development of a common curriculum and common methods for our schools. This requires complete familiarity with the primary (and/or secondary) school curriculum and a thorough grounding in the methods and instructional materials to be used in developing the curriculum. It does not demand uniformity that negates individual differences, but it should insure the enforcement of minimum standards and essentials in the schools served by the

teachers who have received common professional training.

A corollary to this second purpose is to provide for intelligent adaptation of the curriculum to various local conditions and to the individual differences of children. This requires intelligence, resourcefulness, and creativity on the part of the teacher after he gets on the job. Only hints can be given during the training process of the kinds of adaptations that may be required in each village or district.

A third purpose of teacher training is to contribute to the continuous improvement of education. Effective training should develop in each teacher an experimental attitude, and equip him with the techniques of experimental research. The teacher constantly should seek new ideas and methods. The training centre should be an experimental laboratory, and should lead in the process of keeping the national educational scheme in tune with the needs of the times and the children to be educated.

These purposes set the guiding principles for the development of the teacher training programme. They recognize the urgent need for teachers, Nepal's limited financial resources, and the crucial importance of education in this young democracy.

Objectives of Teacher Education

The objectives of teacher education grow out of an analysis of the classroom teacher's job. They represent the needs of a competent teacher in all his responsibilities, not only as a teacher, but as a person, a civic leader, a foster guardian, and in many other capacities. For every need there is an objective to be fulfilled; and for every objective, experiences must be planned to develop the competencies implied in the objective. The needs of the primary school teacher and the secondary school teacher are essentially the same, but because the emphasis on training at present is on primary education, the objectives which follow are presented with the primary teacher in mind.

First, the teacher should be professionally competent. He should:

1. Understand children and possess skill in working with them,
2. Understand the nature of the learning process and possess skill in directing children in learning activities,
3. Be a philanthropist and a bit of a philosopher,
4. Possess an open mind and the knowledge and techniques of educational research,
5. Know how to plan courses, units, and daily lessons,
6. Know how to engage children in planning and directing their own activities,
7. Be able to direct children in controlling themselves, and know how to use discipline when necessary,
8. Be competent in teaching skills and other subjects,

9. Be able to help children evaluate their own growth and progress,
10. Be able to keep necessary records and perform other routine administrative tasks.

Second, the teacher should possess a broad general education, to service him as a teacher and as an adult. He should be familiar with, and/or skilled in:

1. The history, geography, economics and culture of Nepal,
2. The history, geography, economics and culture of Asian neighbours,
3. The history, geography, economics and culture of selected Western countries, and the world in general,
4. Principles of science underlying daily life in Nepal,
5. Principles of health and hygiene necessary to personal and community living,
6. Principles of first aid,
7. Fundamental arithmetical concepts,
8. Language techniques of reading, writing, speaking, and listening, in Nepali and, to the extent necessary, in his mother tongue,
9. Fine arts, music, literature, and general culture of Nepal,
10. Rudiments of Nepalese law.

Third, the teacher should be personally competent in the basic vocational crafts and in the skill required to teach them. He should understand, have skill in, and have aesthetic appreciation of, the processes involved in:

1. Providing food for oneself, including growing, preparing, and cooking in a sanitary and nutritious way,
2. Providing clothing for oneself, including growing cotton and wool, and spinning (carding) and weaving it (or purchasing it wisely), designing and making clothes and accessories, and making household necessities such as blankets, towels, and similar articles,
3. Housing oneself, whether with bamboo, wood, brick, or other materials, including preparation of raw materials, house planning and construction, and the making of furniture and accessories.

Fourth, the teacher should be well developed personally and skilled in the process of continuously improving himself. He should:

1. Have impeccable character,
2. Have a pleasing personality,
3. Have a good physique,
4. Be healthy, both mentally and physically,
5. Be well balanced emotionally,
6. Hold to high personal and professional ethics,

7. Believe and practice freedom of religion, toleration,
8. Be a competent civic leader.

These objectives set the bases for organizing the teacher training programme, just as the purposes determined the objectives. They represent high ideals; perhaps none can attain perfection in them. They provide, however, the direction and the guide-lines for each trainee, and point up cogently the responsibilities of the staff members of the training institutions.

Organization of the Programme

A careful analysis of the needs for teacher training and the limitations imposed by existing conditions suggest four types of training, which may at first, and even later, constitute separate programmes, but which should be carefully coordinated under a single agency, and perhaps a single institutional organization.

First and foremost, the need for large numbers of primary school teachers should be met by the establishment of some short-term training courses. Ideally, these courses should be of at least a year's duration, especially when we consider the need not only for professional training but also the need for general education by most of the potential candidates. Few if any will have any background in social studies, science, health, and vocational crafts. On the other hand, the need is urgent and funds for training are limited. Therefore, it may be possible to provide a minimum training in six months and thus double the output of teachers and stretch twice as far not only the funds but also the efforts of the training staff. Therefore, the Commission suggests that this first need be met by short-term courses which would be offered at a teacher training centre, first in Kathmandu and later at branches in other parts of the country. It is suggested that these courses be set up on a six-months basis during a trial period of one or two years ; if the period proves to be too short, it may then be lengthened.

Second, courses immediately should be established for training staff members of the teacher training centre. To make this training practical, and not delay the training of primary school teachers, it is suggested that one or more qualified specialists in teacher education be brought into Nepal from some foreign country using modern educational methods, who could direct the establishment of the training centre and at the same time supervise and train the staff in modern methods of education. This training should eventually be taken over by a teachers college, but many staff members could be trained on the job by the use of a foreign specialist.

Third, as soon as possible courses should be offered for the upgrading of our present teachers. These might be three or six-month courses offered at the training centre or by mobile teams that would go to various parts of the country for the necessary periods. Or there might be two weeks "workshops" to take up only one major problem or phase of education. Or courses might be offered on an "extension basis," meeting say, three times a week for two hours each period for eight or twelve weeks. Various arrangements of this sort could be made, and *must* be made if our present teachers are to adopt the new curriculum proposed by the Commission. They must have instruction in new methods of teaching, new patterns of

organization, new materials for learning, and the new curriculum itself.

Fourth, all of these training activities point to the establishment of a degree granting college of education in the very near future. In order that this college may be established along modern lines, it is suggested that the nucleus of a staff for it say five to ten members be sent abroad for a year of study. Such a group could examine types of organization abroad, methods of teacher training, and related problems, and at the same time could become specialists in child psychology, methods of teaching, curriculum, school administration, etc. Upon their return, they could then set up a teachers college to take over and coordinate all of these training activities. Such a college might offer several programmes:

1. A four-year combined liberal arts and professional programme above high school matriculation leading to a B. Ed. degree. If the College of Education were located near Tri-Chandra College, arrangements might be made to utilize part of their courses, but courses during this four-year period should be taught by modern methods that prospective teachers can use, and the curriculum should be organized along lines similar to the patterns of organization found in the primary and secondary schools to make the learning experiences more functional for the prospective teachers. (The professional part of this programme might condense into one-year for those holding the B.A. or B.S. degree.) Persons completing these programmes should become master teachers, and after a few years of experience, continue with graduate training and then move into positions of high professional responsibility.
2. A graduate programme for those holding the bachelor of education degree and having had some rather successful teaching experience, leading to the M.Ed. degree. This training should serve to provide a pool of well qualified persons who would join the staff of the short-term training courses; it might also serve others who would join (or have already joined) the staffs of the other colleges. This should be largely professional training and only those with a broad general education should be admitted. For some years to come, this will be the highest professional degree obtainable in Nepal, and therefore should maintain very high standards and admit only top-caliber candidates.
3. An extensive programme of field courses, or Extension Courses. Such courses might be counted towards a degree, either the B.Ed. or the M.Ed., but should not constitute a degree programme by themselves. They should be designed for upgrading teachers on the job. They should be offered at hours and days and places convenient to teachers holding regular teaching positions. This might mean early morning hours or late afternoon hours, Saturdays or vacation periods at Kathmandu, Nepalgunj, Biratnagar, Birgunj, Patan, Pokhara, Ilam, Palpa, or any other centre in the country where sufficient demand exists to justify a mobile staff and an adequate library.
4. Short-term courses, preferably of a year's duration, for undergraduate students, and less than high school matriculates if necessary to fill the

need for classroom teachers in the public schools, leading to a teaching certificate.

These would be the major functions of the College of Education. An organized college would give prestige to the programmes and provide essential coordination. The Commission believes that prompt action in selecting and training a nucleus staff could result in the establishment of a College of Education by 1957.

In the meantime, the temporary emergency programmes involving the training of a staff for the short-term Teacher Training Centre, training primary school teachers, and upgrading present teachers, should move forward.

Curricula for Teacher Training

The curricula for these several different programmes should be developed jointly by those responsible for teaching the courses and the trainees. In this formative stage the opportunity for enlisting the trainees in cooperative planning should not be overlooked. Not only will the trainees have worthwhile contributions to make, but they can offer firsthand knowledge and assistance in an analysis of the actual needs of those who participate in the programme. It is suggested that preliminary plans for each training programme be developed by the staff of the courses, representatives of the Ministry of Education, and an experienced specialist in teacher education from abroad. Then detailed plans can be developed with the help of the trainees as the pi programmes get underway. Bearing in mind this suggestion, the Commission offers only hints regarding the nature of the curricula for these programmes.

The short-term courses for training primary school teachers should insure familiarity with the content of the primary school curriculum and the development of professional competency to teach it. As indicated above, six months (or even a year for that matter) is too short a period for such training, but if set up on an eight-hour day, six day week, with a minimum of holidays, it should be possible to give the trainee the basic rudiments of such training and enable him to begin teaching and carry on his continued training by himself as he teaches.

The primary school curriculum recognizes general education, vocational (craft) education and personal development. The teacher training curriculum should recognize these, and, in addition, concentrate on professional education. In the realm of general education, most trainees will probably be weak in social studies, especially the history and cultural development of Nepal, Asia, and the rest of the world. This vacuum should be filled by an adult-level replica of the primary course in social studies, not by history, economics, etc. as separate subjects. Areas in which there is a dearth of knowledge and written material (e.g. early cultural development of Nepal) might provide subjects for direct research and training in research methods. Staff members and trainees should join in developing textbook materials in these areas, both for primary school children and for adults.

Another anticipated shortage on the part of trainees is in the Nepali language. It is known that many are not proficient in written Nepali and some are quite weak in conversational Nepali. If the teachers are to promote the Nepali language and use it as a medium of instruction, they will need intensive training in its

use. Classification tests should be used to discover the status of language proficiency (in Nepali) and to group trainees according to their needs.

Most trainees will be limited in their knowledge of science and health. These should be taught, at least above the level of understanding expected of primary school children and necessary for successful adult life. Arithmetic too, should be developed to such a level. Here again classification tests might prove beneficial in determining the amount of time needed to bring trainees up to a minimum level.

Because primary education will be terminal for most children, considerable emphasis is placed on minimum vocational training for them. Very few trainees will have had such training or be familiar with the vocational crafts. Their training programme must include practical craft work insofar as possible. Of first order here should be familiarity with the aims of the crafts and the primary school curriculum. Some degree of skill might be perfected in one craft, but most teachers will have to rely on help from the village artisans who practise the craft as a vocation. Local craftsmen will undoubtedly be willing to help teach the skills of the crafts to the children and the teacher will thus learn the processes of the craft himself while on the job. He should have sufficient background to teach the related information and develop the general outlines of Feeding Ourselves, Housing Ourselves, and Clothing Ourselves, but he cannot be expected to develop the essential skills for these crafts in six months or even a year.

It is believed that most trainees will have had some experiences in the area of personal development. Most of them will have participated in games and sports and will have their own spiritual and moral background. They will, however, need help in developing an effective programme for primary school children. They will need to learn many games for children, both in-doors and out of doors. They should become familiar with stories that may be used to develop patriotism, civic responsibilities, and values.

Much of the curriculum must be centered around the professional aspects of education, for most trainees will be completely lacking in understanding or practice in the area. They will need help in learning to understand children, the way they learn, their interests, and capabilities. They will need direct instruction and practice in planning and teaching learning experiences. They will need guidance in dealing with administrative problems of school community relations. They will also need extensive practice-teaching experiences.

In summary, the curriculum for short term training courses should include (a) general education with emphasis on social studies, Nepali language, science, and arithmetic ; (b) craft education (c) personal development, and (d) professional education with emphasis on the purposes of education, nature of the learner and the learning process, curriculum planning, preparation of instructional materials, general and special methods of teaching, school organization and administration, school community relations, and practice-teaching.

The training for the staff of the short-term courses should be practical and should be adapted to the specific needs of the staff members. If a teacher education specialist is made available to direct this group in the development of a Teacher Training Centre, much practical training will be gained in the very process of

establishing short term training courses for primary school teachers. The specialist will be able to assist the staff in the actual solution of various professional problems. He will also be able to brief the staff in areas where understanding is lacking, and direct them to professional books that will help them in meeting their needs. For example, he should be able to discuss with them modern concepts of child psychology which they in turn could relay to the trainees. In similar manner each of the other phases of professional education discussed above might be developed through the cooperative efforts of the specialist and the staff members.

If the specialist is available during this organizational period he will be able to demonstrate methods of working with a group which should carry over into the Training Centre and become the basis for methods which the members of the staff will use with their trainees. Such an arrangement offers a rare opportunity for the practical training of staff members in professional education. Not only will the staff be able to profit from the specialist's experience in meeting their problems and setting up the Teacher Training Centre, but they will at the same time be gaining in their own professional knowledge and experience. If the College of Education staff nucleus is selected from this group of Training Centre staff members this experience in setting up a training institution and working with the specialist will provide an excellent prelude to their training abroad. The curriculum for training staff members for the short-term courses, both during the preliminary period and after the establishment of the Teachers College should emphasize professional education and assume that other needs either have been met or will be met by the staff members under training through their own endeavors.

The curriculum for those who are sent abroad to become the nucleus staff of a College of Education should be planned by the specialist and the head of the institution at which they will make their headquarters. As indicated above this group will have certain specific responsibilities and therefore the curriculum should be planned to help them meet these responsibilities. First of all, seminars should be arranged to provide for planning the curriculum and organizational details of the College of Education. Supplementing these seminars there should be courses on the organization of teacher education in other countries, and the group should be given the opportunity to visit typical teacher training institutions, both in U.S. and Europe to study their curricula, organization, etc. The curriculum should provide general professional training with emphasis on newer concepts of child psychology, methods of study, pupil evaluation, school administration, audio-visual aids, guidance and counseling, etc.

In addition to this, the new College of Education professors should have an opportunity to become specialists in their respective fields of interest. Individually, they should enroll in specialized and advanced courses in child psychology, school administration, curriculum planning, primary school methods, adult education, etc.

Finally, these professors should have two or three months of interne-ship, or on-the-job experience, in their fields of specialization. For example, the man who specializes in school administration should spend two or three months working with the head of a modern primary school, the man who specializes in child psychology should spend two or three months working in a child development laboratory or

clinic, the man who specializes in curriculum planning should participate for two or three months as a member of a curriculum planning committee, etc. Thus, the curriculum for this group should include seminars for planning the College of Education general professional education, special professional education, and internships.

There should be no curriculum, as such, for the *extension programme*. These courses as a group should not constitute a curriculum but rather should be offered as separate individual courses to meet specific needs of various group of teachers. One of these courses might deal with the new primary curriculum, another with new methods of teaching, another with audio visual aids, etc. In each case the course will constitute only part of the total professional training of the students who enroll in it, and thus the total programme of offerings through extension work will not constitute a single curriculum or programme for any trainee.

The curriculum for the four-year degree programme should provide a general liberal arts training plus professional education. This programme is of sufficient length to ensure full and effective training in the social studies, science, language, and mathematics, health and personal development. At least one-third of this programme should be devoted to professional education, including the topics suggested for the short-term courses, but in considerably more detail. Students should have more extensive opportunities to work with school children. Even in the first year of training, arrangements should be made for students to work with children in small projects. In the second year students might sponsor Scout groups and children's clubs. In the third year short periods of practice teaching might be included, and in the fourth year, three to six months of internship teaching should be an integral part of the training programme. Typical programmes of a similar character in foreign countries should be studied and the specific needs of Nepal considered by the nucleus staff to be sent abroad. The details of these curricula should be planned by this group,

In the development of all these curricula, modern methods of teaching should be stressed. Trainees should be taught by modern methods to provide demonstrations in these methods. They should study the newer techniques of modern methodology and should be encouraged to use these methods in their practice teaching experiences with children. They should become adept in helping pupils to plan and direct their own activities, in using discussion methods, in making profitable excursions, in using visual aids, in surveying community needs and activities, in undertaking realistic projects involving the experimental growing of food, writing the history of their villages, helping to re-build the village well, and similar activities. Trainees should become familiar with all of the written materials and other instructional aids available, and should assume responsibility for helping to develop new materials. Because of the shortage of good instructional materials, teachers must learn to improvise and develop their own materials as needed.

Evaluating Trainee Progress

The progress of trainees in the various programmes discussed above must be measured from time to time in order that they and their teachers may be aware of the amount and direction of progress. This will provide a basis for revising the

curriculum and redirecting the activities if necessary. Student evaluation is also necessary to give the staff members a basis for revising their teaching plans and procedures. Presumably certain goals will have been set up for each class, for each course, and for each curriculum. Only through student evaluation can progress towards these goals be known.

It is important that the amount of this progress be known periodically and frequently. The traditional concept of a final examination to determine whether sufficient progress has been made to graduate the candidate has not been planned in modern education. This method results in tremendous waste of human resources and in degradation of the student through failure. It is far better to know daily, weekly, monthly, and yearly how the student is progressing so that appropriate steps may be taken to guide his education before it is too late, therefore, a wide variety of evaluation techniques should be used and they should be used frequently. Paper and pencil tests, essays, oral presentation, committee reports, special projects, observation, laboratory performance, use of the library, general attitude and spirit, ability to cooperate and work with others and many other indices and devices should be used both by the teacher and by the students themselves in evaluating progress. Periodic reports should be submitted to the trainees and their guardians at least every month or two to advise them of their progress and to provide a continuous running record of the work of each student. This progress report should be carefully studied by the student and his faculty advisor so that appropriate necessary steps may be taken for him to profit from his training in a maximum way.

When this system of continuous student evaluation is used, then there must be a parallel system of *accounting* which will provide a continuous record of the amount of work completed. In western countries this is done through what is known as a "credit system." For example, some institutions divide the academic year into three "quarters." During each quarter the average student attends classes 15 to 18 hours per week. For each hour attended per week for a quarter term he receives one quarter-hour credit. Thus in a quarter term he will earn 15 to 18 quarter-hours, or in a year 45 to 54 quarter-hours. Four years' work would thus constitute approximately 200 quarter-hours. One of the advantages of this system of accounting is that a student may accelerate his programme by attending special terms held during the long vacation period, or he may decelerate his programme if he wishes to be gainfully employed part-time. A student would not be required to carry a full load or attend full time, but if he didn't it would take him longer to complete the work for his degree. A student who meets a class three times a week in one term and successfully passes the course would receive three quarter-hours of credit. If he took another course the next term he might gain another three (or two or four) quarter-hours of credit. Thus he could adjust the speed of his education to his own needs and requirements.

Both the four-year degree programme and the one-year graduate programme of the College of Education should have certain requirements in terms of quarter-hours of credit required for completion. Then a person might work off part of this required credit through "extension courses" taken at various intervals. If a person could not devote full time to the training required for the master's degree, he might accumulate part of this credit through extension courses.

This system of student accounting provides flexibility which will be quite essential in the rapid training and upgrading of teachers in Nepal. Furthermore, it eliminates the necessity for a final examination and thus reduces the emphasis on academic learning and cramming for the final examination. It is suggested that those responsible for planning the College of Education give serious consideration to this system of accounting and that it be introduced at the time the College of Education is established.

Recruitment, Selection and Guidance of Students

Throughout this chapter there have been numerous references to the shortage of well qualified candidates for teacher training. This situation will probably exist for many years. In many western countries primary school teaching is a woman's profession, and there is no reason why this could not become true in Nepal after a generation or two during which education for women might be popularized. Women are better adapted to working with children of primary school age than men. It must be recognized, however, that the present shortage of qualified candidates is even much greater among women than among men.

