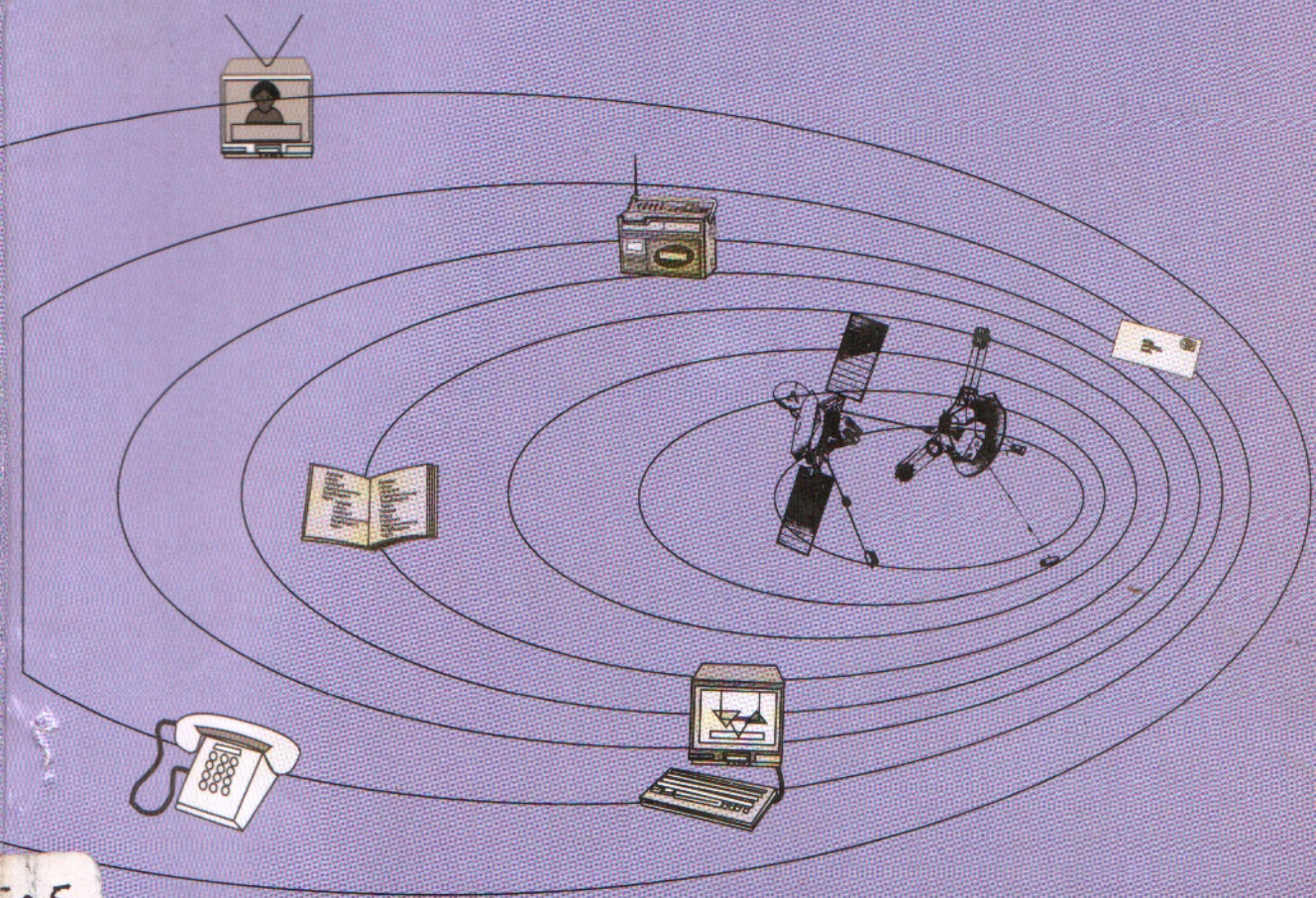


दूर शिक्षा

DISTANCE EDUCATION



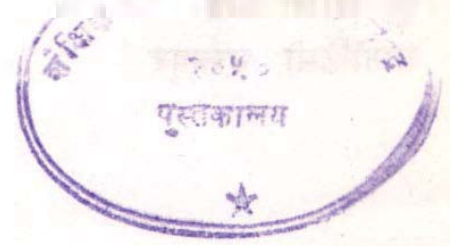
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दूर शिक्षा

DISTANCE EDUCATION



प्रधान सम्पादक
अर्जुनबहादुर भण्डारी

सम्पादकहरू
जगन्नाथ अवा सुनिता मालाकार
द्रोण दाहाल हरि गौतम

श्री ५ को सरकार
शिक्षा तथा खेतकुद मन्त्रालय
दूर शिक्षा केन्द्र
सानोठिमी, भक्तपुर
२०५९

प्रकाशक

श्री ५ को सरकार
शिक्षा तथा खेलकुद मन्त्रालय
दूर शिक्षा केन्द्र
सानोठिमी, भक्तपुर

© दूर शिक्षा केन्द्र, २०५९

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(लेख रचनाहरूमा अभिव्यक्त गरिएका विचार लेखकहरूका निजी विचार हुन्)

आवरण पृष्ठ डिजाइन

- सुमन बज्राचार्य

टाइप सेटिङ तथा डिजाइन

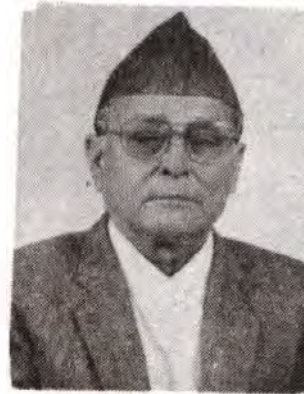
- लक्ष्मी श्रेष्ठ



आमोद प्रसाद उपाध्याय

शिक्षा तथा खेलकुद मन्त्री

निजी सचिवालय



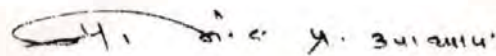
फोन नं. { ४११४६६
४१४६६०

२०५१/०९/१३

शुभकामना ।

शिक्षा विकासको आधार हो भने विकास सरह शिक्षा निरन्तर चलि रहने प्रक्रिया पनि हो । विकासको क्रमसँगै शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा पनि नयाँ आयामहरू थपिदै जान्छन् । शैक्षिक विकासको माध्यमबाट नै विश्वग्रामको अवधारणालाई साकार पार्न सकिन्छ । आजको नागरिक समाजको ठूलो जमातलाई हरेक कामहरू वैज्ञानिक ढङ्गबाट सम्पन्न गर्ने क्षमता प्रदान गर्न शैक्षिक संस्थाहरूले शिक्षाका विभिन्न पक्षहरूलाई जनसमुदायमा पुर्याउन विभिन्न उपायहरूको अवलम्बन गर्नुपर्ने आवश्यकता भएको छ । यस सन्दर्भमा शिक्षा हस्तान्तरण गर्ने साधनका रूपमा वैज्ञानिक उपकरण जस्तो रेडियो, टेलिभिजन, टेलिफोन, इमेल, इन्टरनेटहरूको प्रयोग पनि हुँदै आएको छ । हाम्रो देशमा पनि दूर शिक्षा केन्द्रले रेडियोमा आधारित दूर शिक्षा प्रणालीको माध्यमबाट प्राथमिक विद्यालयहरूका शिक्षकहरूलाई सेवाकालीन तालिम प्रदान गरेर शिक्षा क्षेत्रको विकासमा योगदान दिँदै आएको छ । आफ्नो नियमित कार्यहरूलाई प्रभावकारी रूपमा सम्पन्न गर्नका साथै दूर शिक्षा केन्द्रले गत वर्षदेखि "दूर शिक्षा" पत्रिका प्रकाशन गर्ने परम्पराको थालनी पनि गरेको छ । यसले सम्बन्धित विषयको जानकारीको लागि विशेष मद्दत पुगेको हुँदा त्यसमा मैले खुशीको अनुभव गरेको छु ।

दूर शिक्षा केन्द्रबाट यस वर्ष पनि प्रकाशित हुने "दूर शिक्षा" पत्रिकाले पाठकहरूमा आफ्नो विशेष प्रभाव कायम गर्नेछ । दूर शिक्षा प्रणालीमा आधारित शिक्षण सिकाइसँग पूर्ण रूपमा परिचित हुन हामी केही पछि परे तापनि दूर शिक्षा प्रणालीबाट विश्वको शैक्षिक वातावरण निकै नै लाभान्वित भएको पाइन्छ । यस पत्रिकामा समावेश भएका लेख रचनाहरू कुनै न कुनै रूपमा यस विषयसित सम्बन्धित हुने र तिनले सम्बन्धित विषयको जानकारी सत्रैलाई गराउने भएकोले यो पत्रिका प्रकाशनको विशेष महत्व छ । अतः "दूर शिक्षा" पत्रिकाको नियमितता र यस अंकको सफल प्रकाशनको लागि हार्दिक शुभकामना व्यक्त गर्दछु ।



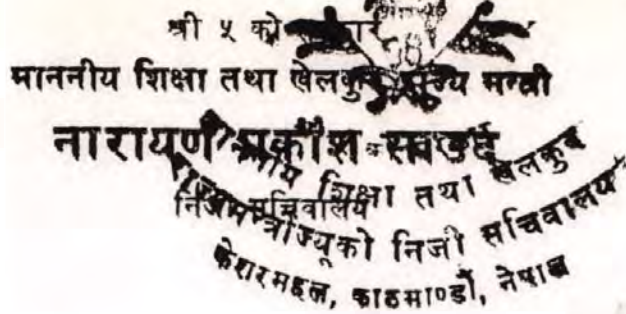
(आमोद प्रसाद उपाध्याय)

शिक्षा तथा खेलकुद मन्त्री



[The following text is extremely faint and largely illegible due to the quality of the scan. It appears to be a multi-paragraph document, possibly a letter or a report, written in a cursive or semi-cursive hand. The text is arranged in several columns across the page.]

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फोन नं. { मन्त्रालय: ४९२६०४
{ मन्त्री निवास: ५२७४९३

कशरमहल काठमाडौं
नेपाल ।

मिति:- २०५६।१।२१

पत्र संख्या:-

प. नं.:—

विषय:-

शुभकामना ।



शिक्षा विकासका लागि सबैको प्रयासले सधैं समान महत्त्व राख्छ । शिक्षामा सबैलाई समान अवसर प्रदान गर्न र गुणस्तरयुक्त जीवनोपयोगी शिक्षाका निमित्त त सबैको सामूहिक प्रयासको भन्ने विशेष भूमिका हुन्छ । यसका लागि परम्परागत रूपले विद्यालयमा प्रदान गरिने शिक्षा सरह दूर शिक्षाको माध्यमबाट प्रदान गरिने शिक्षाको पनि त्यत्तिकै भूमिका छ । हामी कहाँ पनि दूर शिक्षा केन्द्रले विगत केही वर्षदेखि प्राथमिक विद्यालयका शिक्षकहरूलाई सेवाकालिन तालिम र शिक्षा विकाससँग सम्बन्धित विभिन्न शैक्षिक क्रियाकलापमा आफ्नो सक्रिय भूमिका निर्वाह गर्दै आएको पाइन्छ । त्यसै क्रममा दूर शिक्षा केन्द्रले गत वर्षदेखि "दूर शिक्षा" पत्रिकाको प्रकाशन गर्ने शुभ कार्यको शालनी गरेको हो । त्यसलाई निरन्तरता दिन यस वर्ष पनि प्रयास भएको हुँदा शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा चासो राख्नेहरू सबैका लागि खुशी लाग्नु स्वभाविक मानिने कुरा मैले महसुस गरेको छु ।

यस "दूर शिक्षा" मा प्रकाशित रचनाहरूले शिक्षा क्षेत्रका पाठकहरूलाई शैक्षिक खुराक प्रदान गर्ने र शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा काम गर्नेहरूका लागि पनि केही सल्लाह र सुझाव प्रदान गर्ने कुरामा विश्वास राख्न सकिन्छ । यसका साथै आजका २१ औं शताब्दीमा सूचना तथा संचारका साधन र सम्बन्धित विषयमा नवीनतम जानकारीमूलक ज्ञान एवं शिक्षा दिने यस किसिमको प्रकाशनको पनि विशेष भूमिका रहन्छ । अतः दूर शिक्षा केन्द्रबाट प्रकाशित हुने यस "दूर शिक्षा" पत्रिकाले आगामी वर्षहरूमा पनि निरन्तरता कायम गर्न सकोस भन्ने अपेक्षा राख्दै प्रकाशनको सफलताका लागि हार्दिक शुभकामना व्यक्त गर्दछु ।

(नारायण प्रकाश साहू)

राज्यमन्त्री

शिक्षा तथा खेलकूद मन्त्रालय

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ब्रह्मणे नमः ॥ ३ ॥
शिवाय नमः ॥ ४ ॥
सूर्याय नमः ॥ ५ ॥
चंद्राय नमः ॥ ६ ॥
वसुदेवाय नमः ॥ ७ ॥
कृष्णाय नमः ॥ ८ ॥
राधाय नमः ॥ ९ ॥
गोविन्दाय नमः ॥ १० ॥
नमो भगवते वासुदेवाय ॥ ११ ॥
नमो भगवते वासुदेवाय ॥ १२ ॥
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श्री ५ को सरकार

शिक्षा तथा खेलकूद मन्त्रालय

फोन नं.

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४१२०१३
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(..... शाखा)



श्री ५ को सरकार
शिक्षा तथा खेलकूद मन्त्रालय
केशरमहल, काठमाडौं, नेपाल

पत्र संख्या:-

चत्तानी नं.:-

केशरमहल,

काठमाडौं, नेपाल ।

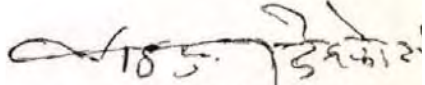
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शुभकामना



दूर शिक्षा केन्द्रले गत वर्ष भै यस वर्ष पनि 'दूर शिक्षा' पत्रिका प्रकाशन गर्न लागेको थाहा पाउँदा मलाई खुशी लागेको छ । वास्तवमा शिक्षालाई समयको आवश्यकता अनुरूप रुपान्तर गर्न र विज्ञान तथा प्रविधिमूलक शिक्षाको विविध पक्षमा विशेष जानकारी दिन स्तरीय पत्रिकाहरुको पनि आफ्नै किसिमको भूमिका हुन्छ । विश्वभरी नै खुला विश्वविद्यालयको आवश्यकता अझ बढी महसुस भईरहेको वर्तमान शन्दर्भमा प्रकाशित हुन गईरहेको पत्रिका मार्फत सम्बन्धित पक्षका गहकिला लेखरचना प्रकाशित गरी त्यस केन्द्रले खुला शिक्षाको महत्व अनुकूलको बातावरण तयार गर्ने तर्फ योगदान दिन सकोस् भनी हार्दिक शुभ कामना व्यक्त गर्दछु ।


(लवकुमार देवकोटा)
सचिव

सम्पादकीय

आजको मानव सभ्यता विगतमा गरिएको अथक प्रयास र परिश्रमको परिणाम हो । विद्यमान अवस्थाले नवप्रवर्तनको दिशातर्फ अग्रसर हुन सधैं अभिप्रेरित गरेको हुन्छ । मानिसमा पाइने विकासात्मक प्रवृत्तिको कारण पनि यही हो । सामयिक सन्दर्भअनुसार शिक्षाक्षेत्रमा पनि नवप्रवर्तनले महत्त्व राख्ने कुरा शिक्षाविदहरू बताउँछन् । समयको गतिसँगै विश्वमा देखिएको परिवर्तनले मानव समाजको सबै पक्षमा आफ्नै किसिमका नयाँ आयामहरू थप्दै लगेको छ । शिक्षाक्षेत्र पनि मानव समाजकै एक उप-प्रणाली हो । यस एकाइसौं शताब्दीमा शिक्षाक्षेत्रको स्वरूप पनि बदलिनुपर्छ भन्ने मान्यता धेरैको देखिन्छ । आफ्ना क्रियाकलापहरू बढाउँदै लान समर्थ भएको यस शताब्दीको मानिस विश्वकै गतिविधिका बारेमा जानकारी राख्न चाहन्छ । यो जानकारी हासिल गर्ने हैसियत भनेको शिक्षाले मात्र मानिसलाई सम्भव गराउँछ । यस अर्थमा सबै मानिसका लागि शिक्षा त्यत्तिकै महत्त्वपूर्ण मानिन्छ ।