One of the functions of the various teacher training programmes will need to be the *recruitment* of able young men and women. It is suggested that representatives of the Teacher Training Centre and the College of Education periodically visit the high schools of Nepal to talk to students and try to interest them in the teaching profession. If the time comes when there is a surplus of applicants for teacher training institutions, then the standards for admission may be gradually raised. But until that time comes the academic standards may well be sublimated (within reason) to other standards such as character, personality, vitality, interest, health and intelligence. The Commission suggests that those concerned with the training of teachers consider recruitment as one of their major responsibilities and plan definite procedures that will bring qualified men and women into teaching profession.

Attention should also be given to the selection of trainees who desire to be admitted to the training programmes. Admittedly, the present shortage of candidates makes selection difficult, but regardless of the number of candidates available, minimum standards should be adhered to. Even during this present period of personnel shortage, the teaching profession should not be allowed to become the "dumping ground" for those who cannot succeed in other lines of work. No candidate should be admitted to any teacher training programme who will not be a credit to the teaching profession. First consideration should always be given to the children who will be influenced by the teacher. Therefore none must be selected who do not have high ideals, morals, and standards.

It will be impossible to attain perfect selection of candidates. No matter how much care is exercised in the selection process, some trainees will need extensive *guidance and counseling* to improve their weaknesses and some may need to be dropped from the programme. Systematic arrangements should be made for counseling and guiding students to the end of their own improvement and the training of only the best qualified candidates possible.

Certification of Teachers

At the present time there are no restrictions in Nepal on who may teach school. Almost anyone who professes to be teacher may secure a position and be paid for what may or may not be serviceable teaching. Because of the dire shortage of teachers in the past it has not been practical to try to control the situation. It will be necessary for the next decade or so to allow untrained and even unqualified persons to teach in the schools. However, with the inauguration of teacher training programme the Ministry of Education should set up a teachers' certification system that would provide controls on those who so vitally affect the lives of the younger generation. Teachers who successfully complete regularized training programmes should be given certificates authorizing them to teach in Nepal schools appropriate to the level of training. Other persons who have had successful teaching experience should likewise be granted teaching certificates, but these certificates should be conditional upon securing professional training at the earliest possible moment. Until there is an adequate supply of teachers it will be necessary to grant the Zonal Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors authority to issue temporary teaching certificates to persons who fall short of even minimum standards. The Ministry of Education should, however, look forward to the time when no one will be permitted to teach school who has not been properly trained and certified.

It is suggested that the Ministry of Education establish teachers' certification as a specific and definite function of its department. At present this will be only a part-time job for an appropriate official, but it may eventually develop into a full time responsibility. This person should be given authority to automatically certify anyone who has completed certain specified teacher training programmes, to set up standards and examinations for certifying other qualified teachers, to grant temporary certifying measures to zonal education officers if necessary, and to keep systematic records on all certified teachers. In this way the teachers' certificates will become an official introduction or admission to the teaching profession.

Placement of Teachers

Still another responsibility of teacher training institutions is the placing of teachers after they have completed their training. Although most of these teachers probably will be sent to schools partly financed by the Central Government, the instructors of the training institutions are best qualified to fit these new teachers into positions most promising to their potentialities. The arbitrary posting of teachers without regard for their interests, wishes, capabilities, personalities, and previous backgrounds can only result in unhappy teachers and therefore ineffective teaching. The first teaching position is perhaps the teachers' most important one. It is in this position that he learns to apply what he has learnt in the teacher training institution. It is his first year of experience that largely determines whether he will be a success or a failure in the teaching profession.

Therefore, it is suggested that the training institutions be given some responsibility, in cooperation with the Department of Education, of placing the teachers in their first post. This could be effected by the Department of Education and the posting authority in the training institution preparing a list of vacancies, which could then be filled after considering the interests and potentialities of the newly certified teachers.

Teacher Welfare

It is commonly known that the plight of the teacher in Nepal is a sorry one. This was brought out in Chapter III. But it cannot greatly improve until we have a large pool of well-qualified, candidates; but who can be attracted to teaching as a career under present conditions?

Obviously, there must be some immediate improvement in the amenities of teachers if we are to recruit able young men and women to our teacher-training institutions. The Commission believes that a strong national teachers' association could do much to improve conditions. Although today's teachers are few, scattered, and untrained, a beginning of an organization could be made. In its early days it would be weak, but as teachers are trained at the Teacher Training Centre they could join and swell the rolls. Such an association should be concerned not only with general teacher welfare, but with strengthening the profession by setting up standards and a code of ethics, and policing its own organization to weed out the unfit and unsuited. There could be local associations, bound together by district and national representation and activities. Monthly meetings could be held locally; semi-annual meetings could be held district-wise, and a national convention of representatives could be held annually.

One of the first tasks of such an association, or a special committee in the interim period, should be to set up a uniform, fair, single-salary scale for all teachers, based on training and experience, rather than type of position. Although this will not solve all the problems of the teacher's welfare, it will go far in making the profession more attractive. It should include provisions for sick leave, annual leave, assignments, travel, retirement pay, and other amenities.

Summary

This chapter has attempted to outline a programme for the training of teachers. The proposals made herein have been conditioned by the urgent, immediate need for teachers as well as long range needs. Specifically the Commission has suggested that:

1. Effective training of teachers is the keystone to the entire educational programme for Nepal. Learning can be no more effective than the teacher who directs it, and the teacher can be no more effective than his training permits. Therefore, considerable time and attention must be given to the development of an effective teacher training programme.
2. This programme must meet both immediate and long-range needs. The rapid growth of schools during the past five years will certainly be many times exceeded in the next five years whether teachers are trained or not. Therefore, it is extremely urgent that some kind of training be provided as soon as possible if only on a temporary basis. Such training should be inaugurated at once and developed and expanded as rapidly as possible. At the same time the foundation should be laid for a permanent programme of teacher training.
3. Teacher training should be based on sound principles of education and democratic procedures. It should be based on actual needs of teachers in Nepal. It should be designed in terms of the educational pattern laid down in Chapter VII. It should capitalize on the experience of other countries in modern teacher education, but it should be peculiar to the needs of the education and culture which it is designed to serve.
4. The purpose of teacher education should be (a) to provide competent teachers to staff the schools of Nepal, both by training new teachers and by upgrading existing teachers; (b) to provide for the development of a common curriculum and common methods in our schools, with appropriate adaptation to local conditions; and (c) to contribute to the continuous improvement of education.
5. The objectives of teacher education should include (a) professional competency, (b) a broad general education, (c) competency in teaching vocational crafts, and (d) personal competency as an individual and a leader in a community.
6. There should be organized at once some short-term courses for the training of primary school teachers. For perhaps a year or two an experimental attempt should be made to train teachers on a six months basis, but if this proves unsuccessful the period should be lengthened to one year. This programme should be accelerated to the extent that at least 1000 teachers per year will be trained after 1956 or 1957 at the latest. It is expected that this programme will continue for many years; as soon as a College of Education is established this programme should become a part of the total programme of the College of Education. It would be highly desirable if this programme could be

guided by a foreign specialist in teacher education.

7. If this programme of short-term courses is to succeed, training must be provided for the staff members who will teach the course. In the interest of starting the courses immediately it is felt that these staff members should be trained "on the job" while they are starting a Teacher Training Centre rather than being sent abroad for training. This training could be implemented by the use of a foreign specialist in teacher education.
8. Insofar as practical, special courses should be set up for the upgrading of teachers now in service, including college teachers; such courses might vary in length, time, place, and content to meet a variety of needs. Although this is an important phase of training, major precedence should be given to the training of new teachers.
9. Long-range plans must place emphasis on the organization and establishment of a College of Education. To this end a group of qualified Nepalese educationists should be sent abroad for study in modern methods of teachers education. This group would then become the staff of the College of Education, which would eventually take over all teacher training activities in the country. This college should provide (a) a four-year B. Ed. programme, (b) an M. Ed. graduate programme, (c) extension courses that would blanket the country, and (d) a one-year undergraduate programme for the training of primary school teachers.
10. In order to implement the suggestions of items 7, 8, and 9 above, foreign aid should be solicited which would include the technical assistance of one or more specialists in teacher education, foreign study grants, and financial aid in carrying on the teacher training activities outlined in this chapter.
11. The curriculum of these programmes should be cooperatively planned by the Ministry of Education, staff members of the proposed institutions, trainees of these institutions, and a foreign specialist in teacher education. They should include general education, craft education, professional education, and personal development as needed and as time permits. Above all they should be carefully adapted to the needs of the trainees for which they are designed.
12. These training programmes should be taught by the most modern methods known. They should be "models" of sound methods of teaching that trainees may use in their own schools. They should recognize the shortage of instructional materials and should meet this problem both through the development of new instructional aids and through teaching trainees how to improvise and cope with situation as they are bound to find them when they go out to villages to open new schools.
13. Teacher training activities should be evaluated along lines consistent with modern education. Continuous and varied assessment methods should be substituted for the final examination. A system of "credit hours" should be inaugurated to provide modern student accounting

and assist teachers who wish to upgrade themselves by devoting only part time training while they continue with their regular teaching assignments.

14. Careful attention should be given to recruitment, selection, and continuous guidance of teacher trainees.
15. A system of teachers' certification should be inaugurated which would ensure that only qualified teachers are permitted to teach in the schools and would provide a centralised record of those qualified teachers.
16. Because of the importance of initial placement of new teachers, the training institutions should be given this responsibility inasmuch as the staff members are best qualified to determine the most suitable placement for these young teachers and to profit from the familiarity with the experiences of these young people during the first year of teaching.
17. A national teachers association should be formed to set up standards and a code of ethics, and to strengthen the teaching profession.
18. A salary scale based on training and experience, and provisions for leave, retirement, and amenities should be established immediately.

CHAPTER XIII

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Introduction

Three factors always are to be considered in the educational experiences of children. There is, of course, the learner; and the importance of the second factor, the teacher, has been pointed out in the previous chapter. But there is another significant factor, and that is the physical and material environment of learning. To be sure, the teacher is part of this environment—the human phase—and buildings and equipment (to be dealt with in Chapter XVI) constitute a part of it. But textbooks, reference books, audio-visual aids — in short, what are usually called "instructional materials" — also play a very significant role in the education of children. It is this aspect of the educational environment that this chapter is concerned with.

For learning to take place, the child must discover an interest in some matter or problem. He will explore this by himself if left to his devices — and this constitutes a highly desirable method of learning at certain times — but usually the teacher is present to guide the learner, to suggest ways of studying the problem, and sources of information. But nothing can be more frustrating to both the teacher and learner than to find no instructional aids to promote a good learning experience. Individual research and experimentation are effective methods of learning, but even these activities break down in the absence of instructional tools.

Next to the shortage of teachers, the most serious handicap to good educational experiences in the schools of Nepal today is the almost total lack of instructional aids. In nearly every classroom below the high school level the only teaching aids found are a few paper-back, well-worn pamphlets, frequently not in the Nepali language, occasionally a map or two (usually obsolete!), and perhaps some slates, and a small chalkboard. In the high school classroom, some bound textbooks may be found, but rarely in Nepali. Libraries are seldom found in the schools, and encyclopedias, reference books, fiction, attractive and illustrated textbooks, modern maps and globes, and picture collections, simply do not exist. There are no data available on the extent of materials of this sort in the schools, but a visit to some of the best schools soon convinces the visitor that the situation is as described here, or worse.

The Commission recognizes this shortage of instructional materials as a major problem in developing national universal education. It must be attacked simultaneously with the other problems of training teachers, finance, buildings, and administration. The various suggestions that follow are intended to meet the problem and eventually flood the schools with fine, modern, interesting, and effective aids of all sorts.

Scope of Materials Needed

Instructional materials may be defined as any things or objects that assist the learning experience. For convenience of discussion, they may be divided into several

categories. First, there is the teacher who not only guides the child in his learning experience, but is many times a day a *source of information*. He answers the children's questions, reads to them, tells them stories, gives a hint here on behaviour, a hint there on how to solve an arithmetic problem. But the child must become independent of the teacher by the time he leaves school, so there must be other learning aids that can carry into adult life for individual, unguided use.

Second, there are other human and community resources that can be used to enrich the learning environment. There are in every community people who are willing to help children learn. It may be someone who has traveled outside the district who can tell of his travels. It may be the Village Development Worker who can explain the science of fertilizing the soil or improving the crop production through the use of better seeds, or why we use DDT. It may be local craftsmen who can teach the children to weave or make bricks or sew. There are many human sources of knowledge and skill in every community and these persons should be called on frequently in our modern schools.

In addition, every community abounds with activities and points of interest and learning that children should visit as part of their education. An entire class may be taken to a grist mill to learn of its operation; a high school class might well sit in a Panchayat meeting to learn the ways of democracy. Demonstrations in agriculture, a small industry, an example of erosion, and many similar activities should be made the bases for profitable educational excursions.

Also, there may be objects of interest in the homes of some villagers that can be brought to school for display, such as curios, rock collections, small pets, and other items of interest. Every community is rich in human and material resources which should become part of the educational environment. These resources and their use have been discussed in more detail in Chapters VIII and IX.

Third, there is a vast group of man-made — printed and otherwise manufactured — materials. These include the following:

1. Books — textbooks, encyclopedias, dictionaries, other reference books, supplementary reading books, laboratory manuals, workbooks, etc.
2. Magazines, newspapers, pamphlets, etc,
3. Maps, globes, charts, graphs, pictorial and other graphic material
4. Pictures

5. Motion picture films and slides (which require projection equipment)
6. Records and recordings (which require equipment to play them)

These are the most critical shortage at the present time. For them there is no substitute. Community resources are ready for the using, but these materials for the most part must be prepared and manufactured.

Fourth, there is the physical equipment of the classroom and laboratory. These may be desks and benches, or mats and writing boards. There should be a blackboard, bulletin board, sand table for primary games, science equipment, agricultural tools, chulas, etc. There should be suitable protection from the weather in the form of some kind of shelter. There should be adequate play area. All of these like the other things mentioned above, help to build a rich educational environment. Buildings, equipment, and supplies are further discussed in Chapter XVI.

Selection of Instructional Aids

With respect to some of the above instructional aids, the problem is one of selecting suitable and effective materials. To the extent that these things are available, they should be used, but in most cases in Nepal they will have to be prepared and manufactured. However, some day there will be many competitive items available and then the problem of selection will arise. For example, there may be three or five or seven different social studies text books available for the fifth grade. Several sets of maps manufactured by different firms, or science equipment of different makes may be offered for sale. Which should be purchased? Who should determine this? In some countries, textbooks are produced by the government; in others, they are produced by private publishers and sold on competitive markets. Which plan should be encouraged? These problems may not be pressing now, but they should be anticipated, prepared for, and thus met and solved scientifically.

In the matter of selection, the Commission suggests that a group of experienced educators be assigned the task of (a) setting up criteria for all kinds of instructional aids, (b) examining all materials to be offered for sale in schools and (c) issuing from time to time a list of approved material. For example, textbook criteria should include: accuracy, adaptability to the proper age level of children, attractiveness, durability, interesting, well illustrated, etc. Map criteria should deal with size, colour, clarity, purpose, being up to date, etc. Science equipment criteria should emphasize appropriateness, simplicity, economy, durability, etc. For each type of material there should be clear-cut, specific criteria that would serve to guide the producer and manufacturer in developing useful materials and which would guide the group in eliminating spurious, unsuitable material.

It would not be feasible for a single group to examine and pass judgment on all types of material. Therefore, the group should be free to co-opt additional members or to establish sub-groups to select specific types of materials. For, example, one sub-group might examine science textbooks and materials, another arithmetic books, etc., another might examine maps, etc.

In some states and countries a single textbook for each subject for each grade is selected by the Government authorities and only this one may be used in the

schools. This practice narrows the learning environment because many well-trained teachers, using modern methods of teaching, will want to use several textbooks in the same subject. A better plan is to place on the approved list all the materials that meet the established criteria and let each teacher choose the materials that he feels will be best for his class. Thus, the approved list will aid, not handicap, the teacher in his selection of materials.

Preparation and Production of Materials

As indicated previously, there are a few materials available from which to select suitable ones for our schools today. A tremendous task lies ahead in the preparation and production of a wide variety of learning aids. This involves (a) preparation, (b) production or manufacturing, and (c) distribution and selling. The Commission feels that this work, and that of selecting materials as described above, should be supervised and coordinated by a high-level Instructional Materials Commission that would be comprised of five to seven outstanding practicing educationists who are familiar with the professional, business, and administrative aspects of the task. Such a commission should be appointed by the Minister of Education or elected by the Education Board, or by the National Teacher's Association, if such is formed, with staggered terms for the members so that not more than one third of them are new at any one time. The Commission should be directly responsible to the Secretary of Education, but should work in cooperation with the Deputy Secretaries responsible for primary education, secondary education, and higher education. The Commission should meet as often as necessary and should be primarily an executive and coordinating commission. Committees on Selection, Preparation, Production, Distribution, and other matters should be appointed by the Commission, with a Commission member as chairman of each committee. In this way the work would be distributed among many qualified educationists and carried out expeditiously.

The Commission and its committee on preparation of materials should consider ways and means of encouraging the rapid production of suitable textbooks and other materials. There should be financial encouragement through direct employment of writers, payment of lump-sum grants for acceptable manuscripts, or payment of royalties on published materials. But there should be more : the committee should survey the needs and outline these in a manual for writers, together with criteria and standards to be followed. At the same time, the committee should examine books and other materials in other languages with the view to direct translation or adaptation and translation by writers employed for this purpose. (It goes without saying that *all materials should be produced in Nepali* if we are to promote our national language.) This committee on preparation of materials should publish early a statement of a programme to be pursued, thus giving direction and assistance to those who are inclined to help on this task.

In addition to a major effort directed towards the preparation of textbooks, some attention should be given to the preparation of cultural and educational films and slides. Through these media, much of the historical and geographical heritage of our country could be brought to our youth. Science and crafts could be enlivened through the addition of a Nepali commentary to foreign films now available in these

subjects. Slides could be made locally to illustrate many phases of the curriculum suggested in Chapters VIII and IX. Even though electrical power is not available in most areas, it will gradually be introduced; in the meantime kerosene projectors can be used.

Furthermore, educational radio programs should be prepared and inexpensive battery operated receiving sets distributed to the schools. Both of these programmes will be quite expensive and foreign aid should be solicited to assist in them.

The Committee on publication of materials should be closely allied to the one on preparation, or one committee might undertake both tasks. To make an immediate attack on the problem, the Commission and its publication Committee should arrange for a minimum amount of printing to be done on modern Indian presses. The target for this immediate programme might be one illustrated textbook (in color, if possible) for each subject for each of the primary school grades (where the shortage is most acute), one or two weekly newspapers, a minimum set of maps. But this programme would be temporary at best.

The Commission believes that *a modern educational press located in Nepal* is essential to the solution of this problem. If we are to have 300,000 children in school in ten years, this calls for the publication of more than a million textbooks and other materials per year. If these materials are to have maximum value in the educational process, they should be well illustrated in color and prepared along modern lines. This will require a large publishing firm, with considerable outlay of capital and operating funds.

It is hoped that foreign aid may be available for such an undertaking. Specifically, the Commission suggests the training of key personnel abroad (an editor-in-chief, business manager, shop engineer, and machine operators); the procurement of equipment to turn out the quantities of materials suggested above and a building to house the equipment; and initial financing until the press can be self-sustaining. Such a press should be under the Ministry of Education or the University and might be known as the National or University Education Press. Budget-wise, it should be self-sustaining within three years by selling its product at production cost, even though such sales might be to other departments of government. In order that this purpose might be realized, the press should give first priority to educational materials textbooks, adult literacy materials, educational newspapers for schools, maps, educational reports, etc. and refuse to print other materials, government or otherwise, unless time and space permit. The press should receive no subsidy after the inauguration period, and should not take on any jobs, other than strictly educational materials, at less than commercial rates. Above all, this press should not result in the closure of any existing presses, or the major justification for establishing it is denied.

Administratively, the press should be free to operate as a business. An advisory board should be appointed with staggered terms to help establish policies and procedures that would keep the managers free from "pressures." The Commission feels that this proposal should have a high priority in the total programme presented in this Report.

A division of the National or University Education Press, or a separate agency, should be responsible for distribution of printed instructional aids. This division, or agency, should work in cooperation with the Instructional Aids Commission. It is assumed that some materials always will be available from the open market — from private printers and publishers. As an economy, the materials from this source, after they have been approved for use in the schools, should be purchased in quantity by a government agency for resale or redistribution to individual schools.

It is also assumed that the Education Press will not print anything not previously approved for classroom use. Thus, all of its material will be sold and distributed to the schools and colleges. Therefore, we suggest that the Instructional Aids Commission establish, as an adjunct to the Education Press, a distribution agency for all these instructional aids that might be known as National Publishers, or the National Book Store. This agency would sell on consignment the product of the Education Press, and the materials of other publishers and firms which had been approved for use in the schools. This agency would need a small amount of initial capital outlay and operating funds, but soon would be self-sufficient. As a government agency, sales to schools, the Education Department, village libraries, and the adult literacy programme might be effected by requisition and the transfer of credit rather than by cash. But in the interest of good business procedures, this agency should not become a fund-allotting agency by distributing materials to schools and others entitled to receive them free, without an appropriate transfer of credit from the department against whose budget the donation is to be charged. This agency might also rent films and slides for school use. The administrative organization for an Instructional Aids Commission is suggested in Figure 9 on the next page.

Control of Instructional Aids

To summarize the foregoing discussion with respect to control of instructional aids, the Commission believes (a) that there should be control over the materials used throughout the educational programme — primary, secondary, higher, and adult education — and (b) that this control should be in the hands of a commission entirely free from political and other pressures and composed of experienced, professionally trained people. Such control will involve: *selection* democratically by using many teachers who are familiar with each item to be considered and applying scientific criteria; *preparation and production* both by individual and government enterprise; and *distribution* after approval.

This control should be designed to effect:

1. Economy through mass production and distribution
2. High standards in materials through competitive preparation, selection, and resale
3. Professionally suitable material, adapted to sound principles of learning, through guidance of the producers by scientifically developed criteria
4. Freedom from propaganda and other undesirable content

This control should not be allowed to lead to stereotyped material, unhealthy censorship, or conservatism in the preparation of new materials.

The Commission believes it unwise to open this great sesame to the minds of our youth without some controls; however, it recognizes the dangers inherent in controls and therefore cautions those who may be responsible for implementing them against such dangers.

Use of Instructional Aids

There has been considerable discussion of the use of instructional aids in the preceding chapters; a brief summary is offered here. Instructional Aids are essential to the learning process. They include a wide range of materials, persons, objects, and other things. How extensively they can be made available will determine in no small measure the richness of the curriculum.

All types of instructional aids should be used; the new curricula proposed in this Report require a full and varied use of them. Community resources are ready for immediate use; printed and manufactured aids must be produced in the Nepali language, and be designed for Nepal's schools. But in the absence of these materials, the teacher and pupils can improvise. They can write their own stories and textbooks, and bind them simply and inexpensively and leave them in the library for the next class. They can begin to collect pictures and mount and file them for others as well as themselves to use. They can make their own wall maps and paste them on cloth backing to preserve them. These and many other materials can be made inexpensively, and they constitute good learning activities for pupils.

As a final suggestion, the Commission cautions teachers and supervisors most strongly against letting the textbook become a "crutch" for good learning as it has in some countries. In the chapter on teacher education, we emphasize the importance of training teachers to use modern methods and supplement the textbook and lecturing with a wide range of new methods. The teacher who resorts to these two methods as the primary bases for learning is indolent, and the results will not be fitting to our modern age and tasks that lie ahead in developing democracy in our country. The introduction and development of a wide range of materials, as suggested in this chapter will make it unnecessary to rely solely on traditional methods.

Summary

In this chapter, the Commission has suggested that:

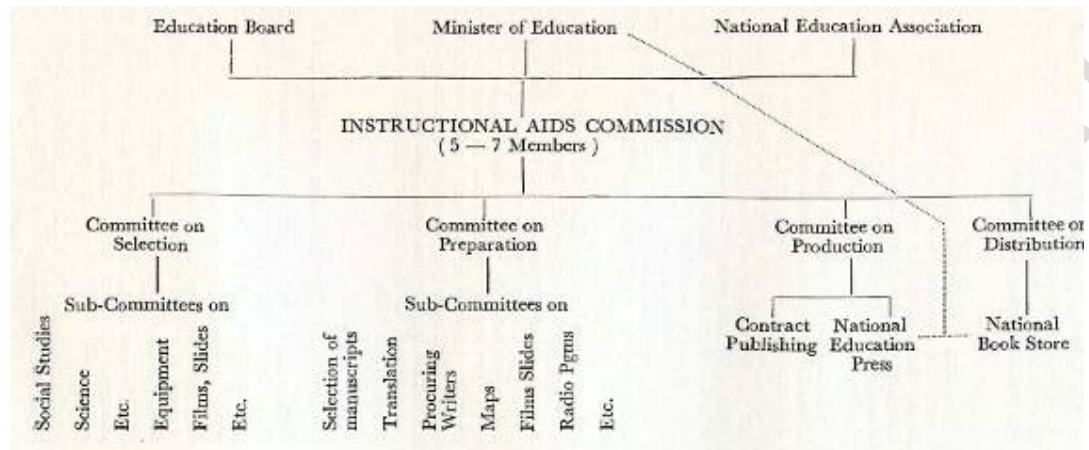
1. Instructional aids, being next to the teacher the most important factor in learning, must be adequately provided for in the national educational programme.
2. Although community resources are available in extensive quantity, only awaiting the wise, well trained teacher, there is a great shortage of printed and manufactured materials, without which there can be very little advanced learning.
3. This shortage must be corrected simultaneously with the teacher shortage; education cannot develop without well-trained teachers and scientifically developed instructional materials.
4. An Instructional Materials Commission should be appointed by the

Minister of Education, the Education Board, or a National Teachers Association (if such is formed) with terms of the members staggered and members to be experienced, professionally trained teachers, free of all "pressures" of any kind.

5. This Instructional Materials Commission should assume responsibility for:
 - (a) Selection of materials, through the use of sub-committees, and publication of approved lists of materials from time to time.
 - (b) Preparation of materials by preparing criteria to guide writers and others, and through financial encouragement to those interested in preparing materials.
 - (c) Production of printed materials through the establishment of a modern National or University Education Press.
 - (d) Distribution of materials through the establishment of a national distribution agency as an adjunct to the Press.
 - (e) Control of instructional materials as they filter from the producer to the consumer.

Teachers should be required to use a wide variety of instructional materials and they should be taught how to use them to promote the most effective learning.

FIGURE 9.
ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION, INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS COMMISSION



CHAPTER XIV

ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION OF EDUCATION

Introduction

The administration and supervision of education are functions that determine in no small measure the general tone and success of individual schools and of the total educational system. In the past, these functions, in some countries, have been allowed to develop in militaristic or bureaucratic forms, and have mitigated rather than encouraged the smooth and effective operation of schools.

Education by nature is not bureaucratic or autocratic. Schools and educational systems exist solely for the purpose of helping the youth of a nation to become better integrated into their society. Learning is the key activity of the educational enterprise. Any policies, administrative action, or persons that do not make it easier for the child to learn are enemies of education.

In a country like Nepal, struggling to learn the democratic way, it is essential that schools be operated democratically, that they become little democracies within their larger environment. Fortunately, there are few administrative policies or practices relating directly to education that carries over as traditions in Nepal. Now is the time to put into effect sound, modern, democratic principles of administration and supervision.

Principles of School Administration

What are the basic principles of democratic school administration? They are in general, the same as for other phases of government, or of business. Applied to education, they provide guideposts for action and for policy making.

First and foremost, administration exists to make possible the very best learning situation. This takes precedence over all other principles. Many decisions can be made on this principle alone. The schools exist for the children and colleges for youth, not for teachers, parents, tax-payers, well-doers, or anyone else except the youth of our country.

Second, schools as living institutions evolve and develop as cooperative enterprises; they are not built or run by one person. Everyone involved — pupils, parents, teachers, managing-committee members, and laymen in the community — all have their part to play and should be given that opportunity in proportion to their capabilities and interests. Pupils should share in planning school activities, parents should share in making policies that affect the lives of their children, life in their village, and the welfare of their nation. All must play a cooperative role.

Third, responsibility must be shared, and those with whom it is shared must accept it and its consequences. If the high school student body is given the responsibility for planning an activity, teachers and the headmaster should not interfere, but the students should blame or credit themselves with the outcome. Advisory groups have a place in the administrative scheme, but they should know that they are only advisory; they should not be allowed to assume that they have

policy-making powers, only to discover that someone else holds a veto power. Generally speaking, advisory groups are weak; it is better for them to have definite responsibilities and the power to execute them. In any event, there should be a clear-cut definition of authority for every person or group concerned with the operation of the schools.

Fourth, administrative functions should be decentralized insofar as possible. Eventually, as the people of the villages gain education and experience in directing their own schools, the central government should only provide educational leadership, meet common needs, and give general supervision to educational enterprises. The districts and local communities should assume major administrative responsibilities for their schools.

Fifth, general policies should be established as guides and codified a basis for administration. Executive officers should be employed by boards, managing committees, and other groups to carry out the policies of the respective group and of higher authority. Decisions falling within these established policies should be made by the executive officer or his designated representatives; decisions not thus covered should be referred to the policy-making group concerned. Failure to apply policies in an efficient and effective manner should result in replacement of the executive concerned. This same principle should apply to relationships between a headmaster and his teachers, a teacher and his students, a chairman of a class and his classmates.

Sixth, effective supervision is designed to help a teacher improve his work, not to rate him for the purposes of awards (e.g., salary increment) or discipline (e.g., scolding). Many teachers dread the presence of an inspector and many pupils working together dread the presence of a teacher — because they know that he is only there to criticize, not help. The term inspector is a poor designation for the person assigned to help a teacher; supervisor is little better. Regardless of what he is called his major function is that of a special consultant. The Headmaster is responsible for evaluating the teacher's work as it affects his promotion or dismissal. These two functions — rating and guiding — should be kept separate if supervision is to be successful. The Headmaster may often have supervision as one of his functions, but he should bear in mind that it is more economical to help a teacher improve than dismiss him; and a helping hand goes further than criticism in helping him to improve.

These are only a few of the principles underlying democratic school administration. Perhaps most important is a democratic attitude on the

part of all concerned and an *esprit de corps*. The discussion that follows, on the duties and responsibilities of various administrative officers, assume this democratic spirit.

Administration at the National Level

The general organization of education proposed by the Commission was outlined in Chapter VII. At the national level, administrative control was vested in a National Board of Education, appointed by the Cabinet or elected by the Assembly (eventually by the people), and the Minister of Education.

The *Board of Education* should be the policy-making body, operating within the framework of educational legislation. It should meet regularly, approve a national education budget, and approve major appointments.

The *Minister of Education* should preside over the Board and act as its executive officer. He should give professional advice, nominate qualified persons for major offices, prepare a budget for approval, make regular reports of operations, present new policies for adoption, prepare educational legislation to be recommended by the Board, provide general leadership, and perform other functions as assigned by the Board.

Immediately responsible to the Minister of Education, the Commission has suggested a *Secretary for Education* and four *Deputy Secretaries* for Primary Education, Secondary Education, Teacher Education, and Administration and Finance. These should be permanent, professional appointees, not subject to the whims of political fortunes. They should be appointed by the Board of Education on the Minister's recommendation and be given continuing contracts, subject to dismissal only for incompetence, not because of change in political leadership. On these men will fall the responsibility for making the administration continuous and systematic.

The Secretary and Deputy Secretaries should attend Board meetings regularly. The Secretary should be the major professional executive officer, well-trained and experienced, and together he and his Deputies should provide top-level leadership and direction for the country's educational system. They should represent the highest authority in their respective fields. They must work cooperatively on matters affecting several or all phases of education, but each Deputy should organize his department to carry out policies and to direct action related to his designed area of responsibility.

The Deputy Secretary for Administration and Finance will need several department heads to direct the work in (a) budget and finance, allocation and expenditure of funds, and accounting, (b) school buildings, planning, and maintenance, (c) teacher certification, (d) teacher welfare, retirement funds, salary scales, (e) research coordination, etc.

These five men and their assistants, working sometimes independently, but usually as a team, should provide leadership in planning and developing the curriculum ; issue courses of study ; assist the Instructional Aids Commission in selecting, preparing, producing and distributing materials ; solicit statistical data and

compile necessary reports ; provide central supervision to the schools ; encourage and direct research ; help establish new schools ; interpret the school code and seek new legislation as needed ; and otherwise promote the interests of education on a country-wide basis.

Paralleling the Secretary for Education, and under a Board of Higher Education, is the *Vice-Chancellor of the University*, who is the chief executive officer for all higher education. Paralleling the Deputy Secretaries are the Principals of the College, who direct the work of these institutions.

Underlying the secretariat level are the supervisors, one for each major field of learning, and special supervisors, as needed. These men are responsible for general leadership in their respective fields, developing curricula and courses of study, establishing criteria by which to evaluate the work in each area of learning, and giving general supervision in the districts in their respective fields. These men should spend one-third to one half of their time visiting schools throughout the country, meeting with teachers' conferences, and promoting the curriculum, methods, materials and other aspects of the professional programme.

It should be noted that these supervisors are not inspectors in the traditional sense, and no single supervisor is assigned to one or a group of schools. Their function is chiefly one of leadership, not administrative control. General supervision may be carried on by special supervisors or directly from the Deputy Secretaries' offices.

Administration at the District Level

Each of the thirty-two political districts should have a *District Board of Education*, for the present appointed by the district Governor, Advisory Assembly members residing in the district, and the Minister of Education on staggered five-year terms, but eventually to be elected by the people of the district. The district Board of Education should employ a well qualified *District Director of Public Instruction* as the chief executive education officer to direct educational activities in the district. The District Board and the District Director of Public Instruction, within the policies and limitations of higher authority, should plan and develop policies, administer the schools, establish new schools, budget and distribute district educational funds, help secure teachers and issue special teaching certificates when necessary, collect data for records and reports, approve all zoning and school districting activities, and assist local educational bodies in all possible ways.

Each district office should include as many assistants as necessary—at least a general deputy director or supervisor for primary education, and for secondary education if there are many high schools in the district. These offices, the District Boards, and their executive officers should provide educational stimulus and leadership to their respective districts.

Until, transportation facilities in Nepal improve considerably, it may be necessary to continue the present zonal grouping of districts, because there should be rather frequent meetings of the district chief executive officers (at least once every two or three months) with the various officers of the central Ministry of Education. It might prove more feasible to have zonal meetings than national

meetings.

Administration at the Local Level

The key to success of education in a democracy is the local school organization and administration. Each town and each large village or cluster of villages should be organized as a single unit for educational purposes. Heading up each town or community, there should be a *Local* Board of Education, representing all of the government schools, and any others wishing government aid and accreditation. For the present, the members of these local boards should be selected by the Panchayat, the headmen of the several villages and the governor, or by other means as democratic as possible; subsequently they should be selected by the people. In either case, they should hold five-year, staggered terms.

The functions of this Board should be to select a competent local *Superintendent of Schools* or community Director of Public Instruction, establish the boundaries of the area to be served educationally by the Board, to establish schools in the area, direct and control education in every way through their executive officer, assess and collect funds for operating the schools, employ teachers on the recommendation of the superintendent, budget and expend funds as necessary, etc.

The Superintendent of Schools should carry out these policies, select competent headmasters and teachers for each school under his supervision, arrange payrolls, act as secretary for the Board, provide educational leadership and direct the educational welfare of the community.

All administrative functions not specifically allocated to higher authorities or specifically denied the local Board of Education should rest in its hands. The initiative for education should come from the community; the function of the district and central agencies is to encourage and assist local initiative.

In large towns or areas there might be several primary schools and a high school under the same Board. The existence of a Managing Committee or Board for each school under public jurisdiction in a single town or area should be expressly denied.

In larger local systems the Superintendent may require general supervisors as additional professional assistants, but the school Headmasters should serve as assistant administrative officers.

Administration at the School Level

The *Headmaster* is the source of inspiration or discouragement, success or failure, of a school. The nature of his chief functions makes it so. As executive officer of the school, he is charged with carrying out policies and administering the school in such a way as to make it a successful school.

He recommends teachers for appointment and dismissal and thus must assume the responsibility for their qualifications in the first place or their improvement to the point of being good teachers. If sufficient improvement is not forthcoming then he must recommend dismissal. In performing this function, the Headmaster must

become a good supervisor in the best sense of the word, for it is cheaper and more effective to help a teacher improve than to release him. If teaching is good throughout the school, then the Headmaster may take pride and some credit.

The Headmaster must constantly lend encouragement, help teachers with their problems, lead them in general curriculum improvement, demonstrate methods, help them find new materials, assist in excursions, and in many other ways provide continuous professional leadership. In one sense, he is the professional errand-boy, the trouble shooter. His major function is to make the job easier for teachers, and thus secure more effective results.

The Headmaster should organize his teachers as a group and as committees to help carry out the administration of the school. The students should assist to the limits of their capacities. A *Parent-Teachers' Association* should be organized for each school so that all concerned with education can share cooperatively in its development and administration. Each person should have a share of responsibility according to his ability and interest.

Among the more ordinary functions of the Headmaster, he must see that supplies and equipment are provided, schedules are made, substitute teachers are provided when necessary, buildings and grounds are kept clean, first aid is provided, and the many other needs of a good school are met.

The teacher should realize that he, too, has administrative responsibilities. First, he should understand school administration and the problems with which the Headmaster must cope, so that he can give him wholehearted support and contribute cooperatively to making the school a happy, successful environment for children. He should get his reports in promptly, submit his lesson and curriculum plans cheerfully, manage his own classroom without leaning on the busy headmaster except in emergencies, organize his pupils for democratic learning.

Once again it must be emphasized; school administration is a cooperative enterprise, involving all persons in the educative process. One person cannot make school administration succeed, but one can make it fail. The proper spirit must be present if the functions of administration are to be fully served.

Teacher Welfare

The headmaster and local managing committee have major responsibilities in providing for the general welfare of the teachers. Only happy teachers can be good teachers. Efforts should be made to help each teacher, secure satisfactory housing. Each teacher should be made to feel welcome, that he is one of villagers, that he is respected and wanted. At the same time, his privacy should be respected and his time should be budgeted in terms of his health and in recognition of the fact that teaching is his first responsibility.

In Chapter XII, the Commission suggested the development of a strong teachers' association, a suitable salary scale and other amenities, and a code of ethics. The administrator should encourage and assist teachers, in developing these, because they will strengthen his own staff. Teachers, administrators, and managing committee members are all on the same team, working towards a common goal.

Their relationships must be dominated by cooperation.

The Administrative Code

In 1953, the Educational Code was revised by the Ministry of Education and published as a guide for administrative officers. This code was based on the administrative organization existing at that time. If the suggestions of the Commission in Chapter VII and in this chapter are followed, the code should be revised along democratic lines and expanded to provide guidance on many matters too detailed to be covered in a general report such as this. It should cover all essential matters, both by definite regulation when necessary and by suggestions in other cases.

It is suggested that the new code be drawn up by a group of Committees working on the different phases. It should then be issued in tentative form so that it can be tried out for a year or two, before being issued in more permanent form. Insofar as possible, it should offer guidance and suggestions rather than prescriptive control.

Summary

In this chapter, the Commission has suggested that:

1. School administration and supervision in Nepal should exemplify good democratic practices if we hope to develop democratic ideals among our youth.
2. Democratic school administration:
 - a. Is aimed at producing the best possible environment for learning.
 - b. Is cooperative, engaging the best efforts of all persons concerned with the educative process?
 - c. Requires shared responsibility.
 - d. Should be decentralized insofar as possible.
 - e. Should be governed by the general policies executed by competent administrators.
 - f. Suggests helpful, constructive supervision, not critical inspection or disciplining.
3. Boards of Education should be policy-making bodies — not executive committees — at all three levels: national, district, and local.
4. The Secretaries, Deputy Secretaries, district Directors of Public Instruction, and local Superintendents of schools should be executive officers carrying out the policies of the Boards and giving educational leadership to those with whom they work.
5. Teachers, students, and parents should understand the problems of school administration and should participate in administrative functions at their respective levels.
6. The educational code should be revised along modern democratic lines to conform with new patterns of organization proposed by the Commission.

CHAPTER XV

FINANCING EDUCATION

Introduction

The nature and type of education to be imparted under the National System of Education, its development in different phases, the ultimate goals, and the administrative machinery to direct it, have been discussed in the previous chapters. Education that had been more or less the monopoly of the lucky and privileged few in the past has now been granted as an indisputable right and an unclaimed privilege of every person within the state. Nobody can challenge this right of education in democracy, and now our children are to be taught freedom, responsibility, and cooperation in order that they may participate in democracy. Denied this, democracy will decay and degenerate into demagoguery. So education is a question of our survival, and just to survive we have to have it.