शिक्षा गरिबी निवारण र विकास निर्माणको एउटा सशक्त माध्यम भएकाले यसको महत्त्वलाई न्यून भएको ठान्न मिल्दैन, यसको मतलब शिक्षालाई नै अन्तिम साध्यका रूपमा लिनु भनेको पनि होइन । शिक्षालाई स्वाभाविक रूपमा हुने मानिसको विकाससँग सम्बद्ध गरिनु आवश्यक हुन्छ । केवल किताबी ज्ञानमात्र शिक्षा हो भन्ने अवधारणालाई हटाउनुपर्छ । व्यवहारलाई आत्मसात् गरेर व्यक्तिले शिक्षाग्रहण गर्नु आवश्यक मानिन्छ । अहिलेको अवस्थामा त व्यक्तिले रेडियो सुन्दा वा टी.भी. हेर्दा गीतको माध्यमबाट शब्द र अर्थग्रहण गर्ने गर्नुपर्छ । विदेशीसँग कुराकानी गरेर अंग्रेजी भाषा सिक्ने अवसर पाउनुपर्छ । क्याल्कुलेटिङ् मेसिन चलाउँदा चलाउँदै आफूमा गणितीय धारणाको विकास गर्नुपर्छ । शान्ति, अहिंसा, सौहार्द्रताका कुराहरूको महत्त्व धार्मिक प्रवचनबाट बुझ्न सकिन्छ । यति हो कि शिक्षा भनेको जीवनभर चलिरहने प्रक्रिया हो र आफू भनेको एउटा सिकारू विद्यार्थी हुँ भन्ने कुरालाई कहिल्यै बिर्सनु हुन्न । कम्प्युटर र यान्त्रिक मानव जस्ता वैज्ञानिक उपकरणहरू हाम्रा अभिन्न साथी बनेका छन् । तिनको प्रयोगबाट नै धेरै कुराहरू सिक्न सकिन्छ । यसको तात्पर्य मानवीय अस्तित्वलाई बिर्सेर पूरै यान्त्रिक उपकरणमा निर्भर गर्नुपर्छ भन्ने पनि होइन । वैज्ञानिक उपकरणहरू त मानवीय हितका लागि निर्माण गरिएका हुन् । तिनलाई सदुपयोग गरेर मानवीय सभ्यताको धरोहरलाई अग्ल्याउँदै लैजानु नै हाम्रो पुरुषार्थ हो ।

शिक्षामा प्राथमिकता दिनुपर्ने क्षेत्रमध्ये सूचना प्रवाहको सर्वव्यापकता पनि एक हो । सूचनाको प्रवाह दूर शिक्षाप्रणालीबाट बढी प्रभावकारी हुन आउँछ । सूचना प्रवाहमा विचारमूलक पत्रिकाको पनि ठूलो भूमिका हुन्छ । यिनै कुराहरूलाई विचार गरेर गत वर्षदेखि “दूर शिक्षा” पत्रिकाको प्रकाशनको आरम्भ भएको हो । यसै क्रममा “दूर शिक्षा” पत्रिकाको दोस्रो अङ्क पाठकहरूका सामु प्रकाशन गरिएको छ । यस प्रयासबाट केही हदमा भए पनि प्राज्ञिक वातावरणको सिर्जना गर्नमा सहयोग पुऱ्याउँछ भन्ने विश्वास लिइएको छ । यसलाई स्तरीय र उपयोगी बनाउन प्रशस्त प्रयास गर्दागर्दै पनि कतिपय कमजोरीहरू हुन सक्छन् । यसमा विज्ञ एवम् सचेत पाठकहरूको सकारात्मक दृष्टि रहनेछ भन्ने अपेक्षा राखिएको छ ।

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विषयप्रवेश

प्राथमिक तहमा व्याकरणलाई औपचारिक रूपमा सिकाउने कुरा स्वयम्मा उपयुक्त मानिँदैन । किनभने व्याकरण भने भाषाभित्र अन्तर्निहित हुन्छ । यो भाषाको बनोट एवम् संरचनासँग सम्बन्धित व्यवस्था हो । त्यसैले यो अमूर्त हुन्छ । यस्तो अमूर्त कुरा भाषालाई कामचलाउ रूपमा प्रयोग गर्न पनि जानिनसकेका बालबालिकाहरूका लागि शिक्षणको विषय बनाउन खोज्नु अनुचित हुन्छ । त्यसैले प्रारम्भिक कक्षाहरूमा सुनाइ, बोलाइ जस्ता भाषाका आधारभूत सीपहरूको सिकाइमा जोड दिइन्छ । बालबालिकाहरूको पहिलो आवश्यकता भनेको आफूले जानेका, सिकेका र सिक्नुपर्ने विषयवस्तुको सम्प्रेषणका लागि चाहिने भाषालाई प्राप्त गर्नु हो । यस्तो प्राप्ति उनीहरूलाई सुनाइ, बोलाइका गतिविधिमा अभ्यस्त बनाउनाले मात्र मिल्छ । भाषाको सामान्य प्रयोगमा अभ्यस्त भइनसकेकाहरूका लागि व्याकरणको कुरा विलकुलै अप्रासङ्गिक ठानिन्छ । उनीहरूलाई व्याकरण सिकाउन खोज्नु तार्ती गर्न नजान्नेलाई हिँड्न सिकाउनु जस्तै हो ।

प्राथमिक तहमा व्याकरण सिकाउनु बालबालिकाको अपेक्षाको विषय होइन भन्ने खुलस्त भए पनि माथिल्ला कक्षाहरूमा हामीले पढिआएका विषयहरूलाई नै उनीहरूको आवश्यकता, रुचि र क्षमताअनुरूप हाँस्रनहोस् वा उनीहरूले ग्रहण गर्न सकून्सकून् सिकाउन खोज्ने मानसिकता हामीमा रहेको पाइन्छ । यस्तो मानसिकतामा हाम्रो अपेक्षा बढी प्रतिविम्बित रहेको हुन्छ । तसर्थ यमरी प्राथमिक तहमा व्याकरण सिकाउनु बालबालिकाको आवश्यकताको विषय नभई उनीहरूका लागि अनावश्यक बोझको विषय हुनु स्वाभाविक हो ।

विद्यमान स्थिति

उल्लिखित परिप्रेक्ष्यलाई ध्यान दिई राष्ट्रिय शिक्षा पद्धतिको योजना २०२८ ले बनाएको प्राथमिक तह (कक्षा: १-३) को नेपाली पाठ्यक्रमले यस तहमा सुनाइ, बोलाइ, पढाइ र लेखाइका आधारसीपहरू सिकाउने मात्र अपेक्षा गरेको थियो । यस पाठ्यक्रमले कुनै पनि सन्दर्भमा व्याकरणबारे उल्लेख औपचारिक रूपमा व्याकरण सिकाउने कुरालाई अप्रासङ्गिक र अनावश्यक ठानेको स्पष्ट हुन्छ । २०२८ को पाठ्यक्रममा कक्षा ४ र ५ लाई निम्नमाध्यमिकमा समावेश गरिएको छ । यी दुई कक्षामा भने व्याकरणका केही पाठ्यवस्तुहरूलाई प्रवेश गराइएको देखिन्छ । त्यसपछि २०३८ को संशोधित पाठ्यक्रम र सोअनुसार लेखिएका पाठ्यपुस्तकहरूमा पनि २०२८ कै दृष्टिकोण अनुसरण भएको पाइन्छ ।

प्राथमिक शिक्षा पाठ्यक्रम २०४९ मा भने व्याकरणलाई भाषाशिक्षणको अनिवार्य पक्ष ठानिएको देखिन्छ । यसमा कक्षा १ देखि नै नाम, सर्वनाम, विशेषण आदिको उल्लेख गरेर यिनको शिक्षण सोही कक्षादेखि गर्नुपर्ने स्थिति सिर्जना गरिएको आभास हुन्छ । पहिलेका पाठ्यक्रमको अपेक्षा यसमा प्रारम्भदेखि नै व्याकरण समावेश गर्नाले प्राथमिक तहको नेपाली शिक्षणमा व्याकरणबारे अन्योल बढेको छ । फलस्वरूप पाठ्यपुस्तकका लेखकहरू पनि यस अन्योलबाट आक्रान्त भई

* प्राध्यापक, शिक्षा शास्त्र संकाय, त्रि.वि.

कक्षा १ देखि नै व्याकरणका पाठ्यवस्तुहरू समावेश गर्न उद्यत भएका देखिन्छन् । यही अस्पष्टता र अन्योलको बहानामा निजी क्षेत्रबाट निस्किएका पाठ्यपुस्तकहरूका पाठका अभ्यासस्तम्भहरूमा व्याकरणलाई अझ विस्तारित रूपमा समावेश गर्ने र त्यसका आधारमा व्याकरणको अलग्गै पाठ्यपुस्तक लेख्ने दृष्टिकोणले समेत प्रोत्साहन पाएको देख्न सकिन्छ । यसरी प्रारम्भिक कक्षाहरूदेखि नै व्याकरण जस्तो अमूर्त र बोझिलो पाठ्यवस्तुको प्रवेश गराउनमा राष्ट्रिय पाठ्यक्रम नै प्रत्यक्ष वा अप्रत्यक्ष रूपमा जिम्मेवार बनेको छ । यसबाट आधारभूत भाषिक सीपको विकासलाई गौण बनाउने भाषा शिक्षणसम्बन्धी पुरातन एवं प्रतिगामी दृष्टिकोण भित्रिएको स्पष्ट हुन्छ । २०४९ को उक्त पाठ्यक्रमले एकातिर सिकाइउपलब्धि को कुरा उठाएको छ भने अर्कातिर यसको विपरीत परम्परागत व्याकरणका पाठ्यवस्तु र तत्सम्बन्धी पारिभाषिक शब्दहरूको पट्यारलाग्दो सूचीकरणमा यो पाठ्यक्रम अल्झेको छ । पाठ्यक्रमले उद्देश्यका रूपमा एकातिर भाषिक सीपगत सिकाइउपलब्धिहरूको अपेक्षा राखेको देखिन्छ तर सोअनुसार विषयवस्तु एवं पाठ्यवस्तुहरूको छनोटप्रति स्पष्ट धारणा दिन नसकेकाले अन्योलमात्र पारेको छ । कार्यमूलक व्याकरण भनेर व्याकरणमा आधुनिक दृष्टिकोणको आवरण दिन खोजिए पनि तत्सम्बन्धी पाठ्यवस्तुको सूची चाहिँ परम्परागत व्याकरणमा आधारित भएकाले पाठ्यपुस्तक लेखन, शिक्षण र यसको प्रशिक्षण समेत अन्योलको भुमरीमा ग्रस्त हुन पुगेको छ । प्रशिक्षणका प्रचलित पाठ्यक्रम र सोअनुरूप बनेका प्रशिक्षण निर्देशिकाहरूमा भाषिक सीपसम्बन्धी एकाइहरूभन्दा व्याकरणका पाठ्यवस्तुसँग सम्बन्धित एकाइहरूको भार अधिकाधिक भएबाट पनि यसको पुष्टि सहजै हुन सक्छ ।

भाषिक सीपहरू र व्याकरण

भाषाभित्र व्याकरण निहित हुनाले भाषा र व्याकरण एक-अर्कामा आवद्ध रहनु स्वाभाविक छ । तसर्थ भाषिक सीप प्राप्त हुँदा व्याकरण स्वतः प्राप्त हुँदै जाने हुन्छ । यसका लागि व्याकरण अलग्गै सिक्किरहने आवश्यकता पर्दैन । बालकले आफ्नो मातृभाषा आमाको काखदेखि नै सिक्दै आएको हुन्छ । त्यसवेला ऊ आफ्नो भाषाको व्याकरणप्रति अलग्गै रूपमा सचेत हुँदैन, भाषा सिक्न उसलाई कुनै कठिनाई परेको महसुस पनि हुँदैन । ऊ सहज र निर्बाध रूपमा आफ्नो भाषा सिक्किरहेको हुन्छ । यस किसिमको परिस्थितिमा सुनाइ, बोलाइ जस्ता भाषिक सीपहरू सजिलैसँग सिक्किने हुन्छन् । भाषा सिक्दा न नाम के हो, सर्वनाम के हो वा विशेषण के हो भन्ने सम्बन्धमा भाषाको सिकारुलाई बुझ्ने आवश्यकता पर्छ न भाषिक वातावरणका अभिप्रेरक बनेका आमाबाबु वा दिदीदाजुलाई नै यो नाम हो, यो सर्वनाम हो वा यिनको परिभाषा यस्तो हो भनी व्याख्या गर्नुपर्ने आवश्यकता हुन्छ । प्रारम्भिक कक्षामा भाषा शिक्षणमा सहज परिवेशको अपेक्षा गरिन्छ । सुनाइ, बोलाइ, पढाइ र लेखाइका प्रारम्भिक कार्यकलापमा जोड दिई शिक्षार्थीहरूलाई भाषाको प्रयोगमा बढीभन्दा बढी संलग्न बनाउनाले मात्र यस्तो परिवेश सम्भव हुन्छ । तसर्थ यहाँ व्याकरणको प्रसङ्ग ल्याउनु शिक्षणलाई असहज बनाउनु हो, साथै शिक्षार्थीहरूलाई भाषिक सीपसम्बन्धी उद्देश्यपूर्ण गतिविधिमा केन्द्रित गराउनुको सट्टा उनीहरूको ध्यान अन्यत्रै विकर्षण गर्नु जत्तिकै हो ।

कार्यमूलक व्याकरण र प्रचलित व्याकरण

व्याकरणलाई भाषिक सीपसँग आबद्ध गरेर सिकाउन कार्यमूलक व्याकरणको अवधारणा उपयोगी हुन्छ तर नेपाली भाषामा यो अवधारणा अनुरूप व्याकरण लेख्ने प्रयास भएको छैन । परम्परागत व्याकरणले यसका लागि उपयुक्त सामग्री दिन सक्दैन । आधुनिक वर्णनात्मक व्याकरणबाट पनि उक्त उद्देश्य पूरा हुन सक्दैन । कार्यमूलक व्याकरण सिकाउन कक्षाको स्तरसुहाउँदा शैक्षणिक व्याकरणको आवश्यकता पर्ने हुन्छ । यस्ता व्याकरणका पाठ्यवस्तुहरू छनोट र स्तरणको सिद्धान्तमा आधारित हुनुका साथै खास भाषातत्त्वको कार्य अनुरूप सन्दर्भबद्ध प्रयोग सिकाउने पनि खालका हुनुपर्छ । परिभाषा र सैद्धान्तिक ज्ञान प्रस्तुत गर्नु यिनको विषय होइन । खास भाषातत्त्वको प्रयोगसँग परिचित हुने र तत्सम्बन्धी सन्दर्भपूर्ण अभ्यासको प्रावधान भएका सामग्रीहरूले कार्यमूलक व्याकरणको उद्देश्य प्राप्तिमा सहयोग पुऱ्याउँछन् ।

एउटा व्याकरणिक संरचना भाषाको खास कार्य सम्पन्न गर्न वा खास कुराको सम्प्रेषण गर्न विशेष उपयोगी हुन्छ भने अर्को व्याकरणिक संरचना अर्कै कार्यका लागि उपयुक्त मानिन्छ । यसरी भाषाका सबै संरचना सबै कार्यका लागि उत्तिकै उपयोगी हुँदैनन् । यिनका आ-आफ्नै विशेष कार्य हुन्छन् । यी कार्यहरूलाई ध्यान दिएर सोही अनुसारको विषय र सन्दर्भ मिलाई खास किसिमका वाक्यसंरचनाको शिक्षण गर्न सकिन्छ, जसबाट शिक्षार्थीहरूले खास वाक्यढाँचाको प्रयोग गर्ने सुझाव पनि प्राप्त गर्दै जान्छन् र त्यस ढाँचाबाट आफूले चाहेको सन्देश सम्प्रेषित गर्न समेत उनीहरू अभ्यस्त हुन्छन् । यसरी विशेष गरेर वाक्यतत्त्वहरू (वचन, लिङ्ग, पुरुष, आदर, काल, पक्ष, भाव, करण-अकरण आदि) सँग सम्बन्धित व्याकरणका पक्षहरूलाई कार्यमूलक व्याकरणान्तर्गत सिकाउन सकिन्छ । वाक्यतत्त्वहरूको प्रयोगले व्याकरणात्मक धारणा दिनतिर भन्दा सम्प्रेषणात्मक पक्षलाई जोड दिने वा सोसँग प्रत्यक्ष सम्बन्धित हुने हुनाले भाषिक सीपसँग यिनको निकटता रहनु स्वाभाविक छ ।

उल्लिखित दृष्टिले कार्यमूलक ढङ्गले सिकाउन खोजिएमा प्राथमिक कक्षाहरूमा पनि केही हदसम्म व्याकरणलाई उपयोगी बनाउन सकिएला । त्यसमा पनि उक्त किसिमको प्रयोगात्मक प्रावधानका लागि प्रारम्भिक कक्षाहरू (कक्षा १-२) उपयुक्त हुन सक्दैनन् । किनभने यस किसिमका अभ्यासहरू जतिसुकै सन्दर्भबद्ध भए पनि मुक्त अभ्यासका तुलनामा असहज प्रकृतिका नै हुन्छन् । सोभन्दा माथिल्ला कक्षाहरूमा भने कृत्रिम भए पनि त्यस किसिमको वातावरण सिर्जना गर्न सकिन्छ र बालबालिकामा भाषाको उपयुक्त प्रयोगप्रति सचेतता विकास गर्न केही हदसम्म प्रयास गर्नु उपयुक्त हुन्छ ।