But many of our people would certainly doubt, at the outset, the possibility of such a new bright dawn and our ability to put into effect all these fine suggestions. The most common argument would be the Government has no money to do all these; otherwise the present wretched plight of education in the country would have been improved. Like previous reports on education in other countries, they might think this report, too, would lie idle, a criminal waste of money and energy. All these excellent recommendations may only remain fine to look at unless the purse can be managed. It is, therefore, absolutely necessary that a very careful and intelligent approach be made on this subtle point of financing education.

The first and the most important point that everyone has to bear in mind is that the fundamental right to education in a democracy is equally attached to our fundamental duty of making financial contributions to uphold and achieve the right of education. As long as the state managed to spoon-feed education (because it was basically for the lucky privileged few), the expenses were not heavy. Thus, the people in general, for fear that they would become conscious of the value of education and then of their democratic rights, were never approached for their part of the financial costs. But now time has come when we have to revise our scheme and change the outlook.

The continuation of Government spoon-feeding in education will certainly jeopardize our pious cause, because we cannot implement all these new schemes on that principle. The state alone cannot carry all the financial burden of education, and hence the people have to come forward to share it, if we really aim at its success. Every citizen, irrespective of his own children joining school or not, has to make his proportionate contribution for the cause of education in one shape or another, apart from tuition fees, for rudimentary education must be free to all on an equal basis. We fear that for various reasons this fact is likely to be misinterpreted and misrepresented by some persons before the people can understand it thoroughly. Certainly, it may take some time to understand it, but every one of us *has* to understand it clearly and well for the co-operation of the people with the government plays a great and important role in democracy, and hence in this sphere,

too.

It may be noted that free and compulsory education in America, Japan and other democracies is supported by the people. For example, in Japan primary education is free and compulsory, but 97 per cent of the cost is borne by the citizens. So is the case in U.S.A. or in any other advanced country which has made rapid progress in education. Furthermore, in America the schools were started through local effort, not state or national, and it was only after there was widespread education that education was organized on a state-wide basis. Even today, the national government plays only a minor role in education by way of research and sponsorship of special programmes. The several states provide leadership and a moderate amount of financial aid, but the local communities provide the major funds and administrative control for the schools.

The next thing to understand is the difference between planned and unplanned programmes. In the past, we have had for the most part an unplanned education and the consequences were wastage of money and energy, diversity of ideals, and failure of attainments. The little financial resources we had were not utilized well. But once education is planned, even with this poor budget in hand, and with all the present resources available, meager as they may be, better results can be attained. Like planned farming, a planned system of education will train people to be more resourceful, more alert, and more productive, and place them in a position to contribute more for the welfare of their own selves and the community they live in.

The Commission realizes full well the importance of finding ways of financing education and proposes to offer some suggestions in this chapter. It cannot be denied, however, that financing all of our institutions —government, health, education, etc. — is one of the major tasks facing our state today. Failure to meet this problem promptly and courageously will pull down our bold efforts to establish democracy among our people. Suggestions for financing education will be of no value if they do not recognize other costs to be financed; our ideas may even be raided by those whose greater interests lie elsewhere, Finance, educational or otherwise, is a joint undertaking to be studied and carried out cooperatively.

Present Sources of Revenue for Education

Though briefly mentioned in Chapter III, the present sources of financial support for education must be reviewed here to evaluate them in terms of continued support.

First, the Central Government furnishes complete financial support to all schools, colleges, pathshalas and vocational institutes established by the Government. Neither tuition fees nor any laboratory or workshop charges are required from students, nor do the parents or guardians have to make any payment for their children's education in these institutions. Indeed, in technical professional schools and in Sanskrit schools and colleges, scholarships of Rs. 5 to 30 per month are awarded to the students.

The Government also meets the complete costs of educational administration. This includes the Ministry of Education, Directorate, Inspectorate,

and Medical Officers.

The Government also meets the expenses of training some of our youth in foreign countries, especially in the fields of post-graduate and higher technical and professional education. As we have no facilities for this training over here, we have to send our youth to India and in some cases to overseas countries, also. During the last two or three years, considerable scholarship help has been available to us under the Colombo Plan, U.S.O.M., and UNESCO.

Formerly, all expenses for teachers' training were met from Government funds. But the present National Teachers' Training Centre is operating under a joint educational project of the Government of Nepal and the United States Operations Mission.

The Government has a separate establishment called the Nepali Bhasa Prakashni Samiti. Under its care and supervision, the Government manages the publication of most of the textbooks which are sold to the students at a low rate. But due to the lack of finance, the supply of these books has not been enough to meet the demands.

In addition, the Government provides partial support for some schools in the form of special grants. On the recommendations of Inspectors of Schools, the Director for Sanskrit Education and the Director General of Public Instruction, this aid is available to educational institutions from primary to the college level if sponsored and managed privately. This grant-in-aid is given in "blocks," the amount varying from Rs. 300 to 9,000 a year. The managing committee of the concerned institutions can spend the money as it deems wise, subject to checking by the Inspector of Schools or anyone else designated for the same purpose.

In some of the private schools established during the last regime, the headmaster, and one assistant clerk were appointed by the Government and their salaries paid from the amount available as the grant-in-aid. Apart from it, a small sum of Rs. 500 to 600 a year was also made available to such schools as operation costs. The rest of the required expenses were raised by the schools by means of tuition fees or donations.

Institutions connected with the spread and expansion of the national language and cultural units like the Nepali Bhasa Pracharak Sangha, the music schools, and certain residential schools are also subsidised by the Government in terms of grants-in-aid

Government grants-in-aid are also available for non-recurring expenses such as the acquisition of lands for school buildings, play-grounds, hooks for library, crafts equipment, etc.

Second, some schools and pathasalas are financed on resources available from *private benefaction and grants*. Generally, in each village a rich man manages a school for his own children and also allows the children of his neighbours to join it. Usually a cash contribution out of his own purse is made available for the school expenses, but in some of the places the net income of certain plots of lands also has been given to the schools. Most of such contributions are not regular and hence the school may go out of existence whenever some trouble arises with the sources of

income.

Third, from very ancient times, we have had a system of making *religious and charitable endowments and gifts* for public causes. These are generally known as "Gutts and Marts." Generally plots of land, and sometimes a cash fund may be placed under Government trusteeship or under private trusteeship for educational purpose. The net income from these resources is made available to operate some school and pathasalas.

Fourth, most of the schools that have come into existence after the introduction of the democratic set-up have been financed by *small donations collected from a large number of people under private public management*. The amount thus collected has never been enough to meet the required expenses of the school and hence the majority of such schools have neither proper school buildings nor furniture, nor qualified teachers. The deficit is usually made up by the tuition fees collected in the schools.

Fifth, *tuition fees* are charged by all schools except those operated on Government cost. In spite of a Government circular about fixed rates for certain standards, the rate and the way it is collected vary from place to place. In the Terai and the hillsides a flat rate is levied on students irrespective of the different standards joined. At other places, contribution in kind is acceptable as a part of tuition fees, which is given to the teacher concerned as a part of his pay or allowance. But in whatever shape it may be — in cash or in kind — tuition fees alone have never been sufficient to meet the necessary expenses of any school.

A *sixth* source of revenue, existing but not used, is from the *municipalities and the Panchayats* under permissive power given to them by the Government according to the Panchayat Act. By this Act, they can impose an educational cess on land revenue under their jurisdiction. The rate of cess may vary, but should not exceed five percent of the land revenue. The Government for some reason has withheld the clause and hence it has not come into operation.

But the national system of education being planned by the Commission will require a considerable amount for financing and the present resources alone, as they now stand, will be no more than a fraction of what is actually needed.

The Future Costs of Education

The costs of education in Nepal in the future involve so many variables that no reliable estimates are possible. Only some general trends can be indicated, with the thought that some of the variables may cancel out.

One of the major variables is the value of the rupee. The estimates made here are based on the present value of the Nepalese rupee (N. C. Rs. 175=1. C. Rs. 100—Dollars 21.05) and assume no major inflation or deflation. Another variable is the rate of improvement of the general economy of the country. We assume that it will continue to improve at about the present rate that standards of living will gradually improve, that tax reforms will evolve, that no major unemployment will occur, and that economic conditions will gradually improve.

We have said that a greater part of the expense for education will have to come from the local communities; we assume that this will gradually come true. It cannot be expected to transpire overnight; the Commission's plan is a long-term one.

Some people may charge the Commission with being too conservative, that its aims and targets are too slow and narrow, that this speed of progress will hardly make us able to compete with other countries of the world. They may plead for more radical progress and much higher goals. With 12,00,000 children of primary school age and only 3,00,000 cared for in ten years, some may say we must move faster.

The Commission has made a thoughtful analysis of the economic resources of the country and the general consciousness of the people and of the costs of education, and arrived at these modest targets. No one could be happier than the members of the Commission if these could be exceeded, and there is certainly no restraint on progress.

The table that follows is based on what the Commission believes to be realistic targets and costs. We see no need to project this beyond ten years because presumably there will be continuous planning and frequent adjustment of targets. We have listed only major costs, based on the scheme proposed in Chapter VII; there will be many other smaller costs, of course.

Table XIX. Estimated Annual Costs of Education

School children	1960 (per year)	1965 (per year)
Primary school children	150,000@Rs.40= 60,00,000	3,00,000@Rs.40=120,00,000
High school pupils (20 % of Primary)	30,000@Rs. 50=45,00,0000	60,000@Rs.150= 90,00,000
University Students (5 % of High school)	1500@Rs.400 = 6,00,000	3,000@Rs.400=12,00,000
Teacher Trainees (incl. Subsidy)	1,000@Rs.500=5,00,000	2,000Rs.500=10,00,000
Adult Education (All Type)	5,00,000	10,00,000
Central Administration	4,00,000	6,00,000
Research	10,00,000	20,00,000
Free Text Book and publication:	20 lacs text books@Rs.2 = 40,00,000	40 lacs. text books@Rs.2= 80,00,000

These rough estimates total 175 lacs of rupees for 1960 and 348 lacs for 1965 as compared with the present total expenditure, estimated in Chapter III to be about 40 lacs. This represents about 40 lacs increase each year. But it must be remembered that *most of this increase must come from taxable wealth in the local communities*. This will be more available as general economic conditions improve.

Further Resources for Financing Education

If the people of Nepal are to support the scheme for national education outlined in the previous chapters, two fundamental changes in the methods of national financing must take place. *First, new sources of revenue must be tapped. Second, some of the money from these new sources must be tapped, collected, and distributed locally.*

As stated in the beginning, financing education is part of financing all Government functions. *Fundamental and general tax reform is the starting point*⁹.* This calls for land reform and new principles of taxation. The Commission firmly believes that *all land and property should be taxed*, except that on which the Government would actually be the payee and that *all income above a comfortable subsistence level should be taxed*. These two reforms would place on the tax rolls the Birta lands and other real estate now escaping taxation for various reasons. They would also tap absentee revenues as well as personal incomes coming to residents of Nepal from within Nepal. These real estate and income taxes should not — need not — be exorbitant. Even a small percentage would yield tremendous revenues for the Government.

Although these two sources would be the most fruitful, there are other sources that should be tapped. For example, Nepal is rich in natural resources, for the most part unexploited. A *severance tax* should be established, not only as a source of revenue, part of which would be used to replant forests and otherwise restore or protect our natural resources, but which would also prevent their wholesale exploitation. This tax should not discourage wise use of our resources, but it should bring about a sharing of what is the common property of the people of Nepal rather than allowing certain individuals to profit exorbitantly in their use. The forests, minerals and their wealth should be shared with all in the form of new schools and education and other institutions of Government. This tax should realize a percentage of the value of every unit of our natural resources as they are severed or removed from the ground.

Another source of revenue would be a small *head tax* placed on every person or head of a household. This would serve to place every person on the tax rolls and give him a financial share in his country's welfare. Because it would be uniform, it would present the hardest burden to the poor people. Therefore, it should be minimal — just enough, to give each person a stake in government. Even a rupee a

⁹ subsequent to the drafting of this chapter the Government in January, 1955, proposed three tax measures to the Advisory Assembly. The first increased present heavy land taxed by 10 % without bringing the untaxed lands into the fold; this proposal was roundly rejected. The second tax proposal provided a tax on income as follow: 5% on all income between Rs. 11,000 and 20,000; 10% up to Rs. 30,000; 15% up to Rs. 40,000; 20% up to Rs. 50,000; and 25% on all over Rs. 50,000. The third tax proposed to tax Birta holdings as follows: 10% on incomes Rs. 5000 to 25000 from such holdings; 15% on incomes Rs. 25,000 to 40,000; 20% on Rs. 40,000 to 50,000; 25% on all over Rs. 50,000. These latter two proposals met with favour. An income tax on business firms was also proposed.

year, though, would realize ten lacs, one fourth the amount now being spent on education.

Still another source of revenue would be a *luxury tax* on luxury goods and luxury entertainment. Such a tax should not discourage the use of luxuries, but those who can afford to buy them can also afford an additional amount for Government support. Present customs taxes are aimed at this source of revenue but do not catch all luxuries.

Undoubtedly, there are additional sources of tax revenue; those mentioned here are of major importance. A tax commission or other body should be established to study the entire problem and suggest a modern tax programme. In this way all would profit from a better economy, a more prosperous country, and hence a better life.

In the further support of education, lands and buildings for schools and other educational institutions should be secured from Birta holdings and from the Zamindars. These and other endowments to education should be exempted from income and other taxes. In addition, Government decorations such as Gorkha Dakshina Bahu and Nepal Tara might be offered as recognition of philanthropic motives in making donations and endowments. Also all school property should be nationalized and become the property of the state. In this way it would be tax-free and educational materials, supplies, and equipment would become customs-free.

Foreign aid — cash, scholarships, and kind — is another source of revenue that should not be overlooked in education as well as in other treas. Several corers of rupees have been contributed thus far and the mounts in the future may even be increased. Much of this is earmarked 'or special projects, but some may be used for general support.

Provisions for Financing

In addition to tapping new sources of revenue there must be some changes in the methods of collecting and distributing taxes. It is well known that the farther away from their source taxes are collected, the higher the percentage that is used for administration of the process. For revenues hat are to be used locally, it is more economical to collect and disburse them through a local agency rather than at the national level. Therefore, provisions should be made for local taxing and disbursing units so that money to be used for schools, for example, would never leave the community. The present Panchayat Act, if brought into force, would help to achieve this end.

The development of an educational system will require capital outlays that are quite out of proportion to normal annual operating costs. In order to spread this tremendous financial burden over the life-time of the buildings and other capital property, provision should be made for local managing committees to bond a community for part of the costs and pay off the bonds over a fifteen to twenty-five year period. Though smaller buildings of shorter life span should be built by community labour and contributions, the construction of a pucca building such as needed for a high school or junior college will require extensive financing and may be unattainable except on a protracted financing basis.

As suggested in previous chapters, the provision of common school education (primary for the present, eventually secondary, too) should be mostly the responsibility of the local community. With the power to raise revenue locally and with some help from the central Government, each village may develop its own school under district leadership and national encouragement.

To bring about these tax reforms, there must be an extensive educational programme of posters, signs, pamphlets, radio speeches, newspaper stories, advertising, tours, and other means to make the people understand the whys and wherefores of taxation, what they may expect for their taxes, how taxes are equalized, why paying taxes is like investing in the stock of one's country, etc. A climate of acceptance of one's share in financing education must be built up. Local school personnel and other Government officials must work constantly towards this end.

Finally, no one can deny the fact that the present system of fiscal control and accounting in Government is cumbersome and obsolete. The finance office has not been able to clear its accounts since 1947, the year the office was established. Only one budget has been printed during that period. Sources of revenue are uncertain and the Government has been operating with a deficit for the past three years. Fundamental and systematic reform is needed in fiscal control and accounting procedures as well as in the taxing structure.

Summary

In this chapter, the Commission has suggested that:

1. Education is the inalienable right of everyone; shared support of education is the duty of everyone.
2. Planning, such as that done by the Commission, will effect economies in education, but nevertheless, total costs will increase in geometric ratio as we expand educational facilities to all the people.
3. Financing education is part of financing all institutions and functions of government and must be considered in that light; it cannot be carried out apart from the total needs of the government.
4. Present sources of revenue for education include the central Government's funds, private benefactions and grants, religious and charitable endowments and gifts, small donations, tuition fees, and potentially, the municipalities and Panchayats.
5. There are many unpredictable variables, but rough estimates place the cost of the educational programme proposed by the Commission at 175 lacs a year by 1960 and nearly double that amount by 1965.
6. New sources of revenue must be tapped :
 - a. All land and property should be taxed except that on which Government agencies would be the payee.
 - b. All income above a comfortable subsistence level should be taxed.
 - c. A severance tax on natural resources should be used.

- d. A head tax would give everyone a financial share in the Government.
 - e. A luxury tax would reach those who can afford taxes.
7. A tax reform commission should be appointed to study the problem and develop a modern scheme of government finance.
 8. Provision should be made for collecting and disbursing tax revenue by local agencies, and for the local community to assume major responsibility for common education.
 9. Provisions should be made for bonding for capital outlay, in order to spread the costs of buildings and other capital investments over the life-time of the property.
 10. An educational campaign should be inaugurated to acquaint the people with the necessity, values, and principles of taxation.
 11. Fiscal control and accounting procedures must be brought up to date to improve the financial efficiency of the Government.

CHAPTER XVI

THE EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT: SITE, BUILDINGS, EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES

Introduction

The importance of the environment in which learning experiences take place has been emphasized in previous chapters. Admittedly it is not as important as the teacher, but the lack of adequate instructional aids, equipment, and supplies can seriously reduce the efficiency and effectiveness of learning.

The scope of instructional aids, and their selection, preparation, production, and distribution, have been discussed in Chapter XIII; their use has been discussed in Chapters VIII and IX ; their finance in Chapter XV. Therefore, this chapter will deal with the larger aspect of the environment: the site, buildings, large equipment, and procurement of supplies.

Standards and Procedures

The Commission believes that standards should be established as guideposts for Boards of Education and administrators to follow in evaluating and improving existing schools and in establishing new schools. In Chapter XIII, it was suggested that standards or criteria for instructional aids be set up and a special commission be charged with the responsibility of preparing "approved lists" of materials and instructional supplies. A similar procedure should be followed with respect to other supplies, materials, and equipment. The same commission might be given this responsibility, or a separate committee of administrators set up for the purpose. Either way, all supplies and equipment should be subjected to careful scrutiny, according to established standards, by some central agency before being purchased.

In the interest of economy and efficiency, a central purchasing agency for equipment and supplies should be established which would correspond with the National Book Store suggested in Chapter XIII. Although purchasing should be centralized, district or regional storehouses should be set up to receive the goods directly from the manufacturer and thus reduce transportation and distribution charges. For example, a year's supply of paper for the schools of Nepal might be purchased from Calcutta, shipped to perhaps a dozen centers in Nepal for storage and resale and distribution as needed. By making such large purchases, saving up to 40% or 50% could be effected. The goods could be sold to schools at cost plus handling charges, thus providing considerable savings for them. Furthermore, attention should be given to the establishment of paper mills and other factories in Nepal to manufacture our own goods from our own raw materials. This will not only effect savings for our schools, but will give employment to our people and raise their standard of living.

Standards should also be established for school buildings and their sites. The Deputy Secretary for Administration and Finance in the central Ministry should provide the leadership for this task, as well as for standards and central purchasing of supplies and equipment. Deviations from standard building plans and site

standards also should be subject to this approval.

The Building Site

Modern education calls for all round development of the child. His physical growth and development and his health are of considerable concern and require a well-planned physical education programme. This, in turn, requires playground space and equipment.

The Commission suggests that the school site should be centrally located, if adequate space can be secured; if not, the location should be on the edge of the village where space is available. We consider three acres to be a minimum for a primary school up to five rooms in size. It should be proportionately larger for a larger school. For a high school, the site should be not less than five to ten acres for a school up to ten or fifteen teachers in size.

In addition to adequate play space, the site should include sufficient space for agricultural plots and craft activities. In the primary school, children should have group and individual plots for vegetables, grains, and perhaps flowers, and for raising chickens and small livestock. At the high school level, there should be sufficient space for these and small crop and livestock activities.

Finally, the site should be well-drained and aesthetically attractive, either by natural surroundings or by planting flowers and shrubs, or by both. The school should be a community centre, a place to point to with pride, and this requires pleasing surroundings as well as an adequate building.

The additional costs of a well located, large, attractive site will be nominal when divided by the many years of pleasure it will give the community. It is the foundation—the physical background—of the educational programme, and sets the pattern for the remainder of the educational environment and programme.

The School Building

The school building should fit into the general pattern of building construction in the area. If it is more than this, it becomes a luxury that most communities can ill afford at this time. Mild weather in most of Nepal permits out-of-door classes except during the monsoon period or winter months in the hills. This has resulted in bamboo and thatch structures in many areas. In colder areas, baked brick and mud construction is the pattern. In these somewhat austere times, such construction for school buildings must be accepted. When all other educational needs have been met—adequate pay for teachers, adequate books and supplies—yes, even an adequate number of schools—then communities may build more pretentious monuments to the most important institution of our culture, the school.

In spite of modest buildings, the school may become the centre of community interest. The site and surroundings may make it a community park; adequate provisions should be made for community meetings and gatherings.

The first essential of a school building is, of course, classrooms. One should be provided for each class or group of thirty pupils. If thatched construction is used, the Commission suggests the possibility of individual units for each classroom to

reduce the noise and interference between groups. Separate units could be placed in a row or a semi-circle, or at random in pleasing design about 100 yards apart. If masonry is used, the thicker partitions between rooms will make this spacing unnecessary and increase the cost too much. Each room should provide a minimum of nine square feet per pupil or 300 to 400 square feet per room. Adequate natural light for each child should be assured by open sides or large windows.

A library should be provided, with space and equipment for storing books, magazines, newspapers, bulletins, maps, pictures, and other library materials. Space should also be provided for at least one class group at a time to study in the library.

If the school provides hot tiffin during the school day, space must be provided for this. Although earth floors may be acceptable for the classrooms, the kitchen and messing area should have pucca floors that easily can be washed and kept clean.

Another need, even in the primary school, is for a meeting place for community groups. Since the school library may be the only library in the community, adult literates may wish to use it, especially after adult literacy classes are introduced. Therefore, the Commission suggests that as an economy, the lunchroom, the library, and the assembly room be combined into a single large pucca room. This might also be used for group games and physical education activities in inclement weather.

Although some of the craft work in the primary school will be taught in the regular classroom, there will need to be a craft workshop for upper primary grades to house the necessary equipment and provide space for operating it. This should be a common room for all classes, used on a rotation basis throughout the day. Teachers can take their classes to the craft workshop in scheduled turn.

To complete the primary school there should be office space and a small common room for the teachers.

The high school described in Chapter IX will need the above facilities plus wings for each "major" taught. These wings should include necessary laboratories, workshops, and classrooms. Here especially, separate units of several rooms each might be highly desirable. They should be relatively close to each other and on the same campus site because many of the classes will be common for all students. Arrangements should provide for students to pass as a group from classroom to workshop or laboratory.

A large high school of the type envisioned by the Commission should have several wings or units clustered around a central building containing classrooms for the common courses of general education. One wing should contain a laboratory for teaching commercial subjects—typing, bookkeeping, etc. ; another wing should have agricultural workshops and, at close range, livestock barns, an implement shed, and land for productive farming; another, science laboratories ; etc.

High schools for some time will be located only in large centers and will serve large areas, often an entire district. For this reason, hostels will be needed, together with a pucca kitchen and messing facilities.

All schools should have sanitary latrine facilities, the slit-trench type being considered minimal.

High school facilities will be expensive to build, but the entire district served and the central Government may be called on to help finance the initial outlay. If we are to provide adequate secondary education for our youth, we must have adequate facilities. True, out-door classes may be held at the secondary level as at the primary level, but shelter must be provided for equipment, shops, laboratories, etc.

Each community will have to meet the building problem as best it can. The cost of the initial outlay should be considered in the light of the many years of service that the buildings may give. They should be utilitarian, not luxurious. They should encourage effective learning, and provide a community centre.

Equipment and Supplies

Equipment will vary from community to community, from primary classes to high school classes. The Commission believes that equipment should be designed and provided on the basis that it improves or aids the learning situation; if it does not do this, then it becomes a luxury.

In the primary school classroom, floor mats and individual writing boards represent the minimum. Preferably, individual desks ten to fourteen inches high should be provided. In the upper grades, benches or stools, and writing desks should be provided. Individual units of stools, or chairs, and desks have greater flexibility than group desks, but usually cost slightly more.

Each classroom should have chalk boards and a bulletin board, a teacher's desk and chair, and minimum storage facilities. Primary classrooms should also have a sand table or other table for certain types of activities, pens for pets, or a setting hen, and similar facilities for project teaching. Some of this equipment can be built by the pupils themselves as part of the projects.

All schools should have playground equipment for encouraging exercise, games, and sports. Swings, slides, jungle-gyms, and teeter-totters are minimum, especially for primary children. Space should be laid off for football, volleyball, cricket, etc., and the necessary sports equipment provided.

A kitchen will require chulas, utensils, sinks for washing dishes, tables for food preparation. The library will require dust proof cabinets for storage and perhaps tables and chairs for study. Laboratories and workshops will require benches, tables, cabinets etc., and tools and materials characteristic of the subject being taught. Hostels will require charpais and individual storage facilities for clothes and personal belongings. (Double decked charpais are suggested as a space saver).

Much of the equipment needed can be made locally by craftsmen or by students with proper supervision. For example, students can weave their own straw mats to sit on, make their own writing boards make three-legged stools and simple tables. Not only does this provide an economy, but it helps to develop the concept of self-sufficiency and independence.

Students may make their own paper and other supplies. They may make notebooks and paste for mounting pictures. They may write their own stories and

textbooks, "publish" their own newspaper, and otherwise learn to improvise to meet the lack of materials and equipment. This, if properly directed, may provide the best kind of learning situation.

Certain types of equipment and some supplies must be imported from other regions. These should be procured through the central purchasing agency, or through the National Book Store, to save money and to guarantee quality.

It is one of the major responsibilities of the Headmaster to make certain that teachers and students have adequate supplies and equipment for education, and that the local managing committee and members of the community provide a suitable site and building facilities.

Summary

In this chapter the Commission has suggested that:

1. The physical environment for educational experiences is second in importance only to the teacher.
2. Standards should be established by special committee for sites, buildings equipment, and supplies, and be enforced by the Deputy Secretary for Educational Administration and Finance.
3. Central purchasing and distribution should be set up to provide savings in the procurement of the equipment and supplies.
4. The school site should be not less than three acres for primary schools, five to ten acres for secondary schools, and larger if size of school demands it. It should be centrally located, attractive, and well-drained. It should include areas for agriculture and craft activities.
5. The building should be of economical construction, functional rather than luxurious. It should be a community gathering centre. It should provide adequate classroom space and additional space for assemblies, library, laboratories, and workshops. Hostels should be provided for high schools if necessary. Outdoor class space may be utilized.
6. Essential equipment and supplies should be provided through local construction or a central purchasing agency. Equipment should be designed for utility, safety, and long service.

CHAPTER XVII

SPECIAL SERVICES

Not all of education is concerned with the formal classroom work of the school. Some of the richest learning experiences occur outside the classroom, on the playground, in social service work, in the library, and at other times. The school is responsible for organizing and supervising many of these out-of-the-classroom activities.

Mention has been made of some of these activities in previous chapters, but a brief summary of some of the special services of the school is made here. Each school should consider the need for each of these special services and whether the community can afford them at the present time, for some of them, although quite valuable — even essential — may be too expensive for the present time.

The School, a Community Centre

A village school fails in its full functions if it does not become a centre of community activity for adults as well as for youth. One would expect to find at the school throughout the week: meetings of adults, children playing on the playground and using the playground equipment, parents using the various shops and laboratories, adult education classes, a community-owned radio and possibly in the future a cinema machine, a combination school and village library, and many other features and activities that define community cohesion, community spirit, and community activity. Those concerned with the administration of education should recognise this as a major function of the school.

Parent-School Relationships

Parents and guardians are naturally interested in their children and their education. They must work closely with their teachers if education is to have maximum value. Frequently, teachers can help parents with their children's special problems. Certainly, parents and teachers must work together as a team.

To accomplish this, many schools have Parent-Teachers' Associations that hold meetings at the school once a month, or more or less frequently. These meetings are for the purpose of study and discussion of major problems of concern to both teachers and parents; they are not complaint sessions (individual problems are discussed in private meetings). Discipline, reading habits, playground behavior, planning the future career, planning a community project — these and many others are logical topics for discussion.

Once or twice a year there may be "open house" when all of the parents come and visit the classes of their children and observe them at work. Regular classes are carried on and parents have an opportunity to see how learning takes place. (Of course, parents are welcome at other times, too; these are *special* days.) On other occasions, the children may put on a cultural programme for their parents and the community. These activities help to bring better understanding of the purposes of the school and thus better co-operation between teachers and parents.

As Parent-Teachers' Associations are organized throughout the country, national and district organizations may be set up to coordinate their activities and to provide leadership and an exchange of ideas.

Adult Education

Adult education has been discussed in Chapter XI ; suffice it is to point out here the potential contribution of the school to its success. Some of the teachers of the school may teach adult education classes. The school building and its facilities may be used by adult classes. Demonstrations may require its shops, laboratories, and equipment. The library may be used by some classes. The Headmaster or a teacher may take the initiative for organizing adult education activities. It is of interest to teachers to promote adult education as it improves school relationships and helps them in their task of teaching children.

School-Community Library

The school is the most logical place for a community library. Many of the materials can be used both by children and adults. The school is most likely to have space and protection for the materials. The school has contacts for procuring materials, and the school teacher is frequently the only person in the village qualified to serve as a librarian.

As literacy spreads and as other types of adult education develop, there will be greater demands for a community library. This is another special service that a school can render to the community.

Youth Club Work and Scouting

Club work offers one of the best opportunities for informal education. Although regular class work frequently involves informal activities and projects, club activities provide even greater freedom and initiative.

One of the major club activities, now found in many schools in Nepal, is scouting. This work is nationally organized and a definite program of graded activities has been set up, both for boys and for girls. Much of this is out of door work, frequently involving hiking and camping.

Another type of club work recently introduced in some schools centres around agricultural, and homemaking activities. Patterned after similar clubs in other countries, the Char Pate Clubs (Four Leaf Clubs, so named because of the clubs' four-leaf clover symbol, signifying good luck) emphasize individual projects such as poultry-raising, paddy raising, sewing, cooking, etc. Each club member has his own project, and those boys and girls with similar projects meet together regularly for social, business, and recreational purposes.

In addition to these clubs, there may be drama clubs, debating societies, athletic clubs, hobby clubs, and many others. Wherever there is an interest in this type of activity the school should offer leadership and help the group to find a sponsor — either a teacher, interested parent, or some other person.

Vacation Activities

Although many children will have to work during the long vacation periods and on days when school is not in session, there will be some who will have leisure time. Even those who work part of the time might be freed for organized playground activities for an hour or two a day, or for weekend or longer camping trips. Nepal is rich in natural beauty and hiking-camping opportunities. The values of play, hiking, camping, and mountaineering cannot be overemphasized in building character, personality, and good health.

This is another way the school can serve youth. Teachers could be assigned to specific vacation-hour activities and thus help youth to use these hours profitably in educational advancement.

Social Welfare

Young people should develop a community spirit early in life. The spirit of cooperation and social welfare — willingness to give of one's time and efforts to the betterment of the community — can be promoted by various activities. Pupils should devote some time each week to community projects: beautifying the school ground, parks, and other spots in the village. They should build walks and path-ways. They should assist in clean-up campaigns, plant trees and shrubbery. They should help promote DDT spray programmes and inoculation campaigns.

Every opportunity should be utilized to provide experience in social welfare activities. Whenever possible these should involve both adults as well as children, so that all learn to work together.

Extra-Curricular Activities

Many of the above activities and services may be classified as extracurricular. Previous reference was made to this important phase of education in Chapter IX. There it was suggested that some extra-curricular activities could be curricularized to advantage, but that many activities should be tried out on an extra-curricular basis first. Thus, the regular curriculum can constantly be enriched.

The extra-curricular activities for a specific school must be selected and determined by the pupils, teachers, parents, and managing committee of that school. In addition to those services listed above many schools will issue a newspaper or magazine, have a student council, participate in sports and games, have music and art clubs, etc. The needs will vary from village to village, but the school that fails to make provision for these activities fails in one of its most important services. Some schools will want to sponsor national festival and anniversary days, too,

Health Services

An important phase of the primary and secondary school curriculum is the development of sound health knowledge, habits, and practices. These are provided for in the experiences planned for pupils. But the school must set an example as a model of cleanliness and sanitation. Latrines, washing facilities, and messing facilities if there are any, must all be carefully supervised to insure not only safety and sanitation, but to utilize them as opportunities for teaching and developing good practices.

Also, the teachers may be called upon to render first-aid to pupils who may become ill while at school or who may be injured. A first-aid kit should be maintained at the school and several staff members should be familiar with first-aid procedures. Whether these first-aid facilities are to be used by the rest of the community must be decided by the managing committee, but the teachers will have neither time nor training to render the services of a health clinic.

Hot Lunches

Health specialists today claim that some of the most serious detriments to the health of children are inadequate diet, too long a span of time between meals, and the lack of a hot mid-day meal. Children who sit in school for four to six hours need a break in their routine and they need something to eat between the morning meal and the evening meal.

One of the best services that a school could render to its pupils would be a hot nutritious meal in the middle of the school day. Even for well-fed children this would be beneficial; for children poorly fed at home, it could do much to provide them with a minimum diet to insure strong, healthy bodies.

One of the deterrents to such a service is the cost. Children could bring certain items from home already prepared; other food could be brought and cooked in a common mess. Or a special fee could be collected from the children, or a special assessment made of all the villagers to pay for this service. In smaller schools it would not be necessary to employ a cook; the work could be done by the children and supervised by the teacher. In larger schools and in high schools a cook might be employed and assisted by some of the students, thus utilizing an opportunity to learn more about "Feeding Ourselves," an important subject of the curriculum. Provision should, of course, be made to furnish the meal free to those who could not afford to pay for it.

Summary

In this chapter, the Commission has suggested that:

1. Special services constitute an essential part of the educational programme, some of the schools' major functions.
2. The school should be a centre for community activity.
3. Parent-Teachers' Associations should be formed on a local, district, and national basis to promote good relations between parents and teachers.

4. The school should offer facilities and teachers to promote the adult education programme.
5. The school is an ideal location for a community library and the teacher is usually the best qualified person to serve as librarian.
6. Club work and Scouting should be sponsored by the school to promote out-door life and practical learning experiences.
7. The school should sponsor and supervise vacation-time activities, including play, hiking, and camping activities.
8. The school should sponsor social welfare activities to develop community spirit and cooperation, promote self-reliance, and assist in community improvement.
9. Extracurricular activities should be promoted to round out the educational life of the learner.
10. The school should provide for first-aid treatment and make its facilities models of health and sanitation.
11. If possible, the school should serve a hot mid-day tiffin or lunch to all children.

CHAPTER XVIII

A LEGISLATIVE PROGRAMME

Introduction

The scheme of education proposed in the foregoing chapters cannot be realized by a single stroke of the pen. It will take a number of years for it to evolve into a firm, systematic, smoothly operating, institution. It requires not so much the reform of existing schools, systems, policies, and procedures, as it does the construction and development of new ideas, organization, curricula and schools.

Part of this can be accomplished under Ministry of Education leadership within the existing framework of authority, vague as it is with respect to certain functions, and the programme should move ahead within this framework. However, as the new democratic government comes into its own, a representative legislature comes into power, and a constitution is drawn up and adopted, the need for concrete legislation on certain matters becomes apparent. Some legislation will merely put the stamp of approval on what is already being done; some will authorize new procedures.

This chapter outlines a programme of legislation to implement the educational scheme submitted by the Commission. We have made no effort to cover all details; we have concentrated only on major phases of the programme. Neither have we attempted to clothe our suggestions here in legal terminology; we only sketch what to us seem to be the most important ideas for needed legislation.

The Commission believes that some of the legal support of this plan for education should be incorporated into the Constitution, some should be enacted into statute law, and some should be included in the Educational Code which is a compilation of the rules and regulations laid down by the Ministry of Education. However, no effort is made at this time to separate this legislation into these categories; this must be done by the constitution committee and the law makers. In general, though, basic guarantees should be found in the constitution (e.g., the inalienable right of every child to free education); policies should be established by the legislature (e.g., compulsory taxation for the support of schools); and details should be spelled out in the Code (e.g., the number of days of school per year).

General Tax and Land Reform

Before dealing with educational legislation it is obvious that there must be tax and land reform laws that will benefit the entire economy and all of the social institutions as well as education. There can be no great national strength or advancement in Nepal without these, and it is almost useless to talk about education, or any progress, without these; everything else centers on the introduction of modern schemes of financial support.

As indicated in the previous chapter, the Commission supports two basic principles:

1. All the productive land and property should be taxed except that on

which the tax would be paid by the government, and

2. Every person should be taxed according to his ability to pay.

The enforcement of these principles would increase the source of land revenue almost 50% and eliminate tax-free income. It need not discourage free enterprise or entrepreneurship. It would give everyone a share in his government, an investment in his community.

To meet the problem of large hereditary tax-free lands and property, the government could arrange for the purchase of these lands and property on a twenty-year pay plan, thus ending hereditary control, breaking the holdings up among many small owners, bringing them into the tax market, and at the same time providing fair compensation to the present owners.

To reach other sources of income, a graduated income tax with exemptions to cover the basic costs of living, a small head tax, a luxury tax, and a natural resource severance tax have been suggested. The Commission has also suggested that an educational campaign be launched at once to prepare the people for tax and land reform.

The Commission further believes that a special commission should be established and that foreign assistance should be solicited to help with this intricate problem, both in setting up the necessary legislation for the reforms and in educating the people to the ideas. Such reform is paramount to the widespread development of literacy and education.

Education Organization Act

Legislation is needed to authorize existing and contemplated organization for education. Such an act should:

1. Define the authority of the Ministry of Education, including the establishment and enforcement of standards, planning and prescribing a minimum curriculum, conducting research, and providing general administration and leadership for all levels of education on a national scale.
2. Provide for the establishment of a National Education Board with duties outlined in Chapters VII and XIV.
3. Provide for the establishment of District Education Boards to supervise education district-wise as discussed in Chapters VII and XIV.
4. Provide for the election of local Managing committees or Education Boards with the power to organize local school districts, define boundaries, levy taxes, and perform the necessary functions of operating local school systems.

Education Finance Act

Assuming a sound taxation structure for general financial support of the government, additional legislation is needed to provide supplementary support for education as discussed in Chapter XV. Legislation should:

1. Provide for general support of education to encourage the establishment of new schools and bring about greater equalization of support among the various districts. A fund amounting to about 10% to 20% of the total funds (from all sources) spent on education the preceding year should be made available annually to use as special grants to new schools ; an equal amount should be used to provide continuing but diminishing support for these schools once established. This money should come from the general funds of the Government and be distributed and administered by the central Government
2. Provide from the general budget the necessary funds for administration and the operation of the Ministry of Education.
3. Provide from the general funds for the support of higher education (above income derived from tuition fees, endowments and gifts).
4. Provide from the general budget funds for the support of government orphanages, correctional schools, etc.
5. Provide from the general budget funds in an amount equal to about 2% to 5% of the previous years' total expenditure for education to be used for educational research, directly by the Ministry of Education or by other agencies under contract or grant.
6. Provide for modern budgetary procedures and fiscal control by all educational agencies: Ministry of Education, District Education Boards, Local Managing Committees, Institutions of Higher education, etc.

Primary School Act

This act should encourage and provide for the establishment of primary schools in every village or group of villages. It should permit local managing committees to:

1. Open primary schools.
2. Employ teachers and other personnel as needed.
3. Define the boundaries of the school district.
4. Make primary school education compulsory within the district and prosecute parents who fail to send their children to school.
5. Assess and collect taxes for their support (in the absence of other general tax collection agencies).
6. Draw from the central government substantial inaugural grants and continue to draw its proportionate share of general funds after the initial period.

Secondary School Act

This act should encourage and provide for the establishment of one or more multi-purpose high schools in every district. It should provide for:

1. Immediate organization and establishment of a multi-purpose high school in all of the 32 districts in which no high school exists at the present time.
2. Conversion of at least one existing high school, in each of the other districts, into a multi-purpose high school.
3. Conversion of other high schools as rapidly as possible.
4. Where there is more than one high school in a single town or in close proximity, provide for their merger into one strong multi-purpose high school, or administrative consolidation under one managing committee.
5. Provide for the establishment of a special Managing Committee for each high school or group of consolidated high schools, to be appointed by the District Education Board or elected by the people of the area served.
6. Establishment of a special high school tax on all primary school districts and other areas served by the high school.
7. Procuring a site and building necessary buildings, including hostels.
8. Employment of teachers and other personnel.