पाठ्यपुस्तकका पाठ र व्याकरणका अभ्यास

पाठ्यपुस्तकमा दिइएका पाठहरू भाषाको सन्दर्भबद्ध अभ्यासका लागि सबभन्दा उपयुक्त सामग्री हुन् । यिनले शिक्षार्थीहरूलाई तत्सम्बन्धी भाषिक प्रयोगको सही नमुना उपलब्ध गराउने गर्छन् । यस्ता पाठहरूमा प्रस्तुत विषयवस्तु, शब्दभण्डार र भाषिक संरचनाका आधारमा अभ्यासहरू राखिएका हुन्छन् । यस्ता अभ्यासहरूको प्रयोजन बालबालिकाले संरचनाका आधारमा भाषाका विभिन्न सीप र क्षमता प्राप्त गर्न सकून् भन्ने हो । तसर्थ पाठका अन्त्यमा दिइने व्याकरणका अभ्यासहरू सोही पाठमा प्रयुक्त भाषिक संरचनामा आधारित हुनु उपयुक्त हुन्छ । त्यसो भएमा पाठको भाषाप्रयोगको सन्दर्भसँग आबद्ध गरी शिक्षार्थीहरूले व्याकरणको अभ्यास गर्ने अवसर

पाउँछन् । उनीहरूका लागि यस्ता अभ्यासहरू पाठसँग असन्दर्भित अभ्यासहरूभन्दा बढी उपयोगी हुन सक्छन् तर यी अभ्यासहरू बनाउँदा शिक्षार्थीहरूको क्षमतास्तरलाई विशेष ध्यान राख्नुपर्ने हुन्छ ।

प्राथमिक विद्यालयमा व्याकरण शिक्षणका सम्भावित तरिका

समग्रमा उपर्युक्त चर्चाबाट स्पष्ट भइसकेको छ, प्राथमिक तहमा व्याकरण शिक्षणको कुरा विवादास्पद विषय हो तापनि यस तहका केही माथिल्ला कक्षाहरूमा व्याकरणको सैद्धान्तिक ज्ञानतिर चासो नदेखाई भाषाको संरचनात्मक ढाँचाताई आत्मसात् गर्न र तत्सम्बन्धी प्रयोगको सुझ बढाउने दृष्टिले यसको अप्रत्यक्ष उपयोग गर्न सकिने देखिन्छ । यस्तो उपयोग निम्नलिखित किसिमले गर्न सकिन्छ :

कल्पित उदाहरणहरूको माध्यम

वाक्यतत्वहरूको उपयुक्त प्रयोग सिकाउनका लागि तत्सम्बन्धी प्रकृतिका वाक्यहरूका कल्पित उदाहरणहरू दिई तिनमा अभ्यास गराउन सकिन्छ । उदाहरणार्थ: वचनसम्बन्धी वाक्यरचनाको अभ्यास गराउनु परेमा निम्नानुसारका वाक्यहरूको आधार लिनु पनि उपयुक्त हुन सक्छ :

क. मसँग एउटा किताब छ । मसँग दुइटा किताब छन् ।

मसँग एउटा कलम छ । मसँग दुइटा कलम छन् ।

ख. यो लट्ठी लामो छ । यी लट्ठी लामा छन् ।

यो कलम मोटो छ । यी कलम मोटा छन् ।

२. खाली ठाउँ भर्ने अभ्यास

खाली ठाउँमा ठीक शब्द छानेर लेख :

क. १. दाजु (लेख्छ, लेख्नुहुन्छ)

२. दिदी रेडियो (सुन्छे , सुन्नुहुन्छ)

३. बुवाले किताब..... (पढ्यो, पढ्नुभयो)

अघिल्लोअनुसार पछिल्लोमा मिल्दो के हुन्छ राखेर खाली ठाउँ भर :

ख. १. रमाको बुवा आउनुभयो । आमा आउनुभयो ।

२. हरिकी दिदी जानुभयो । दाजु जानुभयो ।

ग. ३. केटो घरमा बस्छ । केटी घरमा ।

४. कान्छो बाहिर गयो । कान्छी बाहिर ।

घ. १. हरिको किताब । किताबहरू ।

२. मेरो कलम । कलमहरू ।

३. हाम्रो भाइ । भाइहरू ।

४. आफ्नो मान्छे । मान्छेहरू ।

- ड. एकादेशमा एउटा बूढो थियो । त्यो ज्यादै मोटो र अग्लो थियो ।
एकादेशमा थिई । त्यो ज्यादै र थिई ।

३. जोडा मिलाउने अभ्यास

ठीक शब्दसँग जोडा मिलाऊ :

क.	हामी	लेख्छु
	तँ	लेख्छौ
	तिमी	लेख्छ
	ऊ	लेख्नुहुन्छ
	म	लेख्छौ
	तपाईं	लेख्छु
ख.	रामका	बहिनी
	रामकी	भाइ
	रामको	दाजु

४. ठीकवेठीक छुट्याउने अभ्यास

तलका वाक्यहरूमा ठीक-वेठीक छुट्याऊ :

क.	रामले कथा सुनेको छ ।	ख. केटो घर जान्छन् ।
	सीताले कथा सुनेको छ ।	भाइहरू गीत गाउँछन् ।
	आमाले कथा सुनेको छ ।	बहिनी कथा भन्छ ।
	बुवाले कथा सुनेको छ ।	दिदीले भान खायो ।

५. रूपान्तरणसम्बन्धी अभ्यास

क.	शब्दगत / रूपगत रूपान्तरण	ख. पदावलीगत रूपान्तरण
	एकवचनलाई बहुवचनमा लैजाऊ :	एकवचनलाई बहुवचनमा लैजाऊ
	पढ्छ (..... खान्छ -)	उसको छोरो ।)
	बस्यो- आयो - ...	रामको बाबो ।)
ग.	वाक्यगत रूपान्तरण	
	पहिलो वाक्य जस्तै दोस्रो वाक्यलाई पनि सुहाउँदा शब्दले पूरा गर :	
	म कोठा सफा गर्छु । हामी..... ।	
	ऊ सबै उठ्छ । उनीहरू ।	
	तँ कहिले घर जान्छस् । तिमी ।	

६. पुनर्लेखनसम्बन्धी अभ्यास

क. सच्याएर लेख :

तपाईंले मलाई प्रश्न सोध्यो । मैले प्रश्न बुझेन । मेरो साथीहरूले बुझेछन ।
उनीहरूले उत्तर दिए ।

ख. तलका वर्णनलाई सीताका ठाउँमा राम राखी मिलाएर फेरि लेख :
सीता गाउँमा बस्छे । ऊ मिहिनेती छ । उसले धेरै पढी । ऊ सबै कक्षामा प्रथम भई । पढिसकेपछि उसले राम्रो काम पाई । ऊ ठूली मान्छे भई ।

ग. तलको वर्णनलाई पढ र मको ठाउँमा राम, तिमी जस्ता शब्द राखेर फेरि लेख :
म विहान उठ्छु । दिसापिसाव गर्छु । दाँत माभ्छु । हातमुख धुन्छु । केही समय पढ्छु । त्यसपछि भात खान्छु । अनि स्कुल जान्छु । वेलुका घर फर्कन्छु ।

-राम

-तिमी

७. वर्णन गर्ने अभ्यास

यसअन्तर्गत बालबालिकालाई आफ्ना घरपरिवारका दाजु, भाइ, दिदी, बहिनी, बुवा, आमा, काका, काकी वा छरछिमेकका आफ्ना परिचितहरूका बारेमा केही वर्णन गर्न लगाउन सकिन्छ । यसबाट उनीहरूलाई लिङ्ग, वचन, आदर आदि वाक्यतत्त्वहरूको उपयुक्त प्रयोग गर्ने सुझ्न बढाउन सहयोग मिल्छ ।

प्राथमिक विद्यालयमा व्याकरण सिकाउँदा अपनाउनुपर्ने सतर्कता

१. बालबालिकालाई अलग्गै व्याकरण सिकाएको सचेतता नगर्नुहोस् र उनीहरूलाई पनि त्यस्तो प्रभाव र दबाव नपार्नुहोस् । भाषाको शुद्ध प्रयोग सिकाउन खोजेको मात्र ठान्नुहोस् ।
२. भाषाभित्र नै व्याकरण हुन्छ । यो भाषाप्रयोगभन्दा अलग विषय होइन भन्ने ठान्नुहोस् ।
३. बालबालिकाले प्रयोग गरेको तथा अनुभव गरेको भाषाबाट उदाहरणहरू लिई तिनमा देखिएका अशुद्धि निराकरण गर्न सोहीअनुरूपका ढाँचाको छनोट गर्नुहोस् र तिनमा अभ्यास गराउनुहोस् ।
४. पाठमा प्रयुक्त भाषिक संरचनालाई यथाशक्य उपयोग गरेर व्याकरणका स्तरअनुरूप अभ्यासहरू बनाई सिकाउन कोसिस गर्नुहोस् ।
५. पाठबाहिरबाट व्याकरणसम्बन्धी अभ्यास गराउनु परेमा बालबालिकाको भाषाप्रयोग र अनुभवको सेरोफेरोअनुसार सन्दर्भपूर्ण विषयवस्तु छनोट गर्नुहोस् र सरल वाक्यढाँचामा अभ्यासहरू बनाई प्रस्तुत गर्नुहोस् ।
६. खास किसिमका वाक्यढाँचाको अभ्यासका लागि उपयुक्त विषयमा छोटो छोटो वर्णन गर्न लगाउनुहोस् ।

ज्ञानमा आधारित अर्थतन्त्र

प्रा.डा. मनप्रसाद वाग्ले *

आजको युग सूचना प्रविधिको युग हो । सूचना प्रविधिकै कारणले विश्व साँघुरिएको छ र सम्पूर्ण राष्ट्र नजिक भएका छन् । दूरको आभास कम भएको छ । मानिसहरू भ्रमण गर्नमा भन्दा इन्टरनेट र भिडियोमा दोहोरो कुराकानी गर्न रुचाउन थालेका छन् । समयको बचत भएको छ र यो बचत भएको समय उत्पादनमुखी कार्यमा प्रयोग गर्न थालिएको छ । संसारका प्रायजसो विकसित मुलुकहरू यस प्रकारको सूचना प्रविधिको अधिकतम उपयोग गरेर आफ्नो कुल गार्हस्थ्य उत्पादनको ५० प्रतिशतसम्म ज्ञानको उत्पादन र वितरणमा खर्च गर्न लागेका छन् । यसरी उनीहरू संसारलाई औद्योगिक युगबाट सूचनाको युगमा लैजाने अथक प्रयास गर्दै छन् ।

कम्प्युटर प्रविधिमा भएको विकासले गर्दा इन्टरनेट प्रविधि “ज्ञानमा आधारित अर्थतन्त्र” (Knowledge economy) को एउटा सशक्त माध्यम बनेको छ । संयुक्त राज्य अमेरिका, अस्ट्रेलिया, संयुक्त अधिराज्य, क्यानाडा, फिनल्यान्ड, आइरल्यान्ड, सिंगापुर जस्ता मुलुकहरूले ज्ञानलाई नै अर्थतन्त्र विकासको प्रमुख कारक मानेका छन् र दिगो आर्थिक विकासका लागि ज्ञानको उपयोगमा आफ्नो सम्पूर्ण लगानी खर्चेका छन् । शिक्षा र जीवनपर्यन्त सिकाइमा आफ्ना नागरिकहरूलाई प्रोत्साहन गर्ने यी मुलुकहरूले अनुसन्धान र विकासमा प्रशस्त लगानी गरेका छन् र त्यसैको फलस्वरूप यिनीहरूको कुल गार्हस्थ्य उत्पादन सोचेभन्दा बढी वृद्धि भइरहेको छ । यी देशहरूको अनुभवबाट हामीले सिक्नुपर्ने कुरा के हो भने आफ्नो परम्परागत अर्थतन्त्रबाट विस्तारै ज्ञानमा आधारित अर्थतन्त्रमा प्रवेश गर्नुपर्दछ र ज्ञानको विकास र विस्तारका लागि बढी लगानी गर्नुपर्दछ ।

विगतलाई दृष्टिगत गर्ने हो भने औद्योगिक क्रान्तिले कृषिमा आधारित अर्थतन्त्रलाई औद्योगिक अर्थतन्त्रमा रूपान्तरण गर्‍यो । यसले गर्दा विश्वमा मानिसहरूको जीवनस्तर निकै माथि उठ्यो । सहरीकरण बढ्न थाल्यो, कुनाकुनामा रहेका ग्रामीण समुदायहरू उद्योगधन्दातर्फ आकर्षित भए र अर्थतन्त्रले पनि आफ्नो अनुहार फेर्ने मौका पायो । यो इतिहास हामीले भुल्नु हुन्न किनभने त्यतिले मात्र विश्वको आवश्यकता पूरा नहुने भएको छ । औद्योगिक उत्पादनमा वृद्धि गर्न र राष्ट्रको अर्थतन्त्र मजबुत पार्न कम समयमा गुणस्तरीय उत्पादन आवश्यक भएको छ, त्यसको समाधान भनेको ज्ञानको विकास नै हो । जबसम्म सही ज्ञान उपलब्ध हुँदैन र उक्त ज्ञानको सही प्रयोग गर्न सकिँदैन तबसम्म समयको गतिभन्दा विकासको गति सधैं पछाडि परिरहने सम्भावना प्रबल रहन्छ । सय वर्षअगाडि कारखानाबाट जसरी कार उत्पादन हुन्थ्यो आज ठीक त्यही ढङ्गले प्रयोगशालाहरूबाट ज्ञान र सूचनाको उत्पादन भइरहेको छ । ज्ञान र सूचनाको उत्पादन कसरी व्यापक बनाएमा विश्वकै उद्धार हुन्छ भन्ने कुरा बिल गेट्स (Bill Gates) को उदाहरणबाटै प्रस्ट हुन्छ ।

कृषि अर्थतन्त्रबाट औद्योगिक अर्थतन्त्रमा प्रवेश गर्दा कृषि योग्य भूमिको उत्पादनमा जसरी नाटकीय ढङ्गले परिवर्तन भयो ठीक त्यसै किसिमले औद्योगिक अर्थतन्त्रबाट ज्ञानमा आधारित

* प्राध्यापक, शिक्षा शास्त्र संकाय, त्रि.वि.

अर्थतन्त्रमा प्रवेश गर्दा पनि परिवर्तनका गुञ्जायसहरू पर्याप्त भएकाले अर्थतन्त्रका आधारभूत कुराहरूलाई ध्यानमा राखिनुपर्छ । ज्ञान भनेको अरू वस्तुभन्दा भिन्न छ, यो सार्वजनिक हो र अझ भन्नुपर्दा विश्वजनीन हो । अरू सम्पति जस्तै ज्ञान पनि राष्ट्रको सम्पति भएकाले राष्ट्रले यसको संरक्षण गर्नुपर्दछ तर औद्योगिक अर्थतन्त्र जस्तो यसलाई आफ्नोमात्र भनेर संरक्षण दिइरहन सकिन्न । कारण यो विश्वजनीन हो र यसको उपयोग संसारका सबैले गर्न पाउँछन् र पाउनु पनि पर्दछ । अहिले अल्प-विकसित मुलुकहरूले प्रयोग गर्ने ज्ञानको अधिकतम अंश भनेको विकसित मुलुकहरूमा उत्पादन भएको ज्ञान नै हो भन्नुमा पनि अत्युक्ति हुने छैन ।

"For countries in the vanguard of the world economy, the balance between knowledge and resources has shifted so far towards the former that knowledge has become perhaps the most important factor determining the standard of living-more than land, than tools, than labour. Today's most technologically advanced countries are truly knowledge-based" (World Development Report 1999).

यसरी आजको विश्वमा ज्ञानको माग बढ्दो छ र उत्पादन भएका ज्ञानहरूमा पनि सही ज्ञानको छनोट एउटा चुनौती नै बन्न पुगेको छ । विश्वको अहिलेसम्मको सोचाइमा निकै परिवर्तन आइसकेको छ । हामीले गएको दुई सयवर्षसम्म श्रम र पुँजीलाईमात्र उत्पादनका दुई प्रमुख आधार अङ्गीकार गर्थौं र ज्ञान, उत्पादनशीलता, शिक्षा र बौद्धिक पुँजीलाई भने बाहिरी घेरामै सीमित राख्यौं । पल रोमरले (Paul Romer) यसैलाई दृष्टिगत गरेर दीर्घकालीन आर्थिक वृद्धिका लागि के गर्न सकिन्छ भनी अध्ययन गरे । जसको फलस्वरूप New Growth Theory प्रतिपादन हुनमा उनको महत्वपूर्ण योगदान रह्यो । यसरी औद्योगिक उत्पादनका दुई आधार श्रम र पुँजीबाट माथि उठेर पाल रोमर ज्ञानलाई तेस्रो आधारको रूपमा परिभाषित गर्न पुगे । रोमरको सिद्धान्तका मुल कुरा यसरी हेर्न सकिन्छ :

- पुँजीको मूल स्वरूप नै ज्ञान हो । ज्ञानको प्राप्ति र संग्रहमा नै आर्थिक वृद्धि आधारित हुन्छ ।
- प्रविधिमा भएको विकास कै कारण अहिले अरू प्रवर्तन हुनमा सघाउ पुगेको छ र यही प्रविधि नै आर्थिक वृद्धिको कारक तत्व हो ।
- प्रविधिको प्रयोगबाट लगानीको प्रतिफल अपेक्षित रूपमा पाउन सकिन्छ । विकसित र विकासोन्मुख मुलुक बीचको मूल भिन्नता यसैले प्रस्टयाउँछ ।
- प्रारम्भिक अर्थशास्त्रले घट्दो प्रतिफल (Diminishing return) को कुरा गरे पनि New Growth Theory ले बढ्दो प्रतिफल (Increasing return) मा विश्वास गर्दछ ।
- लगानीले प्रविधिलाई जति महत्वपूर्ण बनाएको छ त्यसरी नै प्रविधिकै कारण अनुसन्धान र विकासमा लगानी वृद्धि गर्न पनि प्रोत्साहन मिल्दछ । यसले दिगो आर्थिक विकासमा प्रमुख भूमिका खेल्दछ ।

यसरी हेर्दा के देखिन्छ भने कुल गार्हस्थ्य उत्पादनका लागि मानव पुँजी सर्वोत्तम पुँजी हो र यसको उत्थान अपरिहार्य छ । रोमरले भनेझैँ प्रविधिमा लगानी गर्नका लागि पनि पर्याप्त मानव

पूँजीको जरूरत पर्दछ । औपचारिक शिक्षा, तालिम र सेवाकातीन सिकाइहरू यसका माध्यम हुन् । त्यसैले शिक्षाको विकासमा लगानी गर्न नसकेसम्म आर्थिक विकासको कल्पना गर्न सकिदैन । संयुक्त अधिराज्यको व्यापार तथा उद्योग विभाग (1998) ले ज्ञानअर्थतन्त्रलाई यसरी परिभाषित गरेको छ "A knowledge driven economy is one in which the generation and exploitation of knowledge play the predominant part in the creation of wealth." त्यस्तै संयुक्त राज्य अमेरिकामा अहिले कार्यरत मानिसहरूमध्ये ६० प्रतिशत मानिस ज्ञानमा आधारित श्रमिक (Knowledge workers) छन् । ज्ञानमा आधारित यस्ता श्रमिकहरूले यन्त्रभन्दा संकेतलाई आफ्नो कार्यको सेरोफेरोभित्र बढी उपयोग गर्दछन् ।

ज्ञानका बारेमा थमस जेफर्सन (Thomas Jefferson) ले यसो भनेका छन् "He who receives an idea from me receives instruction himself without lessening mine; as he who lights his taper at mine receives light without darkening me."