University Act

This act should provide for the establishment of a National University. It should provide for:

1. The establishment of a Board of Higher Education, paralleling the National Board of Education, to supervise the University.
2. The appointment of a Vice-Chancellor and other administrative personnel.
3. Procurement of a university site and necessary buildings.
4. Organization of existing colleges into a University, with the provision that all institutions of a similar type must organize as a mother college with the others as branch colleges or extension services.
5. The establishment of new colleges as needed, new types directly under the University, existing types under the mother institutions.
6. Special aid to the College of Education and to the training of teachers to encourage young people to enter this profession where the need is so urgent and vital.

School Code Act

This act should direct the Ministry of Education to compile and keep current a code of all education laws and department regulations to serve as a guide to

education officials.

Teacher Welfare Act

To have good schools we must have good teachers, and to have good teachers we must guarantee minimum amenities to attract able young people to the profession. This act should provide for:

1. The establishment of a minimum salary scale, with graduated increments for years of service and recognition of the amount of training of the teacher.
2. National certification of teachers to keep the unfit out of the teaching profession.
5. Special allowances and financial inducements for initial and subsequent training to encourage maximum preparation for teaching.
4. Minimum standards of training for all teachers.

Summary

In this chapter the Commission has suggested that legislation be enacted which would provide for :

1. Land reform and general taxation on property and income.
2. Organization of an educational system and the administrative control needed.
3. Financing education on a national, district, and local basis.
4. Establishment of primary schools.
5. Establishment of multi-purpose high schools.
6. Establishment of a University and colleges as needed.
7. Compilation and publication of a School Code.
8. Protection of the teachers' welfare.

PART III
CONCLUSIONS

CHAPTER XIX

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The Commission has presented a comprehensive plan for a national system of education. This was outlined in its entirety in Chapter VII and detailed in the chapters that follow. In these chapters we made numerous suggestions, and gave information, principles, and reasons for supporting these suggestions. We hinted at the great scope of action necessary to implement these suggestions. In this chapter we summarize the total plan and firm up our recommendations.

RECOMMENDATION NO. I.

The Commission recommends that the Ministry of Education organize immediately a research department, with one of its major functions being the systematic, regular, and comprehensive collection of data such as found in Part 1 of this Report, and the preparation and publication of such reports as this one, at least biennially, to provide a basis for continuous evaluation and planning of education in Nepal. (See Part I.)

The absence of such information and data, and any system for collecting them, has handicapped the Commission in its study of education in Nepal, and in its effort to layout a national educational scheme. It will continue to hamper those who are responsible for implementing our plans and administering the system. Until continuous appraisal of progress and problems is possible, there can be very little effective planning.

This task should be entrusted to a research division of the office of the Deputy Secretary for Administration (as recommended in the organizational plan for the Ministry of Education). In addition to this regular collection of data, this research division should sponsor and conduct many other researches on problems of curriculum, methods of teaching, teacher welfare, tests and measurements, etc. It should work closely with the research divisions of the Teachers College and other colleges of the University carrying on research related to education (e.g., social research, population studies, etc.).

To collect these data, a system of forms (simple and minimal to be sure) must be devised, calling for the number and location of schools, number and qualifications of teachers, enrollment and attendance data, receipts by source and expenditures by functions, quality of buildings and facilities, public relationships, plans for the future, and similar data and information. Some of these forms would have to be completed by headmasters and managing committee members; others would be filled in at the district or zonal level.

Until such data are collected and records kept, education will be operating as a bank without accounts, a ship without charts. Regardless of the rapidity with which other changes are made, provision immediately should be made for data collection and reporting, because it will serve the present as well as the future. Furthermore, it will provide the beacon light for the implementation of this national programme of education.

RECOMMENDATION NO. 2.

The Commission recommends the establishment of a single system of free, tax-supported, public education, to serve the entire nation from the primary grades through adulthood. This requires specifically: (a) five years of common, practical primary school education, (b) five years of multipurpose (including vocational) secondary school education, (c) two to seven years of general and specialized college education under a university system, (d) widespread adult education, (e) administrative reorganization from the Ministry down to the school managing committee, and (f) thorough fiscal and taxing reforms to provide adequate financing for education. (See Chapter VII.)

The Commission was asked to outline a comprehensive plan for national education ; it was not asked to outline reforms for existing systems. This is significant, and the Commission concurs in the implication that it was better to start its work "from scratch" rather than dote on the failures of present education and try to devise reforms for remodeling it. With such limited facilities reaching so few people, it seemed fruitless to the Commission to try to patch up obsolete or ineffective educational patterns. These existing systems have been examined and the useful characteristics salvaged, but essentially the national system proposed in the Report is new, fresh, and designed for modern, twentieth century Nepal.

The programme recognizes the actual needs of the people and of the country, the financial resources and limitations, the traditions and mores of the people; it is practical, realistic, and attainable. It will require many years to bring it into full bloom, but progress can be rapid and immediately observable if everyone puts his shoulder to the wheel.

The Commission believes that ten years for primary and secondary education represents a fair compromise between the desirable optimum and financial reality, but hopes that it may eventually be extended to twelve years. It also recognizes the desirability of universal secondary education as well as universal primary education, but must be contented with the latter as the immediate goal; the other can be realized only by the next generations.

College education for a few with adult education for all, seems to the Commission to be a sensible goal for all-time, and one that can be attained rather soon. College training is highly specialized and intensive, needed only by relatively few people. But literacy and supplementary education are basic for all adults in a democracy.

No great enterprise can flourish and succeed in the absence of systematic and efficient organization and financing. Organizations must be democratic and encourage the maximum output of each person. It must provide not only for delegation of authority and the assignment of responsibility, but for the revocation of these, if abused, by the policy-making and assigning agencies that ultimately represent the people. There can be no half-hearted interest, action, or responsibility in organization and administration for education. These are the life-lines of education.

Furthermore, education cannot succeed without the financial resources that

nourish it. Children with empty stomachs are not ready for learning; neither is the teacher with an empty stomach and financial worries ready for teaching. Good learning cannot take place in an educational vacuum devoid of textbooks and other things that make up the learning environment. Large sums of money must be forthcoming to support education, but if each person contributes his share according to his financial status, it will not be an insurmountable task.

RECOMMENDATION NO. 3.

The Commission recommends the development and adoption of a five-year curriculum for the primary school, uniform in its minimum characteristics, but allowing for adaptations and expansion to fit local conditions. This curriculum should provide for minimum learning in social studies, science and health, language, arithmetic, crafts, aesthetic arts, and personal development. *(See Chapter VIII.)*

The curriculum proposed by the Commission has been influenced by two factors. First, for many years to come primary education will be the only education available to the vast majority—perhaps 80% of our children. Second, at least 85% to 90% of our people earn their livelihood by the sweat of their brow and the labour of their hands. These two factors demand a practical and a vocational emphasis. The Commission does not condone the practice of child labour, but believes it essential to our economy that children learn how to make a living. If the school is to pull the children from the apprenticeship of the home and parents and the labour market to give them essential general education (which the Commission firmly believes it should), then it should provide vocational training in substitution for early productive apprenticeship employment. The child from six to ten years of age is hardly old enough to learn a vocation, but at present, out of school, he is put to labour during this period; the school can do no less than offer him substitute training.

Furthermore, the emphasis on crafts in the primary school will enable him to attain higher standards of living, more comfort, better health, and a greater degree of self-sufficiency through greater competency in feeding, clothing, and sheltering himself and his family.

In Chapter VIII, the Commission insists on developing Nepali as the medium of instruction as early as possible in order to promote national unity and strength. It urges the popularization of education for girls, improved methods of teaching, suitable textbooks and other instructional materials, and a modern system for evaluating the progress of pupils. The Commission envisions the day when primary schools will be available to every child in Nepal and everyone will prize primary education as his inalienable heritage.

RECOMMENDATION NO. 4.

The Commission recommends the development of five-year multipurpose high schools to serve every district of Nepal. The curriculum should provide (a) general education for all, which includes social studies, applied science, Nepali, applied mathematics, and personal-physical development, (b) vocational education for individual choice of a "major" in pre-professional *training, commerce, agriculture, industry, home-making, and general college-preparatory work*, and (c) optional a

vocational education in foreign languages, fine-arts and handicrafts, music and folk dancing, practical language arts, and other courses for which there is sufficient demand. (See Chapter IX.)

Here again, the Commission's recommendation is conditioned by two factors. First, for many years secondary education will reach only the limited number of our youth who will become our second level leaders. Second, these leaders need specialized training along vocational lines if they are to serve our country. Therefore, the Commission has placed emphasis on vocational training and on meeting the needs of many groups, in contrast to the traditional single course of academic education. There is little if any need for the traditional English or Sanskrit type of education in Nepal, or for education that merely trains for college unless it is for a specific vocation such as agriculture, engineering, medicine, etc. The high school curriculum must present a balanced training for civic life, for earning a living, and for one's personal and family life.

Furthermore, the high school curriculum must meet the varied needs of those who attend. We cannot afford to meet the needs for agriculture, preparation for medicine, homemaking, etc. in separate high schools, nor do we consider it advisable from an educational point of view. Such separation between academic learning and vocational training, between preparation for the professions and agricultural training, between the humanities, and the sciences, etc., as practiced in some countries, only leads to "class" distinctions based on one's vocation. The Commission firmly believes that the multi-purpose high school is the best arrangement for Nepal.

The Commission does not wish to discourage the rapid spread of secondary education, but believes universal primary education must come first. Financially, we believe it possible to have at least one multi-purpose high school in each of the thirty-two districts within five or ten years, and more should be built as rapidly as funds and trained teachers become available.

In Chapter IX, the Commission urges the use of modern methods of teaching, the scientific development of useful textbooks and other instructional aids, extracurricular activities and community activities, the introduction of modern concepts of continuous student assessment and academic accounting by the "credit" system, the elimination of the school leaving examination, and other practices found in the best high schools the world over.

RECOMMENDATION NO. 5.

The Commission recommends the immediate establishment of a National University, comprising Colleges of Liberal Arts and Science, Agriculture and Forestry, Teacher Education, Law, Nursing, Medicine and Dentistry, Home Science, Polytechnics, and other fields as needed. (See Chapter X.)

This move would effect a severance of our dependence on foreign accrediting and give prestige to higher education in Nepal. It would strengthen existing colleges through better leadership and coordination, and would control the establishment of new colleges. The Commission believes that the additional costs actually chargeable to university organization would be negligible. Costs for higher education will, and

should, increase, whether we have a university or not, but the increases can be better planned and controlled under university organization than under the present separate organization.

The Commission conceives a strong teaching university centrally located on a single campus, serving all areas of the country through "Junior colleges" affiliated to the "mother" colleges at the university centre, and through extension courses reaching into every village in the land, all supported by a strong research programme.

We believe that the University must be completely free of political influence but closely allied with the common school system. It should be governed democratically and should allow secondary education the same privilege.

The Liberal Arts and Science College should be the hub of the University, servicing the professional colleges with general education. It should also mother certain fields of interest (e.g., business education, music and fine arts, etc.) in their introductory stages until they become strong enough to justify separate college organization.

In Chapter X, the Commission also urges modernization of methods of teaching, introduction of a wider range of instructional materials, the development of a Student Guidance Bureau, the use of the "credit" system of academic accounting, the development of a strong central library, and other practices characteristic of modern universities.

RECOMMENDATION NO. 6.

The Commission recommends the early development of an extensive adult education programme with immediate emphasis on adult literacy. (See Chapter XI.)

An enlightened citizenry is the backbone of democracy. Democracy will be only a form, yes a sham, until the adult population is educated. The stockholders of democracy, the voters, must become literate first, and then educated in the sense that they read widely, learn about national and world affairs and thus participate intelligently in the political affairs of their country.

Educated adults become supporters of education for their children. They become better farmers, craftsmen, and shopkeepers. They raise their standards of living, their economic condition, and their aesthetic values. Universal adult education is tantamount to the awakening and advancement of the country.

The Commission recommends an extensive literacy campaign, accompanied by village extension work in agriculture and homemaking. Cultural education, as wide in scope as demand and facilities allow, should follow. To develop and support this programme there must be literacy textbooks, newspapers, pamphlets, and similar materials, community libraries, radio, educational films and slides, posters, teachers and lecturers, social service and extension workers. Finally, there must be organization and training. All of these are spelled out in Chapter XI.

RECOMMENDATION NO. 7.

The Commission recommends that immediate priority be given to the

establishment of training facilities for teachers, aiming at short-term training for 1000 primary teachers per year, a degree-granting College of Education by 1957, special courses for staff members of the college and training centre, and extension courses for all areas of Nepal by 1958. (See Chapter XII.)

The starting point for a national system of education is the training of teachers. There can be no effective education without trained teachers and the most effective method for developing and spreading a new system, new methods, and new concepts is through indoctrination for the teachers of the system.

There are few trained teachers now in Nepal and no training facilities. There is no source of any kind of teachers, trained or untrained. There are only a very limited number of schooled persons from which to draw. Teacher training facilities will not only provide needed training, but they will encourage young men and women to enter the profession by giving prestige and status to it.

If primary education is to become universal in 25 to 30 years, we must start training 1000 primary teachers a year and increase this number 2500 as soon as feasible. We must also introduce training for high school teachers, advanced work for college teachers, and refresher courses for experienced teachers.

A college of education is essential to the preparation of staff for the training centres that train primary school teachers. The B.Ed and M.Ed. degrees should provide training for the educational leadership needed for training, administration, and supervision.

It is imperative that modern methods and materials be used inasmuch as teachers learn by experience and observation just as children do. "As they are taught, so shall they teach" If we expect them to use modern methods and apply new psychology, we must insist on these practices at the teacher training level.

In Chapter XII, the Commission has also given attention to the need for careful recruitment, selection, and continuous guidance of trainees; organizations and decent amenities for teachers, including a respectable minimum salary schedule based on the amount of training and experience of the teacher.

RECOMMENDATION NO. 8.

The Commission recommends the early appointment of a permanent Instructional Materials Commission in the Ministry of Education to direct and control the selection, preparation, production, and distribution of textbooks and other instructional aids, production to be augmented by the establishment of a modern Education Press, and distribution by a National Book Store. (See Chapter XIII.)

The educational environment determines the quality of learning. Next to the teacher, instructional aids — textbooks, maps, charts, pictures, etc. — are the most important part of this environment. The absence of these materials can cause children to improvise and rely on community resources — and this is good learning — but it can also be frustrating and inefficient. There are many resources in every community awaiting the use of the wise teacher, but these need to be augmented by modern attractive textbooks and other instructional aids.

One of the major educational needs of Nepal is a modern, color printing press

that can produce 1,000,000 textbooks and other materials per year. There can be little educational progress — primary or adult —without extensive printing facilities. The Commission recognizes the financial burden such facilities would impose, and has suggested the possibility of foreign aid, but believes there must be a printing press at any cost. We simply cannot proceed without it.

To encourage preparation of materials a systematic programme must be established with reasonable financial inducement to authors and producers. At the same time there must be controls adequate to insure high quality of materials. As an economy measure the Commission recommends a national book store to serve as a distribution agency for all approved materials, privately produced as well as products of the Government Press. A prompt and forceful attack must be made at once on the problem of instructional materials.

RECOMMENDATION NO. 9.

The Commission recommends the reorganization of administrative and supervisory policies from the Ministry down to the local managing committee to conform with modern democratic practices, with a large measure of decentralization. (See Chapter XIV.)

If education is to expand rapidly, it must stem from the people in the villages. The central Government has neither man-power nor financial resources to carry out the programme recommended by the Commission without a large measure of responsibility being accepted by the local communities. Therefore, decentralization is necessary, and it is democratic and wise. The Central Ministry must give leadership, direction, and supervision, particularly to ensure the enforcement of minimum standards. But the local administrator and managing committee must develop the policies and apply the principles that will govern each school.

Education is not a mechanical operation that can be checked by an inspector or rated like a machine. Teachers need a source of inspiration and guidance, not a foreman to check rate of speed, amount of work memorized or units accomplished. Furthermore, parents usually provide a good index to the success of the school and create a positive force for maintaining a good school. District and regional supervisors can provide guidance for teachers and schools to help maintain minimum standards, but the real work of supervision—helpful, friendly guidance—can better be done at the local level by a well-qualified sympathetic headmaster.

The Commission believes that the major controls should rest with the local authorities, that district and regional officers can provide general assistance and direction, and that the central Ministry should direct research, teacher training and similar overall functions. Local control should be divided between the policy-making managing committee and the executive-officer headmaster, with the district officer providing professional advice when needed.

Democratic administration and sympathetic supervision are the keys to a good school system. In Chapter XIV the Commission has stressed the importance of these, their influence on the teacher's welfare and hence success, and the need for systematic codification of administrative regulations.

RECOMMENDATION NO. 10.

The Commission recommends thoroughgoing tax and land reforms as a prerequisite to financing education on a national scale, and the decentralization of taxing, financing and fiscal control, all to the end of meeting educational costs that may increase by 40 lacs rupees each year for the next ten to twenty years. (See Chapter XV.)

Educational financing is integrally related to the support of all government functions. New resources must be tapped for all government financing and it is only logical to turn to the major productive enterprise in Nepal—land and income property. But *all* land and property must be taxed; half cannot continue to carry the burden for all. Furthermore, income must be taxed to stop the flow of wealth from our country to foreign countries. Income to Nepali nationals, no matter where it is earned, should be taxed. Severance taxes, a head tax, and luxury taxes also are suggested as additional sources of revenue.

The problem of taxation and government finance are so crucial and technical that the Commission recommends the immediate appointment of experts, some foreign, to survey the situation and outline a sound scheme of taxation and government support, and modern, efficient methods of budgeting and fiscal control.

Finally, the Commission recommends the decentralization of educational finance. Money will be spent locally; let it be collected and disbursed locally to keep administrative costs at a minimum. Local school districts should be empowered to assess and collect taxes for the major support of their schools. Federal funds should be used for sponsoring and encouraging new schools and new programmes, for research of national concern, for teacher training, university subsidies, and similar functions at the national level.

The value of long-term bonding to finance costly capital outlay and of an educational campaign to develop a more favourable climate for taxation, and the need for improving accounting procedures are some of the other points of emphasis in Chapter XV.

RECOMMENDATION NO. 11.

The Commission recommends the development of the best educational environment possible in each school, within the financial and professional resources available, with central Ministry leadership in setting minimum standards, evaluating supplies and equipment, and providing centralized purchasing and distribution.

The Commission believes that a suitable educational environment is essential to good learning, that the teacher is the most important factor in the child's educational environment, and those textbooks, community resources, and similar instructional materials come next. This places a relatively low value on the building, site, and equipment, but these factors should not be ignored. And as they develop in any shape and form, they should conform to certain minimum standards, if only for economy reasons. For example, it is foolish to build a two-room primary school on a site so small that it does not allow for expansion and adequate space for out-door activities. It is equally foolish to purchase cheap equipment that must be replaced in

a year or two. The Commission recommends that minimum standards be established, met, and maintained in the process of developing the educational environment.

The Commission also recommends the establishment of central evaluation of materials and equipment and the periodic issuance of "approved lists" of these things, central purchasing to effect savings through wholesale prices, and central distribution to effect even further savings.

RECOMMENDATION NO. 12.

The Commission recommends that the school programme be enriched insofar as possible through making the school a community centre, developing effective public relations, promoting adult education, maintaining a community library, and sponsoring youth activities and club work, vacation sports, social welfare, extracurricular activities, health services and hot lunches. (See Chapter XVII).

These activities are properly called special services and in some schools part of these services will be luxuries that cannot be afforded. Some of them, however, are relatively inexpensive and are of such significance that they will develop regardless of the cost. Some are not necessarily the responsibility of the school and its staff, but in the absence of better qualified personnel, teachers should be willing to share their abilities in the interest of developing a better community and a richer life for boys and girls. These special services round out the curriculum and make the school complete.

RECOMMENDATION NO. 13.

The Commission recommends the promotion of a legislative programme to provide for land and tax reform, organization and administration of the proposed national educational programme, local financing, establishment of primary and secondary schools and a national university, the compilation and publication of a School Code, the protection of teachers' welfare, and other essential educational laws. (See Chapter XVIII.)

At the present time, much of the programme recommended in this Report can be implemented by the Ministry of Education and other Ministries of the Government without legislation, but these agencies should be *strengthened* by *supporting legislation* as soon as possible. Basic rights should be guaranteed by the Constitution when it is written, general policies should be enacted into statute law, and specific applications of these should appear as Ministry regulations; all should be codified into a School Code.