एक पटक ज्ञानको उत्पादन भइसकेपछि यसलाई विस्तार गर्नमा त्यति खर्च लाग्दैन अर्थात् अर्थशास्त्रको भाषामा Zero-marginal cost हुन्छ । जसले ज्ञानको सिर्जना गरेको हुन्छ उसले त्यसलाई आफ्नोमात्र भनेर लुकाई राख्न सक्दैन । किनभने ज्ञान सार्वजनिक हुन्छ यो व्यक्तिगत हुँदैन । ज्ञानको अर्थलाई केलाउनुपर्दा केही प्रमुख कुराहरूलाई ध्यानमा राख्नुपर्ने हुन्छ, जस्तो,

- के सिक्ने (know-what) भन्ने कुरा त्यति महत्वपूर्ण होइन, किन सिक्ने (know-why) भन्ने कुरा बढी महत्वपूर्ण हो । किन सिक्ने भन्ने कुरा यो संसार, समाज र मानवका बारेमा ज्ञान प्राप्त गर्ने आधार हो । त्यस्तै कसलाई जान्ने भन्ने कुरा (know-who) पनि त्यतिकै महत्वपूर्ण मानिन्छ । कसले के जानेको छ र कसले के गर्न सक्छ भन्ने थाह पाउन (know-who) जरूरी छ । त्यस्तै जान्ने कहाँ र कहिले (know-where / know when) पनि उत्तिकै आवश्यक छ । यी सबै भन्दा महत्वपूर्ण कुरा त कसरी जान्ने भन्ने (know-how) हो जसले आफूले पाएको ज्ञानको प्रयोग गर्ने सीपलाई जनाउँछ ।
- औपचारिक ज्ञान र तालिममात्र सधैं पर्याप्त हुँदैनन् । अनुभवबाट आर्जित ज्ञान पनि त्यतिकै महत्वपूर्ण छ, यसलाई अरू ज्ञानको परिपूरकको रूपमा लिन सकिन्छ । यसरी प्राप्त ज्ञान औपचारिक ज्ञान जतिकै शक्तिशाली हुन्छ ।
- संस्था र व्यक्ति दुबैका लागि जीवनपर्यन्त सिकाइ अति नै आवश्यक छ । संस्थागत रूपमा हेर्ने हो भने सिकाइ अनुभवमा आधारित हुन्छ र यो निरन्तर हुनुपर्दछ । व्यक्तिका लागि विकासका हिसावले अनौपचारिक र औपचारिक दुबै सिकाइ जीवन पर्यन्तरूपमा प्रयोग हुनु आवश्यक छ ।

यी सबै परिप्रेक्ष्यलाई मनन गर्दा हामीले आफ्ना कमीकमजोरीहरू केलाउन सक्छौं र कमजोरी हटाउने प्रयास गर्न सक्छौं । शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा धेरै कमीकमजोरी छन् र तिनलाई सुधार गर्न नसकेसम्म आर्थिक विकासको कल्पना गर्न सकिन्न । हामीले शिक्षामा सूचना तथा सञ्चार प्रविधिलाई भित्र्याउन सकिरहेका छैनौं । विकसित मुलुकहरूले भने आफ्नो कुल गार्हस्थ्य उत्पादनको ७ देखि १० प्रतिशतसम्म शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा मात्र लगानी गरेका छन् । प्राविधिक जनशक्ति

उत्पादनमा हाम्रो चासो कम देखिएको छ । सूचनामा साक्षर मानिस औलामा गन्न सकिने जति छन् । शिक्षक र विद्यार्थीलाई नै सूचना साक्षर बनाउन सकिएको छैन जसले गर्दा कोरा किताबी ज्ञानको रटाइ र त्यसैको आधारमा भविष्यको जनशक्ति उत्पादन गर्नतर्फ लागेका छौं । अनुसन्धान र विकासमा लगानी प्रायः शून्य छ । राष्ट्रिय उत्पादनलाई बजार दिन सकिएको छैन । निर्यातमा सिधिलता छ । निजी क्षेत्रसँग बलियो साभेदारी गर्न सकिएको छैन । उत्पादित वस्तुहरूमा गुणस्तर सोचेजस्तो छैन । अन्य मुलुकसँग प्रतिस्पर्धा गर्ने खालको उत्पादन छँदै छैन । यस्तो अवस्थामा अहिले गुञ्जिरहेको नेपालको अर्थतन्त्रलाई अगाडि बढाउनु एउटा ठूलो चुनौती हो । यसका लागि शिक्षाक्षेत्रमा व्यापक परिवर्तन गरिनुपर्दछ । विश्वमा उपलब्ध ज्ञानको उपयोग हाम्रो परिप्रेक्ष्यमा गरिनुपर्दछ । शिक्षाका प्रत्येक तहमा सूचना सञ्चार प्रविधिको प्रयोग अपरिहार्य भइसकेको छ । शिक्षामा लगानी गर्न कन्जुस्याई गर्नुहुँदैन । विश्व समुदायबाट प्राप्त हुने सहयोगको ५० प्रतिशत शिक्षाविकासमा नै केन्द्रित गर्नुपर्दछ । एउटा अनौपचारिक अध्ययनले के देखाएको छ भने हामीले जनसङ्ख्या वृद्धि दर २.२ मा र आर्थिक वृद्धिदर ५ प्रतिशतमा निरन्तर रूपले कायम गर्न सक्यौं भने आगामी ४२ वर्षमा हाम्रो प्रति व्यक्ति आय ७०० अमेरिकी डलर पुग्नेछ । त्यतिखेर यो आय दर पनि संसारका सबै मुलुकको दाँजोमा सबभन्दा चुथो हुनेछ । त्यसैले नेपालका लागि एकमात्र विकल्प भनेको जतिसक्थो चाँडो “ज्ञानमा आधारित अर्थतन्त्र”मा प्रवेश गर्ने व्यवस्था मिलाउनु हो । यसो गर्न सरकारमात्र पर्याप्त नहुने भएकोले निजी क्षेत्रको विकास र उनीहरूसँगको हातेमालो महत्वपूर्ण हुन आउँछ । निजी क्षेत्रलाई सहयोग गर्ने रणनीति अंगाल्नु पनि त्यतिकै जरुरी छ । निजी क्षेत्रको साभेदारी यस क्षेत्रमा आवश्यक छ । विश्वबाट नयाँ र नौलो ज्ञानहरूको आयात गर्न र राष्ट्रिय परिप्रेक्ष्यमा प्रवर्तन गर्न लगानीका सम्भावनाहरूको खोजी गरिनुपर्दछ र कुल गार्हस्थ्य उत्पादनको अधिकतम प्रतिशत पनि यसैमा लगानी गर्नुपर्दछ ।

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मानवीय स्रोतको विकास र हाम्रो तालिम व्यवस्था

डा.विद्यानाथ कोइराला *

पुस्तौनी चिन्तनमा तालिम

दिमाग खोज्न र खान्ने अनेकन सोचहरू बने । कति सोचहरू शास्त्रीय (Classical) भइसके । कति आधुनिक मानिंदैछन् । यो स्थितिले अपरिपक्वता जनाउँछ, निरन्तरता बुझाउँछ र फेरिंदो सन्दर्भ बताउँछ । हाम्रो व्यवस्थापन यही स्थितिमा छ । एउटै खाकामा शास्त्रीय र आधुनिक चिन्तनको तानातानी छ । हामीले वैज्ञानिक चिन्तन र वैज्ञानिक व्यवस्थापन भन्ने छोडेका छैनौं । वैज्ञानिक व्यवस्थापन सिद्धान्त बुढो भइसक्यो । वैज्ञानिक छनोट पुराण भइसक्यो । कम्पनीको नियन्त्रण कथा भइसक्यो । यस मानेमा टाइलरको चिन्तन क्युरियो बनिसक्यो । यसरी टाइलरीय चिन्तनलाई हामीले व्यवहारवादी चिन्तनद्वारा विस्थापित गरिसक्यौं । संरचना बनाउने र त्यही संरचनामा व्यक्तिलाई क्रियाशील बनाउने कर्मचारीतन्त्र आइसक्यो । म्याक्सवेभरको यो तन्त्र पनि अब थोडिइसक्यो । जनता यो तन्त्रवाट बाक्क भइसके । नियम र कानुनको अल्फोवाट दिक्क भइसके । तहगत बुद्धि (Hierarchical thinking) ले गर्दा क्षतविक्षत भइसके । जातीय समाजमा त यस बुद्धिले रूपान्तरण नै गर्न सकेन । बरू चाकरीपना बढाइरह्यो । तहगत बुद्धिलाई प्रबलन (Reinforce) गरिरह्यो । यसरी वेभर पनि सीमित भइसके । शास्त्रीय भइसके ।

मानव वैज्ञानिक ढाँचामा मात्रै अटेन । तहगत संरचनामा मात्रै समेटिएन । त्यसैले मानव सम्बन्धवाट स्रोतको विकास भन्ने अर्को विकल्प जन्मियो । यो विकल्पले समूहको गतिशीलता (Group dynamism) र सहभागिता खोज्यो । आपसी संचार र फुच्चे नेतृत्व (Diffused leadership) खोज्यो । मायो, फोलेट, मास्लो र म्याक ग्रेगरले यो चिन्तन बढाए । यो चिन्तनले व्यक्ति चिन्ने तरिका सिकायो । व्यक्तित्वपिच्छेको विकासशील स्वरूपको आँकडा बनायो । नकारात्मक दृष्टिकोणलाई पनि सकारात्मक ढङ्गले हेर्ने सिद्धान्त बनायो । यसरी वैज्ञानिक व्यवस्थापनवादीहरूको “विवेकी मानव” (Rational human) लाई मानव सम्बन्धवादी चिन्तनले सामाजिक मानव (Social human) मा परिणत गर्‍यो । पुस्तौनी ढङ्गको व्यवस्थापकीय परम्परामा मानवीय स्रोतको विकास भयो । त्यसैले तालिममा विज्ञानसम्मत कुरा पढाइयो । मानवलाई कारण र असरको खाकामा ढालियो । मानवीय संवेदनशीलतालाई तहगत संरचनामा आवद्ध गर्न खोजियो । व्यक्तिपिच्छेको मनोविज्ञान जान्नुपर्ने सन्देश दिइयो । मनोविज्ञानअनुसार परिचालित हुने सोच सिकाइयो । यसरी पुस्तौनी ढङ्गको व्यवस्थापकीय सोचले मानवीय क्षमतालाई विखण्डित गर्‍यो । जसले गर्दा व्यवस्थापकीय सोचले मानवीय क्षमतालाई समग्रमा चिनेन र उकासेन । त्यसैले मानवीय स्रोतको विकासका लागि गरिएका तालिमहरू खण्डीकृत सोचका दास नै बनिरहे । शास्त्रीय सोचका पुस्ताहरूले तालिमलाई दासताभित्रै घुमाइराखे । उनीहरूले तालिमलाई एकतर्फी पनि बनाए ।

* सह-प्राध्यापक, शिक्षा शास्त्र संकाय, त्रि.वि.

परिवर्तित चिन्तनले चारओटा मत ल्यायो । पहिलो मतले सापेक्षता (Relativism) मा जोड दियो । व्यवहारको अध्ययनलाई कर्मक्षेत्र बनायो । मानव व्यवहार र संस्थागत व्यवहार (Organizational behavior) को अध्ययनको आधारमा मानव व्यवहार र संस्थागत व्यवहारको वर्गीकरण भयो ती प्रत्येक व्यवहारको वर्गीकरणलाई चिनाउने र सुधारने सन्दर्भमा तालिमलाई लिइयो । यसरी तालिमको खाका व्यवहारभित्रै अल्मलियो । लिक्टर्को विश्लेषणभित्रै तालिम रुमलियो । त्यसैले बर्नस र स्टलकेरले दोस्रो चिन्तन ल्याए । उनीहरूले व्यवस्थापनलाई यान्त्रिक (Mechanical) र आङ्गिक (Organic) भनी वर्गीकरण गरे । यान्त्रिक व्यवस्थापनले व्यक्तिलाई आधिकारिक बनायो । तालिमले पनि आधिकारिक बन्न सिकायो । आङ्गिक बन्दा व्यक्तिले वैशिष्ट्यता र स्तरीयता सिक्यो । अन्तरक्रिया गर्ने ढङ्ग र सहयोग सिक्यो । यसरी तालिमले पनि त्यही कुरामा जोड दियो । किसले तेस्रो चिन्तन दिए । यो चिन्तनमा उनले व्यक्ति र संस्थागत सिद्धान्त बनाए । यसबाट उनले एउटा कुराको रहस्योदघाटन गरे, त्यो हो, कर्मचारीतन्त्र निष्क्रिय (Passive) हुन्छ तर त्यसले संरचना (Structure) भने दिन्छ । त्यही संरचनामा व्यक्ति परिचालित हुन्छ र आवश्यकता चिनिन्छ । परिचालन र पहिचानकै क्रममा असल व्यवस्थापन आउँछ । यसैका लागि तालिमको आयोजना गरिन्छ । चौथो चिन्तन विलियमले दिए । उनको सिद्धान्तले व्यक्तिलाई आपसी सम्बन्ध विस्तार गर्ने र त्यसमा पूर्ण क्षमताको प्रयोग गर्ने धारणा दियो । समूहमा काम गर्ने सोच दियो । अन्तरक्रियालाई जीवन्त बनाउने आधार दियो । तहगत मानसिकतालाई प्रजातान्त्रिक व्यवहारमा बदल्ने सोच दियो । सकभर विचार मिलाउने र सर्वसम्पतिमा निर्णय लिने परिपाटी सिकायो ।

नेपाली शिक्षा जगतले सिद्धान्तगत तालिम दियो त ? भन्ने प्रश्न त्यत्तिकै महत्वपूर्ण छ । प्राथमिकदेखि उच्च माध्यमिक तहसम्मका प्र.अ.तालिमका सामग्री विश्लेषणले के गर्नु भनी खोजी गरेनन् र के गरे अरूले भन्ने कुरा पनि सुनाएनन् । अर्को अर्थमा स्वदेशी एवं विदेशी अनुसन्धानका नतिजा बताएनन् । बरू शिक्षा नियमावलीमा आएका परिवर्तनहरू सिकाए । परिवर्तन आउनाका राष्ट्रिय र अन्तर्राष्ट्रिय कारणहरू पनि भनेनन् । प्रधानाध्यापकहरूसँगको अनौपचारिक छलफलले यही कुरा भन्छ । व्यवस्थापकलाई हामीले व्यवस्थापकीय नालीबेली सिकाएौं । कर्तव्य सिकायौं । यही स्थिति मध्यम र निम्नस्तरीय व्यवस्थापनमा पनि लागू भयो । त्यसैले हाम्रा व्यवस्थापकमा सैद्धान्तिक चिन्तनको कमी छ । सिद्धान्ततः समस्यालाई समस्याकै रूपमा (Problemization) हेर्ने सीपको अभाव छ । समस्या बनाइएका कुराहरूमा बहस (Discussion) गराउने तागतको अनिकाल छ । बहसबाट बाटो (Discourse to discourse) बनाउने क्षमतामा खडेरी परेको छ । यही खडेरीमा हाम्रो तालिम बाटो (Course) बनेको छ । यसले पशु-तालिमको रूपधारण गरेको छ । जे सिकायो त्यही सिक्ने र त्यसैमा रूमल्लिने र व्यक्तिको क्षमतासँग तालिम नमिलाउने, तर तालिमलाई बहसको विषय बनाउने बहसकर्तालाई पनि यही नै बाटो हो भन्ने कुरा हामीले सामन्ती संस्कारबाट सिक्यौं । यो सिकाइमा अरूको सोच नअटाउने बुद्धि पालिरह्यौं । त्यसैले अझै व्यवस्थापकीय चिन्तन बदलिए पनि हामी हाम्रो चिन्तन बदल्ने स्थितिमा छैनौं । यस अर्थमा हामीसँग जापानीको जस्तो जन-निर्णयको परिपाटी छैन । माथिको निर्णय तल पुर्‍याउने र तलको निर्णय माथि पुर्‍याउने दोहोरो व्यवस्थापकीय परम्परा छैन । सामूहिक र सर्वसम्मत निर्णय गर्ने संस्कार छैन । यस्तो परिवेश बनाउनका लागि