Specifics and details of these proposed legislative acts are presented in Chapter XVIII.

RECOMMENDATION NO. 14.

The Commission recommends that upon delivery of this Report to the Ministry of Education, he delegate to the present National Education Board, or a small specially appointed educational body, the responsibility for establishing the

machinery for implementing the recommendations and suggestions of this Report.

This is perhaps the most important recommendation of the Commission. Failure to establish definite machinery to bring about the realization of the various phases of this educational programme will spell the doom of Nepal's future. We care not that our efforts would have been in vain: we do not claim that our work is infallible; but we are convinced that positive, dynamic steps must be taken immediately to bring enlightenment to our people if democracy is to survive and bloom into full realization.

Ministry of Education

PART IV
EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS SINCE
THE INAUGURATION OF THIS PROGRAMME

CHAPTER XX

EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT, STATUS AND FUTURE PLANS (10)

The Commission was charged with two major responsibilities, a survey of existing conditions in education and the development of a national programme of schools. Parts I, II and III of this report fulfill these assignments, and actually comprise the entire responsibility of the Commission. As explained earlier, however, the urgency of the situation resulted in the Ministry of Education acting on some of the recommendations of the Commission before they were finalized into a complete written report. Thus, paralleling the work of the Commission has been the work of the Education Ministry in implementing some of the recommendations and activities of the Commission.

The fourth part of this report is thus a supplement, reporting the progress of implementation. It tells first the chronology of the work done by the Education Ministry, then discusses the various activities undertaken, and finally looks to the future in terms of some long-range planning. It is a report of what historians some day, no doubt, will regard as the most significant period in the educational development of Nepal.

The Story of an Educational Scheme

Perhaps the best way to detail the story of the events leading up to the work of the Commission and the work of the Education Ministry described in this report, is chronologically. This will at least provide a record for future reference.

It must not be assumed that the desire for educational development in Nepal was a spontaneous or sudden expression of the masses of people. Although there were great seats of the Brahmannic and the Buddhistic learning in ancient Nepal, the simple life of isolation of most of the people did not require extensive learning. Closed to the outside world for 104 years of the Rana regime, and even separated by mountain barriers from other parts of their own country, these people expressed little demand for education as we think of it today.

Once again, however, the impact of the outside world began to be felt. During the 19th century, the British attempted to extend their influence into Nepal, and the Indians, who had rather easy access to Nepal, especially in the Terai area, extended this influence in a second hand way. During the First World War, a few Nepalese found their way into other parts of the world through soldiering, and many more came in contact with the western world, Australia, and Japan during the Second World War.

The telegraph, the telephone, and radio, the modernization of transportation of goods into the Kathmandu Valley, the introduction of the airplane, and an increasing number of foreign visitors, all brought the 20 century world closer to Nepal.

Indian Independence in 1947 and the introduction of democracy there, of

¹⁰ Final drafts of this chapter was approved on December 1, 1956. Progress has been reported to this date.

course, had a tremendous impact on Nepal and were more far-reaching than even these other forces.

Then came the introduction of democracy in Nepal in 1951 and closely on its heels, several foreign-aid programmes. The Village Development Programme got under way and educated leaders are being sent out to the villages as rapidly as they can be trained. Not only do these men capitalize and organize the existing interest and desire for advancement, but they stimulate interest and focus it on basic needs. Through these men there is now an outlet for the villagers' desire to satisfy their thirst for learning and improvement.

Shortly after the Second World War educational activities were intensified. Basic Education schools and training were introduced, the Education Department of the central Government was recognized, an Education Board was appointed (1952), and an inspectorate system was set up to cover the entire country (1953).

November, 1953. It was through the suggestion of the Education Board that the Minister of Education in the fall of 1953 asked the United States Operations Mission to open conferences on technical and financial assistance in developing an education programme for Nepal. The Director of USOM secured the services of an educational expert, Dr. Hugh B. Wood of the University of Oregon,¹¹ who came for three days of conferences, the second week of November, between the Education Ministry and USOM officials.

At this time it was decided to appoint a National Education Planning Commission to study the educational scene in Nepal and make recommendations for the development of a national education scheme.¹²

Possible aid by USOM was discussed, with particular reference to adult literacy, extension of primary education, education by radio, and teacher training. February 8, 1954. A Cooperative Agreement was signed between the Government of Nepal, and the United States Operations Mission, by which the latter is furnishing technical assistance and financial aid to promote the development of education.

March 8, 1954. A project agreement in the amount of Dollars 34,100 and N/C Rs. 204,800 was signed between GON and USOM to implement the February 8 agreement. This project provided for three major activities to be carried out jointly by the two governments.

1. The inauguration of an adult literacy programme, involving the preparation of literacy charts and readers. (Previously, Dr. Frank I aubach of the World Literacy Programme was employed to direct the preparation of five literacy charts and the accompanying readers, but these did not come from press until February, 1956.
2. The extension of adult information through the distribution of radio

¹¹ Dr. Wood was on a year's assignment in India under the Fulbright Programme, holding workshops for Headmasters and Inspectors on the reorganization of secondary education. He was loaned Nepal at this time, and again for the inauguration of the National Education Planning Commission in March 1954, by the United States Educational Foundation in India.

¹² The name of members of the commission will be found in the appendix.

receiving sets to 100 selected villages, and the employment of a radio education specialist to develop educational and informational programmes. (These sets are on order and are expected early in 1957.)

3. The establishment of 200 new primary school classrooms, to be aided by the central government and USOM to the extent of two-thirds of the teachers' salaries. (The first of these schools were started in December, 1954, and by the end of 1956, through subsequent agreements, 600 teachers were provided for in the budget.)

March 22-25, 1954. The National Education Planning Commission was inaugurated and began its sessions, meeting steadily four full days with the Educational Advisor, Dr. Wood. Three committees were appointed to deal with problems of administration, curriculum, and teacher training. Before the close of the week's session several major decisions were made by unanimous agreement of the members of the Commission:

1. Emphasis on the development of a new system of national, universal, free primary school education, rather than any further extension of existing schools, should be recommended.
2. Because this demanded thousands of teachers within the shortest possible time, the Commission sent a resolution to the Minister of Education urging immediate establishment of short-term training courses for teachers.
3. To meet the assignment of surveying present educational conditions, the Commission decided (a) to use a questionnaire to survey the opinions of people regarding education, and (b) to send teams of interviewers to the various sections of Nepal to confer directly with the people on their interests and desires in education.

March to May 1954. The Commission met regularly as a full commission or as separate committees to draft the questionnaire, began the collection of information and data on present educational conditions, and considered the bases and principles for a national system of education. The questionnaire was completed, printed, and distributed throughout the land. Interview teams left for outlying centres. Regular weekly radio programmes were inaugurated to stimulate interest in the work of the Commission.

June, 1954. Dr. Wood returned to Nepal as a full-time adviser. The Commission began to sketch plans for a national scheme of education. Education officials of GON and USOM worked out details for a teacher training programme.

June 26, 1954. The second education project agreement was signed between GON and USOM, involving Dollars 220,000 and Rs. 732,100. This project provided for five major activities.

1. The establishment of a short-term training programme to prepare 1550 teachers within the first three-year period.
2. The training in United States of a nucleus staff of seven for a college of education.

3. The establishment of a four-year, degree-granting, college of education in Nepal.
4. Equipment, supplies, and technical assistance in the development of a self-improvement programme for the staff of Tri-Chandra College.
5. Preparation, printing, and distribution of text books and instructional materials.

July 18, 1954. A contract was signed between the Washington headquarters of USOM and the University of Oregon to assist in implementing the provisions of the second education project agreement. This contract and its amendments provided that one or more University of Oregon professors would be assigned full-time in Nepal as Educational Advisers, that seven or more staff members of the college of education would be trained at the University of Oregon, and that other specialists would be provided as needed to carry out the other phases of the June 26 Agreement.

July-August, 1954. Plans were made for opening a National Teacher Training Centre to offer short-term courses. The old Basic Training buildings and facilities were available, and though inadequate even for the initial work, were made ready for use. These were recognized by all concerned as temporary quarters, having hostel accommodations for only 30 trainees and classroom facilities for 75 trainees. A nucleus staff was organized and given preliminary training. They then planned the curriculum for the Training Centre. Ninety trainees were selected.

September 9, 1954. The National Teacher Training Centre was inaugurated by the Honorable Minister of Education, Dr. D. R. Regmi and other dignitaries. Trainees were organized into classes and the training programme was under way.

September-November 1954. Work continued on all fronts. At the Training Centre, trainees engaged in various professional projects, including excursions, interviews, personal improvement activities, practise teaching experiences, and many others. The National Education Planning Commission continued to hold regular meetings to discuss the formation of a national scheme of education, to analyze the replies of the questionnaires, and to begin drafting their report. Dr. Wood introduced some project teaching as a demonstration at Tri-Chandra College. Members of the Commission, the adviser, and members of the Education Department visited a number of schools, both in the Kathmandu Valley and in outlying areas, to become more familiar with the kinds of schools now in existence and to learn of the real needs and wishes of the people of the villages. Information was sought on these visits which would provide a basis for establishing new schools under the first education agreement.

December 5, 1954. Twenty-five of the first group of trainees, who were experienced teachers, completed three-months of training and were awarded teaching certificates. Fifteen of these teachers returned to their own schools and the others were sent to Pokhara, Bhairawa, and Biratnagar to open new schools. These pioneer teachers were sent to pilot schools to provide information and experience which would be essential in assigning inexperienced teachers who would complete their training February 26.

February, 1955. Negotiations were initiated between GON and USOM to provide moderate extensions of some of the various activities under way. These included : continued support for 200 new primary schools mentioned above and first-year support for 100 more ; additional materials for adult literacy and the operation of 600 three-months classes ; printing the Educational Planning Commission's Report ; support of a University Commission to begin the work of establishing a National University ; publication of a trial series of primary school textbooks; additional equipment and facilities for the Teacher Training Centre; special training for staff apprentices at the Training Centre; assignment of a mobile teacher-training team to teach refresher courses in outlying centres; publication of a series of professional textbooks for teacher trainees, three foreign study grants for administrative staff members of the University ; and an additional education specialist. The final GON/ USOM agreements on these activities added N/C Rs. 112,040, I/C Rs. 98,400, and Dollars 104,035 to the budget of the Cooperative Services in Education.

February 26, 1955. The first group of six-month trainees completed their training and received their certificates at the end of February. About half of the experienced teachers returned to their former schools, leaving the remainder available to open new schools, under the joint GON/USOM programme.

March 1, 1955. The National Education Planning Commission submitted this *Report* in mimeographed form to the Honorable Minister of Education Dr. Dilli Raman Regmi, in a ceremony held in Gallery Hall. Dr. Regmi praised the Commission members for their diligent efforts and promised early considerations of their recommendations.

March-April, 1955. Eight Nepalese educators left with Dr. Wood for a year of training in Teacher Education at the University of Oregon. Dr. Waldemar Olson of the University of Oregon Education staff arrived to serve as educational adviser in their absence. The Nepalese team visited and studied teacher training institutions in Europe and throughout their trip across the United States. At Oregon, they studied school systems at the village, county, city and state levels in addition to perusing their academic studies for the Master's degree. Each man had interne experiences in his special field of training. The entire group met in a weekly seminar with their adviser to develop plans for the College of Education.

June 30, 1955. The GON/USOM Education agreements were extended to provide for an additional educational adviser to assist a University Planning Commission and for study grants for three University administrators to be trained in the United States for six months.

September 2, 1955. The second group of teacher trainees completed their course and were sent out to open additional new primary schools.

September 1955. Large quantities of science equipment and supplies arrived for Tri Chandra College and more were ordered. These were purchased with GON/USOM funds as part of the program for up-grading the college.

October 14, 1955. Kaiser Bahadur succeeded R. P. Manandhar as Secretary of Education.

November 12, 1955. The Teacher Training Centre was moved to Meen Bhawan, thus providing much better quarters for the growing programme.

December 4, 1955. Dr. Charles D. Byrne, retired Chancellor of the Oregon State System of Higher Education, arrived to serve as Senior Educational Adviser and to assist in the development of a national university.

January 15, 1956. The Honorable Balchandra Sharma succeeded Dr. D. R. Regmi as Minister of Education.

February 6, 1956. Adult literacy materials for the first period of instruction arrived from the press, thus enabling the opening of adult literacy classes.

March 3, 1956. The third class of teachers trainees completed their training and were sent out to open new primary schools.

March 31, 1956. The University Planning Commission was appointed by her Majesty, Queen Shri Panch Bara Maharani Kanti Rajya Laxmi Devi to study sites, organization, a charter and other details regarding the establishment of a national university, and to make recommendations for the same.

May 2, 1956. An educational display was set up to show the progress and development and proposed future plans for education, as part of a general exhibition for the coronation of His Majesty, King Mahendra Bir Bikram Shah Deva.

July, 1956. The Nepalese team of eight returned from the University of Oregon, accompanied by Dr. Wood and a third adviser, Professor Thomas O. Ballinger. Still another adviser, Dr. Edward W. Brice, arrived about a month later.

July -August, 1956. *The Five Year Plan for Education*, based largely on this Report, was drafted as the official guide for the Government in the development of education in Nepal during the next five years. This Plan can bring about the realization of, or progress on, nearly all of the goals and recommendations of the Commission.

August 17, 1956. Ten additional staff members left for a year of training at the University of Oregon and Oregon State College.

August 30, 1956. The fourth class of teacher trainees graduated from the teacher Training Centre and departed from Kathmandu to new assignments in primary schools.

August - September, 1956. The Nepalese team recruited and trained a staff of about thirty men and women for the new Normal School which replaced the Teacher Training Centre. Plans were developed for the establishment of the College of Education.

September 9, 1956. On the second anniversary of the opening of the teacher training programme, the College of Education was formally established by resolution under the Ministry of Education, pending the establishment of the University, at which time it will become a part of the University. The College of Education is authorized to grant the Bachelor of Education (B. Ed.) degree. It comprises the following divisions: College of Education degree courses, the Normal School, the Bureau of Publications (to sponsor the preparation and publication of textbooks and

other instructional materials), and the Bureau of Research (to establish and supervise model, demonstration, and experimental schools and to sponsor and conduct educational research). The Bureau of Adult Education is also housed in the College of Education.

October 1, 1956. The expanding teacher training programme moved into larger and more centrally located quarters at Chet Bhawan in Lazimpat. Normal School classes were started.

October 29, 1956. The first B. Ed. classes opened at the College of Education.

November, 1956. The first mobile teams of the Normal School opened training classes in Nepalgunj, Birgunj, and Dharan, for new primary school teachers, and part-time inservice refresher classes for experienced teachers on the job.

The first adult literacy classes were established in the Kathmandu valley, with others to follow immediately throughout the country.

Major Activities Underway

The foregoing sketch of educational developments reveals many activities now underway. Some are to be of brief duration; others will continue for many years. The details of these various activities are outlined below.

The National Education Planning Commission, with this *Report*, has completed one phase of its work. The members have fulfilled their specific responsibilities as charged by the Minister of Education. They surveyed the educational scene and set forth a plan for a national system of education.

Much of this plan has been incorporated into the Five Year Plan for Education by the Ministry of Education; the remainder must be evaluated, some of it accepted for immediate execution, some for delayed action, some modified. Finally, the necessary legislation must be enacted to make this plan a reality.

But the members of the Commission have an individual and personal responsibility that will continue forever. Each member must undertake informally, and officially if asked, to tell the people of this country about the national plan of education and the Five Year Plan adopted by the Ministry of Education. They must explain, and defend, if necessary, the scheme, and assist in every way possible to make universal education a reality.

Without a doubt, the Ministry of Education will call on members of the Commission to lobby for legislation, to participate in radio forums, to give public addresses, to stump the country, to develop the public enthusiasm and support necessary to finance education on a broad scale and to explain the principles upon which education in a democracy is based.

Perhaps part of the task of implementing this scheme can be turned over to the National Education Board or to a National Education Association, if such is formed. But the members of the Commission who worked on this initial study and *Report* are most familiar with it and present educational conditions; therefore their services should be utilized.

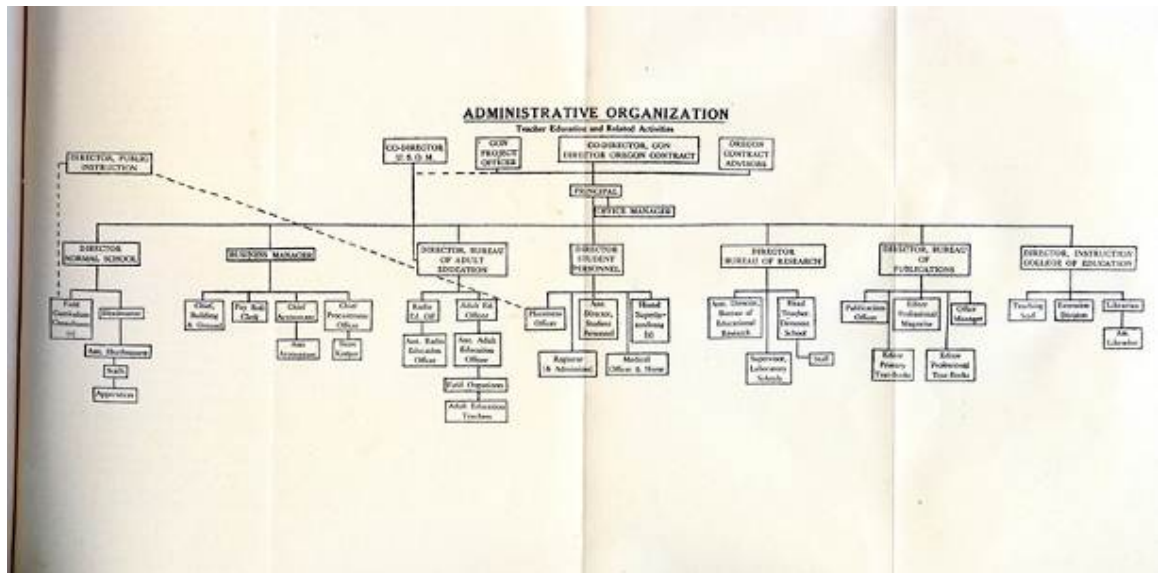
Thus, there remain three things to be done to complete the work of National

Education Planning Commission : (a) the *Report* must be seen through press and publication, (now accomplished) (b) the plan must be evaluated, adapted, and legislated by the Ministry of Education and the Legislative Assembly, (partly accomplished through the development of the Five Year Plan, and the establishment of several programmes) and (c) the official plan must then be implemented through wide-spread publicity and through action.

Teacher training activities comprise perhaps the greatest immediate task. This was considered so important that on the second day the Commission met, long before it took up other pressing matters, a resolution was passed urging the immediate establishment of training facilities. The major portions of foreign aid funds for education were assigned to this phase of the education programme. It is considered the keystone to the rest of the programme.

The teacher training programme is now well established under the immediate supervision of the GON Co-director of the Teacher Training Project and the Educational Advisers of the University of Oregon. During the first two years of operation the National Teacher Training Centre, which was established in Kathmandu, has given six months of training to more than 625 new primary school teachers, and at present 450 more are in training. This has provided a small core of teachers to help fill the national void, and at the same time has provided a basis for defining a permanent programme for the training of new teachers in Nepal.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION



In the fall of 1956, several mobile teacher training teams were organized to carry the teacher training programme to the regional areas of Nepal. These teams, now operating at Birgunj, Dharan, and Nepalgunj, will offer the teacher training course to candidates in selected rural areas. After completing the course in the first centres, they will move to other areas to repeat the programme. Thus, after three or four years, it will be possible to cover the entire country on a regional basis.

This programme (the Kathmandu centre and the mobile teams) now elevated to the level of Normal School training, will continue to offer training, beginning next year with a full year's course, to as many teachers as can be absorbed into the expanding educational scheme. In addition, refresher courses for experienced teachers are being introduced and will be offered on an increasingly wider basis.

The training of a nucleus staff at the University of Oregon during 1955-56 has made it possible to establish a four-year degree-granting *College of Education* in Kathmandu. This College plans to offer several types of training for the immediate future:

1. Four years of combined liberal arts and professional training for well-qualified matriculates who are just beginning their educational careers. This programme will culminate with the **B. Ed.** degree, and those who complete the work, after a few years of teaching experience, will be ready for advanced training and educational positions of high responsibility. The tentative allotment of seats for this type of training is 200.
2. One year of professional training for well qualified holders of the bachelor's degree, preferably with teaching experience, to provide staff members for the Normal School programme and other positions of educational leadership. This work will also culminate in the **B. Ed.** degree. The tentative allotment of seats for this type of training is 50.
3. Extension courses, for graduates, undergraduates and others to meet the needs of: educational leaders who may not have the admission pre-requisites for the training described in No. 2 above, teachers who may want part-time courses that may be taken while they continue their regular work, college instructors who may want to attend professional seminars, and others seeking less than the regular full-time programmes. These courses will culminate in credit hours that may be applied towards a diploma or a degree. No estimate is available of the number that can be served with these classes; much will depend upon availability of staff.
4. Sub-collegiate level courses for training primary school teachers, a continuation of the work now established in the Normal Schools. These courses will culminate in a certificate of training or diploma. The complement for this type of training can run to 1000 per year, but will be adjusted to actual needs.
5. Eventually, the **M. Ed.** degree will be offered by the College of Education when the demand justifies such a programme.

In addition to the training programme, the College of Education will provide supervision for several related activities. The *Bureau of Publications* will direct a publications programme which must of necessity be a major activity for many years.

Not only is there a dearth of any kind of reading materials and graphic aids, but the little material available is mostly in Hindi and much is obsolete. A massive publication programme can promote not only educational objectives, but also the aim of unification through a single national language to weld together the people of the different parts of Nepal.

At present there are no modern printing facilities in Nepal. The Commission has recommended the establishment of a National Educational Press with a capacity of 3,000,000 books per year (see Chapter XIII). But this will solve only part of the problem. Materials must be written and prepared for publication. This task must be supervised by the Bureau of Publications, but shared by a publications commission of the Education Ministry and by educationists who will prepare the materials.

At present, contract printing facilities are being used. Some work is being mimeographed in small quantities for use during a trial period. Some is being printed locally, and some illustrated material is being printed on Indian presses.

Some material is now being prepared; some has been prepared and the manuscripts now lie in the Bureau of Publications awaiting publication. Provision has been made for the publication of several primary school series of textbooks and several professional books for use by the trainees in the Normal Schools and the College of Education.

The major publication activities for the present and immediate future, in order of priority, are:

1. Printing of this Report and a Manual for Training Teachers that have been prepared and tried out in mimeographed form.
2. Refinement and printing of professional textbooks for the Normal Schools and the College of Education. These are now going into mimeographed form for trial, after which they should be revised, refined, and printed.
3. Preparation and printing of textbooks and a fortnightly newspaper for primary schools. Large scale production must await better printing facilities, but a start can be made by contract printing.
4. Preparation and printing of additional materials for the adult literacy programme. The present materials available are intended for only the first few months of literacy training. A weekly or fortnightly newspaper for literates should be established and supplementary readers and other books should be prepared and printed.
5. Preparation and printing of graphic materials—maps charts, and other illustrative teaching aids. These, too, can be produced in limited quantity by contract printing until a National Education Press is established.

The *Bureau of Research* has been established to provide laboratory conditions for the promotion of educational research. Plans are being made to assist in the development of several laboratory schools at both the primary and the

secondary levels. These schools will be developed in terms of the guidelines laid down in Chapters VIII and IX. For training purposes most of these schools must be readily accessible to the College of Education, but it is hoped that some of these schools may be developed on a regional basis as models for study and observation.

In addition, a number of existing schools must be upgraded to serve as practising schools for student teachers. The teachers who serve as master or critic teachers must be oriented to the principles of national education, and supplies and equipment must be provided to bring these schools up to a minimum standard.

Finally, the Bureau of Research must conduct studies of current professional problems, and provide leadership to education in Nepal. It must evaluate from time to time the progress of educational schemes. It might well become the impartial assessor and reporter on the objectives of this *Report* and the targets of the Five Year Plan for Education.

The *Bureau of Adult Education* provides formal organization for the work that is being done in adult literacy and that is contemplated in social education.

All village development workers and primary school teachers trained at the Normal Schools have received instruction in teaching literacy classes, and the first classes have been started. Provision has been made for financing 600 classes in the first year.

As indicated above, one of the major phases of this programme is the preparation of additional literacy materials. Additional copies of the present materials will also have to be printed. The preparation and printing of additional materials and reprinting the other materials is one of the major tasks of the Bureau of Adult Education.

The following provisions for establishing literacy classes have been approved by the GON and USOM Co-directors:

1. Materials will be furnished free by GON/USOM. Charts should be retained by the teacher; books by the literates.
2. Classrooms and facilities must be furnished by the villages. Village development facilities or schools may be used or any other suitable place. Lights, kerosene, writing tools, and similar needs must be supplied locally; only the reading materials will be furnished by GON/USOM.
3. No fee may be charged for the course other than what may be needed for supplies as suggested in the 2 above.
4. Recommended class size is 25; in no case may it exceed 30; if more desire the course, then additional courses should be set up. The teacher has sole responsibility for admission of candidates, and may dismiss them for lack of progress, poor attendance, or other proper reason.
5. Recommended number of classes for the first course, which includes the primer and four readers of the second book, is 65 — five classes per week for three months of 1 to 1^{1/2} hours. The programme may be decelerated or accelerated at the discretion of the teacher by changing the length of the class period or the number of meetings per week. Classes should not

be less than one hour or more than two hours in length. The number of classes per week should not be less three or more than seven.

6. The teacher will be paid Nepali Rs. 45 for each course (of approximately 65 meetings) taught, provided at least 20 of the students pass the literacy examination at the end of the course, or a prorated share if fewer pass.
7. Students who pass the literacy examination will be given literacy certificates.
8. Qualified persons desiring to set up a literacy class should secure written approval of the Village Development Centre Manager or School Inspector and notification of approval should be forwarded to the Director, Bureau of Adult Education, Kathmandu.

Plans are under way to provide for further expansion of this programme as rapidly as materials, teachers, and funds become available.

Education by radio is a part of the adult education programme. About one hundred radio receiving sets have been ordered to place in selected villages to permit the residents to listen to Nepal Radio and other programmes. In addition to the present educational programmes, it is hoped that various departments of government—Village Development, Agriculture, Education, Health, etc.—will prepare series of informative programmes for these and other listeners. An assistant programme director has been employed to supervise the preparation of educational programmes for children and adults.

It is hoped that these radios will be used by the new primary schools and other schools during the daytime and by the adults at some centrally located place in the off-school hours.

The following plan has been approved by the GON and USOM Co-directors for the distribution of the receiving sets :

1. Village Development Centre Managers will recommend villages to be given a set.
2. Villages having schools will be given preference.
3. Villages in which no privately owned sets are available for popular use will be given preference.
4. Over-all distribution will be governed to some extent by population distribution.
5. Village Development Centre Managers are expected to maintain mechanical supervision of the sets and provide battery re-charging facilities. They will maintain custody of the sets which shall be considered as loaned to the villages.

This is a pilot attempt to develop more effective education of the village people through radio broadcast. To fully utilize these facilities, College of Education staff members will assist in the preparation of special educational programmes, both for primary school children and for adults.

The organization of these teacher training and related activities is shown in the chart on the next page.

The establishment of new primary schools is provided for under the several GON/USOM Agreements. Under this programme, GON and USOM provide a substantial financial grant to villages desiring new primary schools and meeting certain conditions. These new schools are staffed by teachers who have completed training in one of the Normal Schools, or other qualified teachers. Nearly 400 new classrooms have been opened thus far under this programme and 200 more are provided for in the present agreements.

New primary schools may be opened under the following conditions which have been approved by the GON and USOM Co-directors:

1. The community must provide a suitable site. (It is recommended that the area be well drained, attractive, level ; not less than 1/4 acre or equivalent, preferably up to five acres. This may be public park area if arrangements can be made with proper authorities.)
2. The community must provide a suitable building as soon as practicable, and in any event within one year. (Building should be comparable in quality to other buildings in the area.)
3. The community must agree to contribute to the total operating support of the school on the following basis:

<u>Community</u>	<u>GON</u>	<u>USOM</u>
33 ^{1/3} %	33 ^{1/3} %	33 ^{1/3} %

4. The community must agree to a budget based on the salary scale on page 251 plus Rs. 10 per month per teacher for operating costs (supplies, equipment, etc.)
5. The community must agree to employ teachers trained at the Normal Schools if available, or other suitably qualified teachers if approved by the authorities.
6. The strength of the school should not be less than 20 or more than 40 pupils for any teacher, and the average should not exceed 30 pupils per teacher.
7. No tuition may be charged of any pupil, and no pupil shall be refused admission on the grounds of sex, caste, creed, or occupation.
8. The school must operate at least 180 days per year, four hours (grades 1 & 2) or five hours (grades 3 - 5) per day, with reasonably high percentage of attendance, to receive continued financial support from GON and USOM.
9. The school must follow the primary school curriculum recommended in Chapter VIII.
10. The community must select a managing committee of five members for terms of two years (2 or 3 to be selected each year; 2 to be selected for

one year terms and 3 for two-year terms at the time of organization). The Inspector of schools, the District Governor, and the Village Development Centre Manager, if there is one in the area, or their duly assigned representative shall serve as ex-officio members of the committee. The Managing committee shall :

- (a) Employ and discharge teacher (s) on the recommendation of the Inspector of schools or his representative.
 - (b) Raise the necessary supporting funds through donations, voluntary cess, or other means acceptable to the community, except the levying of tuition.
 - (c) Define the boundaries of the area to be served by the school.
 - (d) Establish business-like procedures for collecting and disbursing funds and protecting them against loss.
 - (e) Follow the Nepal Education Code in other details not covered above.
11. In general it is considered advisable for a community to open one room or one class at a time. One teacher may be employed the first year, another second year, and so on.

The details for this programme are described in the *Operations Manual for Education Projects*, obtainable from the Ministry of Education.

The *University Planning Commission*, which was appointed in the Spring of 1956, as recommended in Chapter X of this Report, has selected a site for the national university and has prepared a charter. Three university administrators are now at the University of Oregon for six months of training. Plans are under way to engage a site planner and building architects in the immediate future.

The *proposed* University Charter provides for the immediate coordination of existing institutions of higher learning and all future collegiate-level institutions under one university administration. A modern democratic organization is provided which promises strong administrative leadership. The Five Year Plan for Education, prepared in the summer of 1956, recommended the following steps for the development of the University:

- 12. Appointment of a permanent control body through the promulgation of a University Act containing the Charter of a University. A temporary University Commission has been appointed by the Queen. This Commission is now in the process of selecting a site and is considering a proposed Charter for the University.
- 13. Training a small corp of administrative officers to administer existing institutions under one control by bringing them together in a unified University organization. Three participant scholarships are available to train the three top administrators of the University. (Now in training)

Practically no added cost is involved in these first two steps.

- 14. The third step is to immediately organize a professional College of

Education with the existing National Teacher Training Centre as a nucleus, expanding it into a four-year College of Education for the training of elementary and secondary school teachers, and other educational leaders. (This programme is now being accomplished)

15. The next advisable step in the development of a comprehensive University is the establishment of a professional School of Agriculture including a department of home science and ultimately a department of forestry. In its inception, such a school could be started with two faculty members in Agriculture (one crops and one animal husbandry) and one in home science. These staff members should be selected immediately and sent to a foreign country for one year of additional training for their tasks. Such a professional school of Agriculture should gradually incorporate the following research and service agencies.

- (a) A central experiment station
- (b) Such branch experiment stations as are required by variations in altitude, temperature, soils, rainfall and other environmental factors

TABLE XX. GON/USOM EDUCATION PROJECTS PAY SCALE

Training Experiences	Literacy or Primary school completion	middle school completion	higher school Matric	Intmed. passed or equivalent	B.A. passed or equivalent	M.Ed. or Ma pass or equivalent	M.Ed. or M.A and 1 yr or equivalent	Dr. pass
1 yr	30/5	40/10	50/10	72/10	105/15	180/20	190/20	200/20
2 yr	31/5	41/10	51/10	75/10	110/15	196/20	210/20	240/20
3 yr	33/5	43/10	53/10	77/10	115/15	212/20	230/20	280/20
4 yr	34/5	44/10	55/10	80/10	120/15	228/20	250/20	360
5 yr	36/5	46/10	57/10	82/10	125/15	244/20	270/20	400
6 yr	37/5	47/10	60/10	85/10	130/15	260/20	290/20	440
7 yr	38/5	49/10	62/10	87/10	135/15	276/20	320	480
8 yr	40/5	50/10	65/10	90/10	140/15	292/20	340	500
Efficiency bar and test of work								
9 yr	42/5	52/10	67/10	92/10	145/15	316	360	500
10 yr	43/5	53/10	69/10	95/10	150/15	332	380	500
11 yr	45/5	55/10	71/10	98/10	155/15	348	400	500
12 yr	46/5	56/10	74/10	101/10	160/15	364	420	500
13 yr	48/5	58/10	76/10	104/10	165/15	380	440	500
14 yr	50/5	60/10	78/10	107/10	170/15	396	460	500
15 yr	51/5	61/10	80/10	110/10	175/15	412	480	500
Efficiency bar and test of work								
16 yr	54/5	64/10	82/10	114/10	180/15	436	500	500
17 yr	55/5	65/10	84/10	118/10	185/15	452	500	500
18 yr	57/5	67/10	86/10	122/10	190/15	478	500	500
19 yr	58/5	68/10	88/10	126/10	195/15	484	500	500
20 yr	60/5	70/10	90/10	130/10	200/15	500	500	500

- (c) Research and service laboratories for soil testing, seed testing, animal diagnostic services, forest nurseries, etc., all of which would serve the multipurpose of instruction, research and service to governmental departments.

16. The next step, probably two years hence, should be the organization of a School of Engineering as a part of the University programme. This should be phased in by first selecting a nucleus staff of about five Nepali engineering graduates with their bachelor's or Master's degrees, and then sending them to a foreign country for a year's training. Such a staff might well be composed of one civil, one electrical, one mechanical, one industrial and one mining engineer. Upon completion of the training programme, a foreign technician should be obtained to advise in launching a professional engineering school. Such a school might well consist of the following:

- (a) Short courses (6 months to a year) for technicians and supervisors in the several areas needed by Nepal in its developmental program, e.g. draftsman, surveyors, construction supervisors, etc.
- (b) Four year degree granting curricula, with a common base for two

years, and specialization in mechanical electrical, civil, industrial or mining the last two years.

- (c) Non duplicating laboratories which would serve instruction, research and service to governmental department, e.g. materials testing laboratory, mines and metallurgy laboratory, hydraulic laboratory.

17. Ultimately the University should embrace a medical school, including nursing education, and finally dentistry. Such a professional school must await the following:

- (a) Training of a nucleus staff in the basic medical science including anatomy, physiology, pathology, biochemistry, and bacteriology. Carefully chosen individuals should be sent foreign countries at an early date for at least two years periods of study.
- (b) This is to be followed by selection of three medical practitioners for a year of training in a foreign country to be the nucleus clinical staff of a School of Medicine.
- (c) Improvement of existing hospitals to bring them to a reasonable standard for bed-side instruction by the clinical staff.
- (d) Obtaining the service of a technician to advice in the organization of a Medical School including the curricula, equipment, personnel, etc.

The development of the above medical science programmes is a long range task requiring probably a period of ten years. However, the training of personnel, because it will require several years, might well be considered at an early date. Following two years of training for a pre-medical staff, a small class of about ten could be started through at least two years of pre-medical instruction, topped by two years of bed-side clinical instruction and one year of hospital internship. Thus, it would be seven years after the selection of a nucleus premedical staff for training that a small class of general practitioners would be prepared for medical service to the Nation.

The emphasis on *foreign training for key personnel* should be continued until there is an adequate supply of well trained professional personnel in the University, and until the University is in a position to train its own staff members and other technicians as well as meet lower-level needs. Existing plans with foreign-aid agencies contemplate ten to twenty foreign scholarships in college and university training per year for at least the next ten years.

In summary, attention is now being focused on the following activities:

1. Implementation of the work of the National Education Planning Commission and the development of the Five Year Plan.
2. Training of teachers, both locally and in outlying areas by mobile teams.
3. Developing the College of Education.
4. Preparation and printing of publications.

5. Promotion of adult literacy.
6. Promotion of education by radio.
7. Implementing the work of the University Planning Commission.

The Co-directors of the GON/USOM education projects and the University of Oregon Field Representatives, the staff of the Normal Schools and the College of Education, the Ministry of Education, the Education Board, and all others interested in promoting education in Nepal, must give their cooperative efforts to these activities and must encourage the implementations of this *Report* at the earliest possible moment.

Long-range planning is always difficult and speculative to say the least. Nevertheless, it is essential to systematically conceived progress. The various proposals outlined in Past II of this Report as essential to development of education in Nepal, the recommendations of Part III, and the Five Year Plan represent long-range planning. Some of these activities may become realities before others; most of them will go through stages of change and development. But taken all together they represent the best thinking of the members of the Commission.

All persons concerned with the future of education in Nepal must work to bring about the realization these long-range plans. Most of these activities cannot be accomplished without months, in some cases years, of advance preparation. That is why they are long-range plans. Only by united, concentrated efforts can the ultimate goals be reached.

APPENDIX

Ministry of Education

MEMBERS OF THE COMMISSION

Chairman of the Commission

Sardar Rudra Raj Pandey, Director of Archeology, Chairman of the Board of Education, Government of Nepal.

Secretary-Treasurer of the Commission

Trailokya Nath Upraity, Deputy Secretary, Ministry of Education, Government of Nepal.

Educational Advisor to the Commission

Dr. Hugh B. Wood, Professor of Education, University of Oregon. Members of the Commission

Itihas Siromani Babu Ram Acharya (Historian and Educationist) Karunakar Baidya, Machhendra Institute

Padma Prasad Bhattarai, Vice-Principal, Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya Kaisher Bahadur K.C., Member, Public Service Commission Ratna Bahadur Bist, Member, Law Commission

Mrs. Burhathoki, Headmistress, Padma Kanya Vidya Shram

Jagat Bahadur Burhathoki, Professor of Geography, Tri-Chandra College

Bhaba Nath Dhungana, Secretary, Land Reform Commission Ashutosh Ganguli, Professor of Mathematics, Tri-Chandra College Mrs. Chandra Gurung, Home Economics Training School Bijaya Nandan Joshi, Headmaster, Judhodaya Public High School

Shyam Raj Dhoj Joshi, Headmaster, National Teacher Training Centre

Yadu Nath Khanal, Head, Department of English, Tri-Chandra College

Murari Krishna, News Editor, Nepal Radio

Mrs. Chandra Mahat, Headmistress, Montessori School

Bramhi Datta Pandey, Professor of Botany, Tri-Chandra College Gopal

● Pandey, Secretary, Nepal Shikshya Parishad

Nayan Raj Pandey, Director, Sanskrit and Nepali Studies Shanker Deva Panth, Principal Nepal National College

Amrit Prasad Pradhan, Professor of Chemistry Tri-Chandra College Bhairab Bahadur Pradhan, Principal, Durbar Intermediate College Rudra Dass Rajbanshi, Technical School

Mrs. Rana, Head, Female Hospital

Kula Ratna, Engineer, Public Works Department

Jitendra Bahadur Saha, Director General of Public Instruction, Government of Nepal.

Bal Krishna Sama, Poet and Dramatist

Ashutosh Sen, Principal, Tri-Chandra College

Deva Nath Sharma, Member, Public Service Commission
Tulsi Bahadur Shrestha, Montessori School

Soma Nath Sharma, Principal, Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya
Pushkar Shumshere, Head, Nepal Bhasha Prakashini Samiti
Govinda Mohan Srivastava, Lawyer

Bajra Kant Thakur, Assistant Secretary, Ministry of Education

Sarada Prasad Upadhyaya, Assistant Director for Public Instruction,
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Floyd Dowell, USOM Technician, Village Development Programme

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Miss Ellen Moline, Ford Foundation Representative, Home Economics
Father Marshall D. Moran, S. J., Principal, Godavari School
Donald Portway, Former UNESCO Representative to Nepal

Dirgha Man Shrestha, Instructor, National Teacher Training Centre

Rama Prasad Tandukar, Instructor, National Teacher Training Center

Mahendra Bahadur Thapa, Instructor, National Teacher Training Center

Moderation Committee

Kaisher Bahadur K. C., Secretary of Education, (Chairman of the Committee)

Soma Nath Sharma, Principal, Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya, (Member of the Committee)

Yadu Nath Khanal, Professor of English, Tri-Chandra College, (Member of the Committee)

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