दीर्घकालीन तालिम दिने वा तालिमको निरन्तरता दिने प्रचलन छैन । नत अमेरिकी व्यवस्थापन जस्तो व्यक्तिगत निर्णय नै सर्वोपरि हो भन्ने स्वतन्त्रता छ । न आफूले गरेको निर्णयको आधार यो हो भनी “आधार बेच्ने” (Selling the basis of individual decision) परम्परा छ । न गरिएको निर्णयलाई विस्तारै लागू गर्ने र प्रत्येक निर्णयपिच्छे तालिम दिने प्रक्रिया छ । बरू चीनको जस्तो निर्णय गर्ने परम्परा छ । समितिमा छलफल गर्ने चलन छ । व्यक्तिले निर्णय सुनाउने र त्यो निर्णय लागू गर भन्ने आदेशात्मक व्यवस्थापन छ । यसैले निर्णय लिन पनि ढिलो हुन्छ । यस अर्थमा हामी व्यवस्थापनको चिनियाँ शैलीसँग बढी नजिक देखिन्छौं । तर चीनले निर्णय गरेपछि अल्पकालीन र दीर्घकालीन तालिम गरिहाल्छ । उसका व्यवस्थापकहरूलाई परिवर्तित सन्दर्भबारे जानकारी दिइहाल्छ । हामी नेपाली भने यहीँ चुकेका छौं । त्यसले गर्दा हाम्रा शिक्षकहरू रूमलिनै गर्छन् । व्यवस्थापकहरू अन्दाजैमा उत्तर दिने गर्छन् । शिक्षक लाइसेन्सिङबारे यही भइरहेको छ । व्यवस्थापनले के हो लाइसेन्सिङ शिक्षकलाई भनेको छैन । प्रधानाध्यापकले स्वयम् सुनेका छैनन् । केन्द्रीय व्यवस्थापकले पनि यसको आकार कोरिसकेका छैनन् । यसैले हामी बासी कुरामा तालिम दिने गर्छौं । किनभने हामी सामन्ती सोचका अधीनमा छौं । परम्परागत व्यवस्थापन शैलीका दास भएका छौं । नवीनता हाम्रो चिन्तनमै छैन ।

नवीनतम व्यवस्थापनमा तालिम

हिजोका सिद्धान्तमा अहिले हत्यौडीहरू थपिएका छन् । व्यवस्थापन तालिम एउटा हत्यौडी हो । सम्पूर्णताको एकैसाथ व्यवस्थापन गर्ने हत्यौडी । प्रत्येकलाई प्रतिबद्ध बनाउने हत्यौडी । ठीक समयमा ठीक काम गर्ने आङ्गिक व्यवस्था भएका हत्यौडी । गुणस्तर नियन्त्रण समूह (Quality circle) बनाउने परम्परा भएको हत्यौडी । गुणस्तर नियन्त्रकले नै निर्णय लिने प्रवन्ध भएको हत्यौडी । दोस्रो हत्यौडीले सरकारलाई पुनर्विकास (Re-inventing) गऱ्यो । यो हत्यौडीले निजीकरणलाई अंगीकार गर्छ । निजी र सरकारी प्रयासमा प्रतियोगिता गराउँछ । जनतालाई व्यवस्थापनमा क्रियाशील बनाउँछ । जनताले नै व्यवस्थापनलाई नियन्त्रण गर्ने परम्परा बसाउँछ । अर्को शब्दमा भन्दा जोखिमकर्तालाई नै नेतृत्व तहमा स्थापित गर्छ । तेस्रो हत्यौडीले भएकै प्रवन्धलाई चुस्तीफुर्ती (Re-engineering) प्रदान गर्छ । आफूसँग भएको जनशक्तिलाई प्रतियोगी बनाउँछ । प्रलोभन (Incentive) दिन्छ । नचाहिने जनशक्तिको काँटछाँट गर्छ । भएका प्रतिभाहरूलाई धारिलो बनाउँछ । आधुनिक प्रविधि भित्र्याउँछ । एकढोके सेवा प्रदान गर्छ । यसरी व्यवस्थापनलाई गति दिन अभिभावक नै क्रियाशील हुन्छ । यस किसिमको व्यवस्थापनमा परिवर्तन गर्नु चौथो हत्यौडी हो । संरचनामा परिवर्तन । व्यक्तिमा परिवर्तन । प्रविधिमा परिवर्तन । कार्यशैलीमा परिवर्तन । लगानी (Input) मा परिवर्तन । अनुगमन (Monitoring) मा परिवर्तन । यस्तो परिवर्तनले परिवर्तित मानसिकताको खेती गर्छ । परिवर्तित परिवेशले जोस जाँगर ल्याउँछ । व्यवस्थापनमा जोस थप्छ । पाँचौ हत्यौडी - तत्स्थानको व्यवस्थापन (Site-based management) हो । योजना त्यहीँ बनाउने । योजनाको पुनर्विचार (Review) त्यहीँ गर्ने । त्यहीँकै परिवेशमा सुधार गर्ने । यसरी केन्द्रलाई निष्क्रिय पार्ने । कार्यथलोलाई जागरुक बनाउने । यस्तो जागरुकताले केन्द्रीय मानसिकता भत्काउँछ । तत्स्थानमै काम गर्ने जनशक्ति जन्माउँछ । केन्द्र सिक्छ । कार्यथलो सिकाउँछ । अर्को ढङ्गमा कार्यथलो सिक्छ । केन्द्र सिकाउँछ । यस अर्थमा व्यवस्थापनको परम्परागत स्वरूप बदलिन्छ । टिम व्यवस्थापन लागू गर्नु छैटौँ हत्यौडी हो । समूहले व्यवस्थापनको काम गर्ने । साभ्ना दायित्व (Shared responsibility) लिने । साभ्ना

दृष्टिकोण (Shared vision) बनाउने । प्रत्येकले आफ्नो दृष्टिकोण राख्ने । दायित्वको लागि काँध थाप्ने । टिम व्यवस्थापनका यी लक्षणहरू हुन् । यो व्यवस्थापनले व्यक्तिको सत्ता घटाइदिन्छ । हाकिममुखी मानसिकता बदलिदिन्छ । मेरोलाई हाम्रो बनाइदिन्छ । यसरी व्यक्तिको व्यवस्थापन सामूहिक व्यवस्थापनमा बदलिन पुग्छ । व्यवस्थापनको सातौँ हत्यौडी हो - तनाव र समयको व्यवस्थापन (Stress and time management) । यो हत्यौडीले व्यक्तिको तनाव घटाउने उपाय खोज्छ, मनोरञ्जन दिने उपाय निकाल्छ । अन्तरक्रिया गर्ने अवसर, आफूलाई व्यक्त गर्न पाउने मौका, ध्यान गर्ने प्रक्रिया र धतुराउने उपायले व्यक्तिले तनाव घटाउन सक्छ र समयको सदुपयोग गर्न सक्छ भनेर तनाव र समय व्यवस्थापनले बताउँछ । आठौँ हत्यौडी संस्थागत ऐक्य योजना (Integrated planning) को व्यवस्थापन हो । यो सहकर्मी संस्थासँग एकाकार हुने योजना हो । कार्यगत एकता गर्ने र गराउने व्यवस्थापन । मुद्दागत (Issue-based) ऐक्यबद्धताको ग्यारेन्टी गर्ने व्यवस्थापन । लैंगिक समता (Equity) र समानता (Equality) नवौँ हत्यौडी हो । यो हत्यौडीले संरचनाको लैंगिक मान्यता चिनाउँछ । त्यसमा भएको अन्याय खोतल्न लगाउँछ । अन्यायी चिनाउँछ । न्याय दिने उपाय खोज्छ । लैंगिक व्यवस्थापनमा आएका चिन्तनहरू सिकाउँछ । WID पद्धति के हो भनेर पढाउँछ । यसको व्यवस्थापन कस्तो हुन्छ भनी चर्चा गर्छ । WAD किन आयो भन्ने कुरा बताउँछ । WID र WAD को तात्त्विक भिन्नता चिनाउँछ । व्यवस्थापकीय संरचना चिनाउँछ । अनि GAD मा किन आउँनु पर्‍यो भनी पाठ पढाउँछ । GAD को कार्यान्वयन गर्ने व्यवस्थापनमा व्यक्तिलाई तयार पार्छ । यसरी WID ले महिलालाई कमजोर देख्यो । WAD ले महिलाहरूलाई छुट्टै हुन् भन्ने ठान्यो । WAD ले पुरुषको सहयोग अनिवार्य छ र महिलालाई मूलधारमै ल्याउनुपर्छ भन्ने चिन्तन दियो । यसरी महिलाहरूको विश्लेषणले तीनवटै खाकामा एउटै व्यवस्थापन प्रभावकारी हुन्न भन्ने आधार दियो । प्रत्येक खाकाको व्यवस्थापन वेग्लै ढङ्गले गर्नुपर्छ भन्ने सन्देश दियो । दसौँ हत्यौडीले सिकायो - डुलुवा व्यवस्थापन गर्नुपर्छ । व्यवस्थापक डुल्ने गर्नुपर्छ । घण्टी बजाएर पाले डाक्ने होइन । घण्टी बजाउनेहरू के गरिरहेछन् भनी खोज तलास गर्ने गर्नुपर्छ । खोजअनुसारको परिवर्तन, व्यक्तिको परिवर्तन, संरचनाको परिवर्तन र संचारको परिवर्तन भएको छ वा छैन हेर्नुपर्छ । माथिका दशवुँदे व्यवस्थापनले समयसापेक्ष व्यवस्थापन खोजे । एउटै जिल्लामा पनि स्थान र मान्यताअनुसार व्यवस्थापनलाई अलग अलग ढाँचामा हेर्न सकिने भयो । भौतिक स्थिति अनुसार पनि व्यवस्थापन प्रक्रियामा भिन्नता पाउन सकिन्छ । तर हामीले भने एकरूपता सिकायौँ । एउटै पाठ्यवस्तुबाट र एउटै दृष्टिकोणबाट सबैलाई एउटै कुरा सिकायौँ । त्यसैले हाम्रा क्षेत्रीय तालिममा क्षेत्रीयताको गन्ध रहेन । जिल्लास्तरीय तालिममा जिल्लाको आफ्नोपन बचेन । त्यस अनुसार न सिक्यौँ, न सिक्ने अभिप्रेरणा दियौँ । हामी जान्ने बन्यौँ । अरूहरूलाई नजान्ने ठान्यौँ । त्यसैले हाम्रो व्यवस्थापन सिकाउने संयन्त्र बन्यो तर सिक्ने बनेन । थोत्रो टेप बन्यो, मीठो धुन दिएन । बज्यो तर नवीनता थपेन ।

मानवीय स्रोतको विकासमा प्रस्तावित तालिम

व्यक्ति एउटै साँचोमा ढालिंदैन । त्यसैले एकैखाले तालिमको कुनै महत्व छैन । परिवेश बदलिँदा तालिमको स्वरूप बदलिन्छ । व्यक्ति बदलिँदा तालिमको ढाँचा बदलिन्छ । नेतृत्व बदलिँदा त्यस्तै हुन्छ । चिन्तनको घेरा फराकिँदा पनि तालिमको बनोट फेरिन्छ । व्यक्तिको चिन्तन गहिरिँदा पनि तालिमको आकृति बदलिन्छ । यी र यस्तै परिवेशले एउटै कुरो भन्छ, व्यक्तिको स्वभाव र क्षमता

अनुसार तालिमको प्रारूप बनाऔं । यसो हुँदा तालिमका वैकल्पिक स्वरूपहरू बन्छन् । दोस्रो प्रस्ताव भन्ने हो । तालिम दिने र लिने दोहोरो प्रक्रियालाई स्वीकार गरौं । दिँदा, सिद्धान्त, अनुभव र अध्ययनको प्रतिफल सिकाऔं । लिँदा, व्यक्तिको अनुभव सुनौं र सैद्धान्तिकीकरण गर्ने शैली बुझौं । कार्यथलोमा बनेको सोचलाई स्थापित सिद्धान्तसँग जोड्ने प्रयास पनि गरौं । तेस्रो प्रस्ताव हो - प्रत्येक व्यवस्थापनबाट शिक्षाले के लिन सक्छ भनी खोजी गरौं । चौथो प्रस्ताव हो- खोजी गरिएको व्यवस्थापनको परीक्षण गरौं । यस्तो परीक्षणका लागि उत्साही नेतृत्वको खोजी गरौं । यसका लागि व्यवस्थापक खोज कार्यक्रम गरौं । पहिलो खोजले व्यक्ति भेटिन्छ । दोस्रो खोजले माटो सुहाउँदो व्यवस्थापन पद्धतिको खोजी हुन्छ । दुबै खोजीबाट तालिम दिने उपाय भेटिन्छ । तालिम दिने संरचना चिनिन्छ । पाँचौ प्रस्ताव हो - व्यापक दृष्टिकोण राख्ने नेतृत्वबाट व्यवस्थापन गराऔं । व्यापक दृष्टिकोण राख्ने व्यवस्थापकहरूलाई व्यवस्थापनको तालिम दिऔं । उनीहरूबाट व्यवस्थापनको तालिम लिऔं । छैटौ प्रस्ताव हो- व्यवस्थापनप्रतिको सचेतता बढाउने प्रयास गरौं । यसका लागि व्यवस्थापनका सम्बन्धमा आर्जेका ज्ञान र अनुभव छापौं । छापिएका अनुभवसँग व्यवस्थापनका सिद्धान्तहरूलाई दाँजौं । त्यही दाँजोबाट नयाँ व्यवस्थापन शैलीको पहिचान गरौं । सातौ प्रस्ताव हो - व्यवस्थापन सम्बन्धी मान्यताको पहिचान । ती मान्यताको पहिचान गर्ने शैली तालिममा सिकाऔं र तालिममै सिकाँ । समग्रमा भन्दा अहिलेको व्यवस्थापकीय तालिमको स्वरूप बदलौं । शिक्षण प्रणाली बदलौं । तालिमको विवेक र मान्यता बदलौं । यसो नगर्ने हो भने तालिमको परम्परा थामौं । त्यसैमा हामी डुबौं र तालिम लिनेलाई पनि डुवाऔं । यसो गर्नु भन्ने हामी स्थिरवादी (Static) बन्छौं । तालिममा परिवर्तन र सुधार गर्ने कुरै नगरौं ।

चेतना विकासका लागि क्रियाकलाप

डा. राधाकृष्ण जोशी *

भगवान्ले चेतना शक्ति दिएका हुनाले नै मानिसले संसारवारे खोजीनिती गरी नयाँनयाँ कुराहरू सिकेको हो । मानिसले आँखाले हेरेर सिक्छ, कानले सुनेर सिक्छ, जिब्रोले चाखेर सिक्छ, नाकले सुँघेर सिक्छ, हातले छोएर सिक्छ । यी पाँच इन्द्रियहरू प्रयोग गरेर मस्तिष्कले ज्ञान प्राप्त गर्दछ । यसकारण यी इन्द्रियहरूलाई ज्ञानेन्द्रिय भनिन्छ । ज्ञानेन्द्रियहरू जम्मा पाँच किसिमका छन् । जस्तै

- १) स्पर्श चेतना (Sense of touch) - छाला
- २) घ्राण चेतना (Sense of smell) - नाक
- ३) दृष्टि चेतना (Sense of seeing) - आँखा
- ४) स्वाद चेतना (Sense of taste) - जिब्रो
- ५) श्रवण चेतना (Sense of hearing) - कान

ज्ञानेन्द्रिय उपयुक्त ढङ्गबाट प्रयोग गरेमा धेरै फाइदा हुन्छ भन्ने कुरा निर्विवाद छ । इन्द्रियहरूको सही प्रयोग धेरै सीपहरूमाथि भर पर्दछ । इन्द्रियहरू ठीकसँग प्रयोग गर्ने जानकारीको कमी भएमा ज्ञान हासिल गर्ने क्षमतामा ह्रास आउनुको साथै ज्ञान पनि सीमित हुन्छ ।

बाल्यावस्थामा प्राप्त उत्प्रेरणा र प्रोत्साहनले इन्द्रियहरूलाई बढी प्रभावकारी ढङ्गले काम गर्न सक्षम तुल्याउँछन् । उत्प्रेरणा र प्रोत्साहनको अवसर पाएका र नपाएका बालबालिकाहरूको ज्ञान ग्रहण गर्ने क्षमतामा भिन्नता भएको कुरा प्रमाणित भइसकेको छ ।

हाम्रा ज्ञानेन्द्रियद्वारा प्राप्त ज्ञानलाई स्नायुप्रणालीले हाम्रो मस्तिष्कमा पुर्याउने र मन-मस्तिष्कले यस कुराको अर्थपूर्ण व्याख्या गरिदिने भएकाले यी इन्द्रियहरूलाई ज्ञानेन्द्रिय भनिन्छ ।

ज्ञानेन्द्रियहरूको सहायताले वातावरणबाट प्राप्त सूचनाहरू मस्तिष्कको ज्ञान भण्डारमा क्रमशः थपिँदै जान्छन् । यदि कुनै इन्द्रिय असक्षम वा कमजोर हुन गएमा सूचना ग्रहण गर्ने प्रक्रिया पनि ढिलो हुन जान्छ । यसरी सूचना ग्रहण गर्ने कार्यमा इन्द्रियहरू समन्वयात्मक रूपले संचालन भएपनि प्रत्येक इन्द्रियको काम छुट्टाछुट्टै छ ।

ज्ञानेन्द्रियहरूलाई चुस्त र सशक्त बनाउने क्रियाकलापहरूवारे तल वयान गरिएको छ :

१. स्पर्श चेतना (Sense of touch)

हाम्रो शरीरको छालाबाट हामीले धेरै ज्ञान प्राप्त गर्न सक्छौं । आँखा नदेख्ने, कान नसुन्ने व्यक्तिले स्पर्शको माध्यमबाट वातावरणलाई छोएर नै लेख्न र पढ्न सक्ने सीप हासिल गर्दछ । उदाहरणार्थ हामी लुईस् ब्रेललाई लिन सक्छौं । उनले स्पर्श गरेर ब्रेलको माध्यमबाट पढ्ने प्रविधिको विकास गरे ।

* फ्रि, लान्स, शिक्षाविद

छालाले स्पर्श गरेपछि, भिन्नता छुट्याउने काम चाहिँ मस्तिष्कले गर्दछ । स्पर्शबाट कडा, नरम, खस्रो, मसिनो, तातो, चिसो, हलौँ, गद्गौँको अनुभव पाउन सकिन्छ । यस क्रियाकलापका लागि आवश्यक सामग्रीहरू र तरिका तल प्रस्तुत गरिएको छ ।

क्रियाकलापहरू

- (१) बालबालिकाहरूलाई घरबाहिर प्राकृतिक वातावरणमा लैजानुहोस् । तिनीहरूलाई त्यहाँ पाइने वस्तुहरू छोएर “नरम” र “कडा”, “चिल्लो” र “खस्रो”, “तातो” र “चिसो” आदि छुट्याउन लगाउनुहोस् । जस्तै :-



(२)



विभिन्न प्रकारका कपडाहरूका Touch cards बनाउनुहोस् । उदाहरणका लागि मखमल, साटन, सुती कपडा, ऊन, जुट आदिका Touch cards बनाई बालकहरूलाई छुन लगाएर ती वस्तुहरूको अनुभवबारे चिल्लोदेखि खस्रोसम्म के-कस्तो अनुभूति गरेका छन् भन्न लगाउनुहोस् ।

(३)

बाहिर वातावरणमा पाइने विभिन्न वस्तुहरू जस्तै: पात, हाँगा, रूखको बोटो, बालुवा, माटो, ढुङ्गा, काठका टुक्रा आदि छुन लगाई तिनीहरूको गुणहरू जस्तै गद्गौँ र हलौँ, चिल्लो र खस्रो, कडा र नरम, तातो र चिसो आदि बारे पनि भन्न लगाउनुहोस् ।



(४)

एउटा 'feely' bag बनाउनुहोस् । यसमा विभिन्न प्रकारका वस्तुहरू जस्तै : कपासको डल्लो, रोडाका टुक्रा, पेन्सिल, फलामे टुक्रा, काठका टुक्रा आदि वस्तु त्यो कपडाको 'feely' bag मा राखेर त्यसलाई बन्द गर्नुहोस् ।



त्यो 'feely' bag भित्र रहेका सबै प्रकारका वस्तुहरूका नमूनाहरू बालकहरूलाई देखाउनुहोस् । अब 'feely' bag भित्र रहेका वस्तुहरू छुन लगाई बाहिर रहेका त्यस्तै वस्तुसँग क्रमशः जोडा मिलाउन लगाउनुहोस् ।

यस क्रियाकलापहरूले बालकहरूको स्पर्श चेतनाको विकासमा प्रभावकारिता ल्याउँछ ।

२) घ्राण चेतना (Sense of smell)

वातवातिकाते सबैभन्दा पहिले वास्ना वा गन्धको अनुभव आफ्नी आमासितको सम्बन्धबाट पाउँछन् । भर्खर जन्मेको नवजात शिशुले आफ्नी आमालाई शरीरको गन्धबाट नै चिन्ने गर्दछ । यसरी वातावरणमा रहेका विभिन्न गन्धहरू बेग्लाबेग्लै वस्तुहरूबाट आउँछन् । यस्ता वस्तुहरूलाई सुँघेर चिन्नुपर्दछ । सुँघे काम नाकले गर्दछ । सुँघेको कुरालाई अर्थपूर्ण तरिकाले बुझ्ने काम भन्ने मस्तिष्कले गर्दछ । गन्ध राम्रो नराम्रो, मनपर्ने नपर्ने दुवै हुन्छ । वास्नाको भिन्नताअनुसार खानामा रूचि र अरूचि हुन्छ । वातकहरूको घ्राण चेतना विकास गराउन निम्न लिखित सामग्रीहरू र क्रियाकलापहरू उपयुक्त देखिन्छ ।

सामग्री

- १) अगरबत्ती, लसुन, अदुवा, जिरा, प्याज, फूल, अत्तर आदि ।
- २) स-साना १४ ओटा खाली बट्टाहरू

क्रियाकलापहरू

घ्राणेन्द्रिय शक्तिको विकासका लागि निम्नलिखित क्रियाकलापहरू उपयुक्त देखिन्छन् :

- क) अगरबत्ती, लसुन, अदुवा, जिरा, प्याज, फूल र अत्तरमध्ये प्रत्येकलाई दुई-दुईओटा बट्टामा भर्नुहोस् । अर्थात् उस्तै वास्ना आउने वस्तु दुईओटा बट्टामा परोस् । यसरी उस्तै वास्ना आउने सात जोडी बट्टा तयार गर्नुहोस् । प्रत्येक बट्टामा रहेको वस्तुको नाम बाहिर टाँस्नुहोस् । जस्तै :



- (ख) ती सात जोडी बट्टाहरूलाई छयासमिस गरेर वातवातिकाको अगाडि राख्नुहोस् र यी बट्टाहरू सुँघेर जोडा मिलाऊ भनी बालबालिकालाई भन्नुहोस् । जस्तै



(ग) त्यो बट्टाभित्रको वस्तु नदेखियोस् भन्नका लागि बालबालिकाको मुख छोप्नुहोस् । जस्तै :



(घ)

एउटा बट्टाको विको खोलेर बालबालिकालाई सुँघ्न दिनुहोस् । जस्तै :

(ङ)



तिमीले सुँघेको बास्ना जस्तै आउने अर्को बट्टा पत्ता लगाऊ भनी अरू बट्टाहरू सुँघ्न लगाउनुहोस् । जस्तै :

(च) यसरी सबै बट्टाहरूको जोडी नमिलाउन्जेलसम्म यो काम जारी राख्नुहोस् । जस्तै:



(छ) यसपछि मनपर्ने र मन नपर्ने बास्नाहरू छुट्याउन लगाउनुहोस् । त्यसपछि मनपर्ने बास्नाहरूमा धेरै मनपर्ने र कम मनपर्ने बास्नाहरू पनि छुट्याउन लगाउनुहोस् । त्यस्तै मन नपर्ने बास्नाहरूमा पनि धेरै मन नपर्ने र कम मननपर्ने बास्नाहरू पनि छुट्याउन लगाउनुहोस् ।

यसरी बालबालिकाहरूलाई अभ्यास गराएमा उनीहरूको घ्राण शक्ति विशिष्ट र तीक्ष्ण हुन्छ ।

३) दृष्टि चेतना (Sense of seeing)

आँखाको सहयोगले हामी संसारलाई चिन्ने गर्दछौं, वरपर नियाल्छौं । आँखाले देखेका कुराहरू बीच भिन्नता छुट्याउन सक्ने क्षमताको विकास गर्नु आवश्यक छ । यस दृष्टिगत क्रियाकलापमा मुख्य काम आँखाको हुने हुँदा सर्वप्रथम बालकको आँखा ठीक छ-छैन, पत्ता लगाउनुपर्दछ । हेर्न लगाउँदा रङ्ग, आकारप्रकार, साइज आदिमा पनि ध्यान दिनुपर्दछ । देख्नु र हेर्नुमा फरक छ । आँखाले देखेको कुरा अर्थपूर्ण बनाउने काम मस्तिष्कको हो । नयाँ कुराहरू हेर्ने, छुने र अनुभव गर्ने अवसर नपाएका बालबालिकाहरू आँखाअगाडि कुनै साधारण वस्तु पर्दा पनि तुरुन्तै ठम्याउन नसक्ने हुन्छन् ।

बालबालिकाहरूलाई विभिन्न क्रियाकलापहरू गराउँदा सो अवधिमा सहयोगी कार्यकर्ताहरूले बालकको देख्ने समस्याका बारेमा विशेष ध्यान दिनुपर्दछ । जस्तै: भिमभिम गर्नु, छड्के हेर्नु, आँखा सानो पार्नु, रङ्ग छुट्याउन नसक्नु आदि । दृष्टि चेतना विकासका लागि निम्न लिखित क्रियाकलापहरू उपयोगी हुन्छन् :

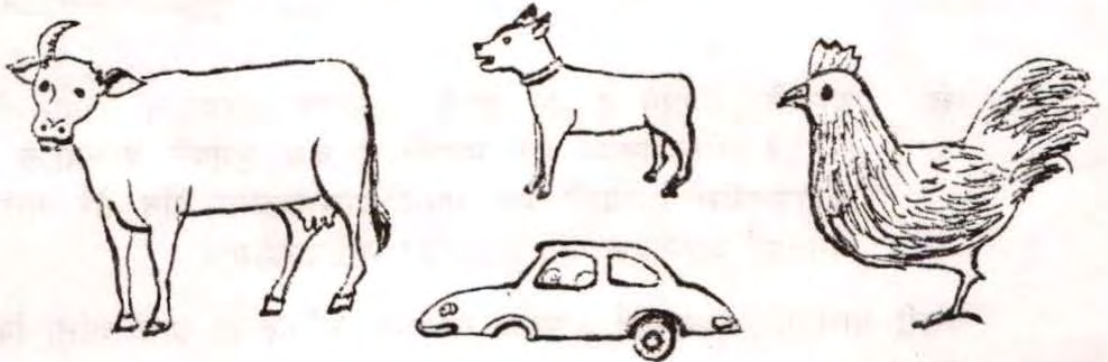
क्रियाकलापहरू

(क) बालबालिकाहरूलाई तल चित्रमा देखाए जस्तै अर्ध-वृत्ताकारमा बस्न लगाउनुहोस् । ६/७ प्रकारका वस्तुहरू सबैले देख्ने गरी बीचमा राख्नुहोस् । त्यसपछि एकजनालाई कोठाबाहिर पठाउनुहोस् ।

अनि ती ६/७ प्रकारका वस्तुहरूमध्ये एउटा भिक्नुहोस् अनि त्यो बाहिर पठाएको विद्यार्थीलाई कोठाभित्र बोलाएर भिकेको वस्तुको नाम भन्न लगाउनुहोस् ।



(ख) बालबालिकाहरूलाई तपाईंसँग भएका चित्रहरू देखाउनुहोस् । हरेक चित्रमा एउटा अङ्ग छुटेको हुनुपर्छ । तिनीहरूमध्ये एक-एक जनालाई बोलाएर कुन चित्रमा कुन अङ्ग छुटेको छ भन्न लगाउनुहोस् ।



(ग) चित्रमा देखाए जस्तै Puzzle game खेल लगाउनुहोस् ।



(४) अक्षर, शब्द, रङ्ग आकार, साइज आदिका Flash cards बनाएर जोडा मिलाउन लगाउनुहोस् ।

उक्त किसिमका क्रियाकलापहरूको अभ्यास गराइएमा बालकहरूको अवलोकन गर्ने शक्ति तिखारिन्छ ।

४) स्वाद चेतना (Sense of taste)

बाल-बालिकाहरू कुनै वस्तुको स्वाद चाखेर मात्र थाहा पाउन सक्छन् । खाएर नै मीठो नमीठो भन्ने कुरा उनीहरू छुट्याउन सक्छन् । नखाईकन खानेकुरोको स्वाद भन्न सकिदैन । स्वाद चेतनाको विकासका लागि निम्न लिखित क्रियाकलापहरू प्रयोग गर्न सकिन्छ ।

क्रियाकलापहरू

- १) बालबालिकाहरूलाई उनीहरूले खाजा खाएकै समयमा खानेकुराको स्वाद भन्न लगाउने । त्यस्तै घरमा उनीहरूले के-के खाना खाएका थिए र तिनको स्वाद कस्तो थियो भन्नेबारे पनि छलफल गर्ने ।
- २) भिन्ना-भिन्नै स्वाद भएका खानेकुराका चित्रपत्ती बनाउने र तिनको स्वाद कस्तो हुन्छ भनी उनीहरूसँग सोध्ने ।
- ३) धेरै प्रकारका खानेकुराका शब्दपत्तीहरू तयार गरी गुलियो, अमिलो, नुनिलो, तितो आदि स्वादमा वर्गीकरण गर्न लगाउने ।
- ४) बालबालिकाहरूलाई गोताकारमा बस्न लगाउने अनि आँखा बन्द गराएर प्रत्येकलाई नुन, चिनी, कागती, जिराको धुलो, पाचक आदि पालैसित जिब्रोमा अलि-अलि राखिदिने र अन्तमा केको स्वाद पायौ भनेर वस्तु पहिचान गर्न लगाउनुपर्छ । यसले गर्दा जिब्रो अति सचेत हुन्छ ।

५) श्रवण चेतना (Sense of hearing)

दृष्टिले जस्तै श्रवण इन्द्रियले पनि वातावरणबाट सूचना प्राप्त गरिरहेको हुन्छ । वातावरणमा विभिन्न ध्वनि हुन्छन् । विशेष ध्यान र एकाग्रताबिना श्रवण इन्द्रियले सक्षम र प्रभावकारी ढङ्गबाट सुन्ने काम गर्न सक्दैन । श्रवण इन्द्रियको माध्यमबाट बालबालिकाले धेरै ज्ञान हासिल गर्न सक्छन् । सुनाइमा कमजोर भएका बालबालिकाको भाषा-विकास राम्रोसँग हुनसक्दैन । त्यसैले उनीहरूमा श्रवण सीप विकासको विशेष स्थान छ । बालबालिकाको कान पाकेमा वा बहिरो भएमा तुरुन्त डाक्टरबाट उपचार गराउनुपर्छ ।

बालबालिकाहरूको श्रवण-शक्ति विकास गराउनका लागि निम्नलिखित क्रियाकलापहरू उपयोगी हुन्छन् ।

- १) ठूलो, सानो र चिच्याएको स्वर त्यस्तै रोएको एवम् हाँसेको आवाज निकाल्न लगाउने ।
- २) मूसो-बिरालो खेल खेल्न लगाउने ।
- ३) विपरीत आवाज निकाल्ने ।
- ४) आवाज सुनाएर समूह छुट्याउने जस्तै: कमल, कविता, कपिल ।
- ५) आवाज सुनाएर पशुपक्षि छुट्याउने ।
- ६) आवाज आएको दिशातिर हिँड्न लगाउने ।
- ७) स्वरअनुसार मानिसको भावको बोध गर्ने ।

- ८) आवाजअनुसार यातायातका साधन चिन्न र दूरी पत्ता लगाउने ।
- ९) कसको आवाज हो प्रश्न गर्ने ।
- १०) आवाजमा समानता र भिन्नता पत्ता लगाउने ।
(खाना/ताजा,फल/ बल, पानी/ रानी)
- ११) कथा सुनेर मुख्य घटना भन्न लगाउने ।

सुनेर, हेरेर, स्वाद लिएर, सुँघेर र छोएर यस किसिमबाट पाँचै ज्ञानेन्द्रियहरू प्रयोग गरी सिकेका कुराहरू धेरै प्रभावकारी हुन्छन् । सिलक्स (१९९३) को अध्ययनअनुसार किताव पढेर सिकेका कुराहरू १०% याद हुन्छ, सुनेर सिकेका कुराहरू २६% याद हुन्छ, देखेर र सुनेर सिकेका कुराहरू ५०% याद हुन्छ, तर काम गरेर वा अनुभव गरेर सिकेका कुराहरू ९०% याद हुन्छ । यसकारण बालबालिकाहरूलाई अनुभव गराएर व्यावहारिक ढङ्गबाट विषयवस्तु सिकाउनु अति उत्तम हुन्छ ।

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बहुभाषी प्राथमिक कक्षाका सन्दर्भमा नेपाली माध्यमका पाठ्यपुस्तकको उपयोग: केही कठिनाइ र निवारणका उपायहरू

डा. कैदार प्रसाद शर्मा *

परिचय

भाषिक र सांस्कृतिक विविधता नेपालको वास्तविकता हो । नेपालमा चार भिन्न भाषा परिवारका अनेकौं भाषाहरू प्रयोग गरिन्छन् । जसको सङ्ख्या कसैले ३६, कसैले ७० र कसैले त्यसभन्दा अझ बढी रहेको दाबी गर्दै आएका छन् । भोट-बर्मेली परिवारका कतिपय भाषाहरूको अझसम्म निश्चित पहिचान हुन बाँकी नै भएकाले उक्त सङ्ख्या यसभन्दा पनि धेरै माथि हुन सक्ने अनुमान गर्ने भाषाशास्त्रीहरू पनि पाइन्छन् । यस्ता भिन्नभिन्न भाषाभाषीहरूका आ-आफ्नै जातजाति, चालचलन, रीतिरिवाज, आनीबानी, धर्मकर्म र मूल्यमान्यता हुने हुँदा हाम्रो देशमा सांस्कृतिक विविधता पनि त्यत्तिकै रहेको ठहर गर्न सकिन्छ । हाम्रा प्राथमिक विद्यालयमा अध्ययन गर्ने बालबालिकाहरू यिनै विविध भाषिक र सांस्कृतिक पृष्ठभूमिबाट आएका हुन्छन् । यी सबै बालबालिकाका लागि शिक्षणको माध्यम राष्ट्रभाषा नेपाली नै तोकिएको छ । त्यसैले उनीहरू जुनसुकै मातृभाषाको पृष्ठभूमि र अनुभव लिएर आएका भए पनि उनीहरूले नेपालीमा लेखिएका पाठ्यपुस्तककै आधारमा नेपाली भाषा र अन्य विषय (भाषा बाहेक) सिक्नुपर्ने हुन्छ । यसो हुनु स्वाभाविकै पनि हो किनभने नेपाली नेपालको राष्ट्रभाषा मात्र नभएर यसलाई पचास प्रतिशतभन्दा बढी वक्ताहरूले मातृभाषाका रूपमा प्रयोग गर्दछन् र यसको प्रसारण मुलुकभर व्याप्त छ । यसबाहेक चाहे नेपालको तराई क्षेत्रमा होस्, चाहे हिमाली र पहाडी क्षेत्रमा होस् आफ्ना मातृभाषाका माध्यमबाट सम्प्रेषणको क्रम विच्छेद भएको स्थितिमा अन्य भाषी (नेपाली बाहेक मातृभाषा हुने) सामान्यतः सम्पर्क भाषाको रूपमा नेपाली नै प्रयोग गर्दछन् । (राष्ट्रिय भाषा नीति सुझाव आयोगको प्रतिवेदन, २०५०:८) । यसरी नेपाली भाषा मुलुकको एकमात्र प्रबल भाषा भएको पाइन्छ । तथापि हाम्रो जस्तो भाषिक र सांस्कृतिक बहुलता भएको देशमा प्राथमिक तहमा समेत शिक्षणको माध्यमका रूपमा एउटा भाषालाई मात्र स्विकारिनु उपयुक्त अवधारणा हो भन्न सकिँदैन । यस्तो अवधारणाले गर्दा “हजारौं बालबालिकाहरू आफ्ना मातृभाषामा निरक्षर रहनुपर्ने” (पट्टनायक, १९९७: १) स्थिति त सिर्जना हुन्छ नै साथै त्यसले लक्ष्य (नेपाली) भाषाको “उपलब्धिस्तरलाई समेत न्यून तुल्याउन बढावा” दिन्छ । यसका अतिरिक्त सिकाइमा पछौटेपन आउने संभावना पनि त्यत्तिकै रहन्छ । यसका लागि उपयुक्त उपचार हो मातृभाषामा प्राथमिक शिक्षा ।

मातृभाषामा प्राथमिक शिक्षा अवश्यमेव मनोविज्ञानसम्मत कुरा हो तर त्यसको कार्यान्वयनका लागि मुलुकका “भौगोलिक सामाजिक परिवेश र आर्थिक तथा राजनैतिक परिप्रेक्ष्यहरू” (राष्ट्रिय भाषा आयोग:२२) पनि अनुकूल हुनु आवश्यक छ । यीबाहेक मातृभाषीहरूको जनसङ्ख्या तथा जनघनत्व, लेख्य परम्परा र पद्धति, पाठ्यक्रम-पाठ्यपुस्तकको व्यवस्था र तिनलाई टेवा पुऱ्याउने सहायक तथा पूरक सामग्री, शिक्षक-शिक्षिकाको उत्पादन आदि पनि त्यत्तिकै आवश्यक पक्ष हुन् ।

* प्राध्यापक, शिक्षा शास्त्र केन्द्रीय विभाग, त्रि.वि.

जनसङ्ख्याकै कुरा गर्दा फेसोल्डको १० प्रतिशतसम्म वक्ताहरू भएका मातृभाषामा प्राथमिक शिक्षाको व्यवस्था गर्न सकिने सुझाव (१९९२:२९३) का विपरीत हाम्रा सन्दर्भमा ५ प्रतिशतसम्म वक्ताहरू भएका भाषाहरू लिँदा पनि नेपाली छोडेर ३ भाषाहरू (केन्द्रीय तथ्याङ्क विभाग, ई.२०००:२३) मात्र समेट्न सकिने स्थिति छ । यस्तो स्थितिमा लेख्य परम्परा र साहित्य भएका तथा जनसङ्ख्या पनि आकर्षक भएका केही भाषालाई छोडेर (राष्ट्रिय भाषा आयोग:२२-२३) मातृभाषामा शिक्षाको व्यवस्था गर्न तत्काललाई निकै महँगो र कठिन प्रयास हुने देखिन्छ । यस स्थितिमा वैकल्पिक रोजाइ एउटै हुन सक्छ । शिक्षणलाई सकेसम्म स्थानीय परिवेश अनुकूल तुल्याउनु र पाठ्यपुस्तकहरूको पनि तदनुकूल उपयोग गर्नु ।

बहुभाषी प्राथमिक कक्षा र नेपाली माध्यम

विद्यार्थीहरूको भाषिक पृष्ठभूमिलाई दृष्टिगत गर्दा हाम्रा प्राथमिक विद्यालयमा प्रायः तीन प्रकारका कक्षाहरू पाइन्छन् - एकभाषी, द्विभाषी र बहुभाषी । एकभाषी प्राथमिक कक्षा त्यस्तो कक्षा हो जसमा नेपाली मातृभाषी वा अन्य कुनै एक मातृभाषी (जस्तै : तामाङ भाषी) विद्यार्थीहरूमात्र अध्ययन गर्दछन् । द्विभाषी कक्षा त्यस्तो कक्षा हो जसमा दुई भिन्न भाषिक पृष्ठभूमि भएका विद्यार्थीहरू अध्ययन गर्दछन्, जस्तै : नेपाली र मैथिली भाषी, मैथिली र थारू भाषी आदि । त्यस्तै दुईभन्दा बढी मातृभाषा हुने बालबालिकाहरूको कक्षा चाहिँ बहुभाषी कक्षा हो । यस्ता कक्षामा विभिन्न मातृभाषी विद्यार्थीहरूले अध्ययन गर्ने हुँदा उनीहरूका सिकाइ समस्याहरू पनि भाषिक पृष्ठभूमिअनुसार बेग्लाबेग्लै हुन सक्छन् । बहुभाषी कक्षा सुदूर गाउँमा भन्दा सहरी क्षेत्रमा बढी हुने संभावना हुन्छ किनभने सहरमा एक वा अर्को कारणले गर्दा अनेक भाषिक समुदायका मानिसहरूले बसोबास गरेका हुन्छन् । काठमाडौँ उपत्यकाका सहरहरूकै उदाहरण लिने हो भने यहाँका प्राथमिक विद्यालयहरूमा सामान्य रूपमा अनेकौँ मातृभाषी विशेष रूपमा नेपाली, नेवारी र तामाङ भाषी बालबालिकाहरू बढी मात्रामा अध्ययनरत पाउन सकिन्छ (अधिकारी र शर्मा, २०५६:१६-१७) ।

नेपालीको व्यापक सम्प्रेषण र अन्य भाषाभाषीका लागि साभान भाषा हुने हुँदा बहुभाषी प्राथमिक कक्षामा पनि पठनपाठनको माध्यम अन्य भाषाभन्दा नेपाली नै उपयुक्त हुने ठानिन्छ । तर अन्य भाषी (नेपाली बाहेकका मातृभाषी) विद्यार्थीहरूका लागि पढाएका कुरा सहजै बुझ्न कठिनाई हुन सक्छ । प्रधान (१९७६:८१) ले अन्य भाषी विद्यार्थीहरूको शिक्षणका लागि नेपाली माध्यम अपनाउँदा आइपर्ने कतिपय समस्याहरू उल्लेख गरेका छन् । तिनमा अन्य भाषी शिक्षकहरूमा नेपाली भाषाको अल्पज्ञान हुनु, बालबालिकाहरू नेपाली भाषी वातावरण र नेपाली वक्ताहरूको निरन्तर सम्पर्कमा आउन नपाउनु, प्रशिक्षण सम्बन्धी कमीकमजोरी लगायतका कारणहरूले गर्दा कमजोर शिक्षण हुनु, कण्ठस्थतामा अत्यधिक जोड र बालबालिकाका ग्रामीण तथा अशिक्षित पृष्ठभूमि र परिवेश प्रमुख छन् ।

वास्तवमा अन्य भाषी बालबालिकाहरूका लागि घरपरिवार र विद्यालय दुवैको सहानुभूतिपूर्ण व्यवहारको अपेक्षा हुन्छ । समुदायका जिम्मेवार सदस्य र अभिभावकहरू त्यस्ता बालबालिकाप्रति सचेत, सहानुभूतिशील र सहयोगी भई उनीहरूका समस्या समाधानमा सदैव तत्पर रहनुपर्छ । त्यतिमात्र नभएर स्वयम् शिक्षकले समेत आफ्ना विद्यार्थीहरूको मातृभाषाको र माध्यम भाषाले सिर्जेका कठिनाईको अपेक्षा गर्ने हो भने उनको शिक्षण फगत संस्कारजन्य कर्म मात्र हुन जान्छ ।

शिक्षक र विद्यार्थीका बीचको प्रवृत्ति र दृष्टिकोणको भिन्नताले समस्याहरू उत्पन्न हुने कुरा निर्विवाद सत्य हो । यसको उदाहरणका रूपमा मेरा एकजना अन्य भाषी मित्रको प्रसंग प्रस्तुत गर्नु सान्दर्भिक लागेको छ । उनी भन्छन् -

मलाई मेरा शिक्षकले भालुको एउटा चित्र देखाउँदै धेरैचोटि “यो के हो ? भालु” भन्दै मौखिक अभ्यास गराए अनि एकछिन अरू कुराको पनि अभ्यास गराएपछि उनले फेरि त्यही अधिको चित्र देखाउँदै उनले अधिको प्रश्न सोधे । मलाई त्यो प्रश्न सजिलो थियो र दिमागमा निकै जोड लगाएर अधिको अभ्यास संभन्न खोजें । तर संभन्नामा त्यो शब्द आउँदै आएन र अलि आत्तिँदै “माक्सा” भन्न पुगें जसको नेपाली अर्थ मेरो आफ्नो भाषामा भालु नै हुन्थ्यो । मेरो उत्तर सुनेर कक्षाका सबै साथी गलल्ल हाँसे । उनीहरू किन हाँसेका होलान् भनेर म चाहिँ वाल्ल परें र लाजले निलोकालो भएँ । तर मेरा शिक्षकले मलाई न त स्यावासी दिए न मेरो स्थितिमा कुनै सहानुभूति र सहयोगको भावप्रकट गरे । मलाई धेरै दिनसम्म त्यो घटनाले लखेटिरह्यो र विद्यालयप्रति ममा एकतमासको वितृष्णा जागिरह्यो ।

माध्यम भाषा र सिकाइ कठिनाइका कारणहरू

भाषिक तहसम्बन्धी कठिनाइहरू

हरेक भाषाका आफ्नै व्यवस्था र अन्तरव्यवस्था हुन्छन् । एक किसिमको भाषा व्यवस्थाको अनुभव भइसकेका विद्यार्थीहरू विद्यालयमा पुगेपछि त्यहाँ अर्कै भाषा प्रचलनमा रहेको पाउँछन् । जसका माध्यमबाट उनीहरूले त्यो भाषा र अन्य विषयसमेत सिक्नुपर्ने हुन्छ । विद्यालयीय भाषाको व्यवस्था उनीहरूको मातृभाषाको व्यवस्थाभन्दा भिन्न हुन सक्छ । त्यस्तै वातावरण र सम्पर्कको संभावना न्यून हुन सक्छ र भाषा परिवारै फरक पनि हुन सक्छ । त्यसबाहेक कुनै पनि भाषा सिकाइमा भौगोलिक दूरी, सामाजिक र सांस्कृतिक भेदहरू, शैक्षिक र वैज्ञानिक विकास आदि विभिन्न कुराहरूले प्रभाव पारिराखेका हुन्छन् । यस्तो प्रभाव भाषाका वर्ण, रूप, शब्दभण्डार, वाक्य र सङ्गठन तहको सिकाइमा समेत व्याप्त हुन्छ । उदाहरणार्थ, वर्णकै कुरा लिऊँ । नेपाली भाषामा यस्ता वर्णहरू पनि छन् जसलाई नेपाली मातृभाषी नै पनि शुद्धसँग उच्चारण गर्न सक्दैनन् । श, ई, ऊ, क्ष आदि यस्तै वर्ण हुन् । त्यस्तै नेवारी भाषीहरू नेपाली वोल्दा ट र त को शुद्ध उच्चारण गर्न कठिनाइ महसुस गर्छन् । मैथिली भाषीहरू ड ढ लाई “र” का साथै शब्दादि र शब्दान्तमा रहेका “स्थ” “न्त” जस्ता संयुक्त अक्षरलाई क्रमशः “इस्थ” र “अन्त” का रूपमा उच्चारण गर्दछन् । यिनका अतिरिक्त कतिपय भाषाहरूमा मात्रा, श्वसन, अनुनासिकता, सुर, लय, आघात आदि खण्डेतर वर्णहरू व्यतिरेकी हुन्छन् । यस्ता भाषाभाषीहरूलाई यी विशेषता नहुने भाषा सिक्दा वा यी विशेषता नहुने भाषाभाषीहरूलाई यी विशेषता हुने भाषा सिक्दा कठिनाइ हुनु स्वाभाविकै हो ।

कुनै भाषाको शब्दभण्डार वृद्ध हुने भाषा प्रयोग हुने समुदायको सामाजिक र सांस्कृतिक सन्दर्भका साथै अन्य कुराको विकासको पूर्वानुभवको आवश्यकता पर्दछ । कहिलेकाहिँ शब्दले आफ्नो मूल अर्थ छोडेर अर्कै अर्थ लिन पनि सक्छ । “भाइ” शब्दले एउटै बाबुआमाबाट आफूभन्दापछि जन्मेको व्यक्ति भन्ने अर्थमात्र नदिएर भाइ नातापर्ने अन्य व्यक्तिहरू, कुनै जातिविशेषको सदस्य र अझ “ठियो” (ब्राइट र म्याकग्रेगर, १९७० : १६) भन्नेसमेत अर्थ दिन सक्छ । केही भाषामा “तँ” र अन्य केहीमा “मौसुफ” शब्द नै नपाइएलान् । विभिन्न

चलनअनुसार हुने भोजभतेर, धर्म आदिमा प्रयोग हुने शब्दका अर्थ त प्राथमिक कक्षाका बालबालिकाहरूका लागि अभि बढी अपरिचित हुनेहुन्छन् । सुदूर गाउँका कतिपय अन्य भाषी समुदायमा “मन्दिर” शब्द नै पनि अपरिचित हुन सक्छ ।

भाषिक कठिनाइ बढाउन वाक्य ढाँचाको पनि कम भूमिका हुँदैन । वाक्य निर्माणमा पदक्रमले ठूलो भूमिका खेलेको हुन्छ । पदक्रम नमिलेको वाक्य अर्थपूर्ण नहुन पनि सक्छ । नेपालीको वाक्य संरचना कर्ता + कर्म + क्रिया छ जुन सौभाग्यवश नेपालका अन्य राष्ट्रिय भाषाहरूभन्दा भिन्न छैन । तर पदहरूका बीचको संगति यसको केही जटिल प्रक्रिया हो । त्यसैले प्राथमिक तहका अन्य भाषी बालबालिकाहरू संगतिसम्बन्धी प्रयोगमा अक्सर कमजोर पाइन्छन् । यसरी उनीहरू नेपाली भाषाका उच्चारण, शब्दछनोट, सुबोध्य र सुसंगत अभिव्यक्ति आदि विभिन्न पक्षमा कमजोर नै हुन्छन् । फलतः उनीहरू पाठ्यक्रमले अपेक्षा गरेजति सिक्न सक्दैनन् ।

भाषिक सीपसम्बन्धी कठिनाइहरू

कतिपय भाषाशास्त्री र शिक्षाशास्त्रीहरू दोस्रो वा लक्ष्य भाषा सिकाइमा पनि पहिलो भाषा सिकाइकै क्रम अपनाउनुपर्ने ठान्दछन् । त्यसअनुसार पहिले विद्यार्थीहरूलाई सुनाइका अनेकौं अनेक अभ्यास गराइसकेपछि अनि मात्र उनीहरूले आफूले सुनेका पद र पदावलीहरूलाई उनीहरूकै सेरोफेरोमा प्रकट गर्न लगाउनु उपयुक्त हुन्छ जसले गर्दा वाक्कौशललाई प्रवाहयुक्त बनाउन सरल र सुगम होस् । यसो गर्नाले पढाइका लागि आवश्यक पृष्ठभूमि तयार पार्न सजिलो पर्छ । तर यस तथ्यलाई हाम्रा विद्यालयहरूमा ख्याल गरिँदैन र सबभन्दा पहिले विद्यार्थीसामु मुद्रित सामग्री नै प्रस्तुत गरिन्छ । हाम्रो अपेक्षा हुन्छ बालबालिकाहरू ती सामग्रीप्रति प्रतिक्रिया व्यक्त गरून् । यो कार्यकलाप न सुनाइसँग सम्बन्धित देखिन्छ, न बोलाइसँग र न पढाइसँग नै । हामीले बुझ्नुपर्छ त्यो “पढाइ” नामको “कण्ठस्थता” मात्र हो जसका लागि हामी सन्तुष्ट हुन सक्दैनौं ।

पढाइसम्बन्धी कठिनाइ पनि कम हुँदैनन् । सबभन्दा प्रमुख कठिनाइ हो लेखिएअनुसार पढ्न नमिल्नु । जस्तो बोलिन्छ त्यस्तो लेखिँदैन पनि । नेपाली भाषाको वर्णमाला, लिपि व्यवस्था, उच्चारण, लेखाइको भिन्नता, आदि विशेषता अन्य भाषी बालबालिकाहरूका मातृभाषासँग मेल खाँदैनन् भने पढाइमा कठिनाइ हुनु स्वाभाविकै हो । यस्तै कठिनाइ लेखाइमा पनि नहुने होइनन् । वर्णविन्यास, शब्दकोशको वर्णक्रम, उही अक्षरका अन्य विकल्प, लेखाइको दिशा (बायाँबाट दायाँ वा त्यसको उल्टो, तलबाट माथि वा माथिबाट तल) आदि कारणले गर्दा लेखाइ कठिन हुन सक्छ । फेरि, शब्दकोशकै क्रम अँगाल्ने हो भने कतिपय स्थितिमा बालबालिकाहरूका लागि त्यो दुस्साध्यैकाई पनि हुन सक्छ ।

नेपाली माध्यमका पाठ्यपुस्तकसम्बन्धी अन्य भाषी विद्यार्थीहरूका सिकाइ कठिनाइहरू

राष्ट्रव्यापी रूपमा एउटै पाठ्यपुस्तक लागू गरिएका छन् । पाठ्यक्रम पनि देशभरिका लागि एउटै छ । तर ४९.६९% विद्यार्थीहरू विभिन्न मातृभाषी पृष्ठभूमि लिएर विद्यालय आएका हुन्छन् । १% जनसङ्ख्यासम्मले बोल्ने भाषाहरू लिने हो नेपाली बाहेक अन्य भाषाको सङ्ख्या ११ पुग्दछ । यी भाषाहरू पकडका दृष्टिले खास खास जिल्लामा केन्द्रित छन् । यी ११ भिन्न भाषाभाषी विद्यार्थीहरू विद्यालयको भाषा नेपाली हुनाका कारणले भिन्न भिन्न सिकाइ कठिनाइहरूको

सामना गरिरहेका हुन्छन् । माध्यम भाषासम्बन्धी उनीहरूको आवश्यकता पहिचान नभइसकेको वर्तमान अवस्थामा पाठ्यक्रम र पाठ्यपुस्तकहरू पनि उनीहरूका लागि बोझिला र महत्वाकांक्षी हुन सक्छन् । फेरि उनीहरू आफ्नो परिवेशअनुसार माध्यम भाषा राम्ररी संझिन र बुझ्न त्यसका उच्चारण, शब्दभण्डार, वाक्य ढाँचा, सङ्गठन आदिको अभ्यास गर्न पनि पाउँदैनन् । विषयवस्तुको छनोटमा पनि स्थानीय संस्कृति, स्थानीय वातावरण र त्यहाँको सम्पन्न सम्पदाको राम्रो प्रतिनिधित्व भएको पाइँदैन जसबाट समग्रमा नेपाली संस्कृति, नेपाली वातावरण र नेपालको सम्पन्न सम्पदाको गौरव गर्न टेवा मिलोस् । त्यसै गरी नमुना अभ्यासको प्रस्तुतिमा पनि अन्य भाषाभाषी विद्यार्थीहरूका भाषिक क्षमता र आवश्यकतालाई त्यति ख्याल गरिएको पाइँदैन ।

पाठ्यपुस्तकहरूमा अपरिचित र अनुभव बाहिरका चाडपर्व, जीवनशैली र समुदायका अनेकौं अनेक प्रसङ्ग स्थानीय भाषाभाषी विद्यार्थीहरूको सिकाइमा अवरोध ल्याउनु स्वाभाविकै हो । यीबाहेक पाठहरूमा प्रयुक्त कतिपय चित्रहरूले समेत अन्य भाषी विद्यार्थीहरूलाई अलमल्याउन सक्छन् । यी तथ्यहरूलाई दृष्टिगत गर्दा शिक्षकहरूलाई अन्य भाषी विद्यार्थीहरूप्रति सचेत हुन पर्याप्त सम्बोधन गर्नुपर्ने देखिन्छ । यस्ता सम्बोधन विद्यार्थीहरूको पृष्ठभूमिअनुसार विषयवस्तु, उदाहरण, शिक्षणविधि आदिको संयोजनका बारेमा हुन सक्थे । त्यसो नगरुन्जेल अन्य भाषी विद्यार्थीहरू माध्यम भाषाको भिन्नता र मातृभाषाको हस्तक्षेपका कारणले उत्पन्न हुने सिकाइ कठिनाइहरूको शिकार भइरहनेछन् । अहिलेको अवस्थामा पनि शिक्षकहरू पाठ्यपुस्तक कक्षामा उपयोग गर्ने तरिकासित अपरिचित भएर हो, या उनीहरूको र विद्यार्थीहरूको भाषा अलगअलग भएर हो बहुभाषिक समस्याले गर्दा शिक्षणलाई उपलब्धिमूलक र विद्यार्थी केन्द्रित तुल्याउन सकिएको छैन ।

निवारणका केही उपायहरू

यस अधिका विभिन्न बुँदाहरूमा छलफल गरिएका विद्यालयीय भाषाजनित कठिनाइहरूको निवारणका लागि वर्तमान परिप्रेक्ष्यमा निम्नलिखित उपायहरू अवलम्बन गर्नु उपयुक्त ठानिएको छ :

१. नेपाली माध्यमका पाठ्यपुस्तकहरू अन्य भाषी विद्यार्थीहरूका लागि कठिन हुनाका मुख्य कारणमा मातृभाषा र माध्यम भाषाका बीचको अन्तर र मातृभाषाको निरन्तर हस्तक्षेप प्रमुख छन् । कक्षाका अन्य भाषी विद्यार्थीहरूको भाषिक पृष्ठभूमिलाई ख्याल गरेर ती अन्तर र हस्तक्षेपलाई कम गर्ने प्रयास गर्नुपर्दछ । त्यस्ता प्रयास दुवै भाषाका वर्णात्मक तहदेखि सङ्कथन तहसम्मको भिन्नतामा केन्द्रित गरी माध्यम भाषाको कमबढ्द अभ्यासलाई बढावा दिइनुपर्दछ ।

२. भाषिक सीपसम्बन्धी कठिनाइहरूको निवारण गर्न अन्य भाषी विद्यार्थीहरूका मातृभाषाका नेपाली भाषासँग मिल्दा र नमिल्दा प्रवृत्ति र विशेषताहरू पहिल्याई तिनका आधारमा उनीहरूको मातृभाषाको अनुभवलाई समेत माध्यम भाषा (नेपाली) सिकाइमा स्थानान्तरण गर्न उत्प्रेरित गर्ने र कमजोर सिकाइको सबलीकरणका लागि अभ्यासात्मक तथा निराकरणात्मक उपायहरू अपनाउने गर्नु उपयुक्त देखिन्छ ।

३. पाठ्यपुस्तकमा पाठहरू संयोजन गर्दा अपरिचित विषयवस्तु समावेश भएका भए पनि तिनलाई स्थानीय प्रसङ्ग दिई पाठ प्रस्तुत गर्न शिक्षकलाई निर्देशन दिनु आवश्यक उपचार हुन सक्छ ।
४. अन्य भाषी विद्यार्थीहरूका लागि नेपाली भाषाको आवश्यकताको पहिचान हुनु पनि आवश्यक छ । तदनुरूप समपारिवारिक र विषमपारिवारिक भाषिक पृष्ठभूमिका अन्य भाषी विद्यार्थीहरूका कठिनाई क्षेत्रलाई दृष्टिगत गरी उनीहरूका लागि सरले नेपाली भाषा प्रयोग भएका पाठ्यपुस्तकहरूको व्यवस्था गर्नु पनि एउटा विकल्प हुन सक्छ ।
५. सामाजिक अध्ययन जस्ता संज्ञानपरक विषयका पाठ्यपुस्तकहरूमा विविध स्थानीय परिवेश र सांस्कृतिक परम्परा तथा प्रचलन भल्किने विषयवस्तु प्रस्तुत गर्नुपर्ने हुँदा त्यस्ता विषय अनुवाद विधिको समेत प्रयोग गरी शिक्षण गर्नु पनि तत्कालका लागि एउटा काम चलाउ बाटो देखिन्छ । तर कालान्तरमा गएर दोस्रो भाषा नेपाली हुने विद्यार्थीहरूका लागि पर्याप्त स्थानीय उदाहरण समावेश गरिएका नेपाली माध्यमका छुट्टै पाठ्यपुस्तकहरूको निर्माण गर्नु आवश्यक देखिन्छ ।
६. मातृभाषामा शिक्षासम्बन्धी नीति अहिले जति नै विश्वभर सारसौँदो रहेमा र त्यसले आदर्श नागरिक निर्माण गर्ने कार्यमा पनि त्यति नै मात्रामा परिणाममुखी भूमिका खेल्न सकेमा हाम्रो सन्दर्भमा पनि प्राथमिक तहमा शिक्षाको माध्यम मातृभाषा नहुनुपर्ने कुनै कारण रहँदैन । त्यस स्थितिमा स्थानीय भाषाभाषीको जनसङ्ख्याको चाप राष्ट्रिय दृष्टिकोणले हेर्दा पर्याप्त देखिने भाषाहरूमा चरणबद्ध रूपमा भाषा योजना गरी त्यस्ता भाषामा पाठ्यपुस्तक तथा अन्य सामग्रीको विकास गर्दै जाने र मातृभाषालाई माध्यमको रूप दिँदै जाने प्रयास हुनु बान्छनीय देखिन्छ ।
७. हालको स्थितिमा बालबालिकाले आफूले जानेबुझेका कुरा माध्यम भाषामा व्यक्त गर्न नसकी वा यस्तै अन्य कारणले कक्षामा मातृभाषा प्रयोग गरे वा गर्न चाहे भने शिक्षकले त्यस्ता बालबालिकालाई प्रोत्साहन दिई उनीहरूको हिचकिचाहटलाई हटाउने र आत्मविश्वासलाई बढाउने प्रयास गर्नु आवश्यक हुन्छ । यस्ता प्रयासमा शिक्षकको मात्र नभई घरपरिवार, स्थानीय अभिभावक, स्थानीय नेताकार्यकर्ता, समुदायको अन्य जिम्मेवार सदस्यहरूको समेत रुचिपूर्ण संलग्नता अपरिहार्य देखिन्छ ।
८. समस्याको मूल जरो शिक्षक पनि हुन सक्छ । त्यसैले यसबाट जोगिन नेपालीमा राम्रो दख्खल भएका स्थानीय भाषी शिक्षकको व्यवस्था मिलाउनु पनि त्यत्तिकै आवश्यक छ । त्यस्ता तथा अन्य भाषी शिक्षकलाई समेत द्विभाषिक तथा बहुभाषिक प्राथमिक कक्षामा शिक्षण गर्दा अपनाउनुपर्ने उपायहरू, जस्तै : मातृभाषामा अनुवाद, स्थानीय उदाहरणको प्रस्तुति, शिक्षण सामग्रीको प्रयोग,

शिक्षण विधि तथा अभ्यासमा विविधता, निराकरण शिक्षण सम्बन्धी प्रशिक्षण दिनु आवश्यक देखिन्छ ।

उपसंहार

नेपाल भाषिक तथा सांस्कृतिक बहुलता भएको मुलुक हो । यहाँ यति नै भाषाको व्यवहार हुन्छ भन्ने यकिन नभएपनि तिनको सङ्ख्या १०० भन्दा बढी पनि हुन सक्छ । तर कुल जनसङ्ख्याको ५०% भन्दा बढी वक्ताहरूको मातृभाषा नेपाली हो जुन राष्ट्रभाषा, सम्पर्क भाषा र माध्यम भाषा पनि हो । माध्यम भाषासमेत भएको कारणले गर्दा नै यो प्राथमिक तहदेखि उच्च शिक्षासम्मको शिक्षाको माध्यम बनेको छ । तर नेपालीबाहेक अन्य मातृभाषा हुने प्राथमिक तहका बालबालिकाहरूका लागि प्राथमिक तहमा शिक्षाको माध्यम नेपाली भाषा हुनाले उनीहरू कतिपय सिकाइ कठिनाइहरू भोगिरहेका छन् । त्यस्ता कठिनाइहरू माध्यम भाषाका वर्ण, शब्दभण्डार, वाक्य सङ्कथन आदि सबै तहमा अन्य भाषी विद्यार्थीहरूको मातृभाषाको हस्तक्षेप बढी हुने हुँदा उब्जिएका हुन्छन् । यी कठिनाइ भाषिक सीपका दृष्टिकोणले हेर्दा पनि त्यतिकै असरकारी देखिन्छन् । तर पाठ्यक्रम र पाठ्यपुस्तकहरू अन्य भाषी विद्यार्थीहरूको (लक्ष्य भाषाको) भाषिक अनुभवअनुसार बनाइएका छैनन् । अनि ती स्थानीय परिवेशको आवश्यकताअनुसार त भन्नु छैनन् । अझ तिनमा त्यस्तो परिवेशलाई संयोजन गर्न सकिने उपाय पनि सुझाइएको छैन ।

मातृभाषामा प्राथमिक शिक्षा दिनु बालबालिकाका लागि मनोविज्ञानसम्मत कुरा हुँदा हुँदै पनि हाम्रो मुलुकमा त्यसको तयारी भइसकेको छैन । त्यसैले अहिलेका समस्याको तत्काल समाधान भनेको पाठ्यपुस्तकलाई स्थानीय परिवेशअनुकूल उपयोग गर्नु र आवश्यकता हेरी शिक्षणमा अनुवाद विधि अपनाउनु नै हो । त्यसबाहेक नेपाली जान्ने स्थानीय मातृभाषी शिक्षकको व्यवस्था गर्नु र बहुभाषी कक्षा शिक्षण अनुकूल हुने गरी शिक्षण प्रशिक्षणको व्यवस्था मिलाउनु पनि आवश्यक उपायहरू हुन् । दीर्घकालीन उपायका रूपमा भने कि त सरल नेपाली भाषा प्रयोग भएका र पर्याप्त स्थानीय परिवेशको प्रतिनिधित्व भएका छुट्टै पाठ्यपुस्तकको निर्माण गर्नु कि त जनसङ्ख्या, लेख्य परम्परा तथा पाठ्यसामग्रीको लागि पर्याप्त आधार पुगेका मातृभाषामा त्यस्ता बालबालिकाका लागि छुट्टै पाठ्यपुस्तकको निर्माण गर्दै जानु उपयुक्त हुनेछ ।

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शिक्षा क्षेत्रको व्यवस्थापनमा विकेन्द्रीकरणको अवस्था

युवराज पाण्डे *

शिक्षा ऐन २०२८ को २०५८ मा भएको सातौँ संशोधनले गरेका व्यवस्थाहरूले विद्यालयमा पढ्ने बालबालिकाका अभिभावकहरू, स्थानीय निकायहरू र जनप्रतिनिधिहरूलाई अधिकार सम्पन्न बनाउन खोजेको छ ।

विद्यालयको व्यवस्थापन समितिको गठन र कार्य

- (क) ऐनले सामुदायिक विद्यालयको व्यवस्थापन समितिमा अध्यक्ष र एक जना महिलासहित ३ जना सदस्य सो विद्यालयमा पढ्ने बालबालिकाका अभिभावकहरूबाट छानिने व्यवस्था गरेको छ । विद्यालय रहेको सम्बन्धित वडाको वडा अध्यक्ष पनि विद्यालय व्यवस्थापन समितिको सदस्य रहन्छ । व्यवस्थापन समितिमा अध्यक्ष र सदस्य-सचिव समेत जम्मा नौ सदस्य रहने व्यवस्था ऐनले गरेको छ । त्यसैले व्यवस्थापन समितिमा जनप्रतिनिधिका रूपमा विद्यालयमा पढ्ने बालबालिकाका अभिभावकहरू ४ जना र स्थानीय वडाभित्र बसोबास गर्ने मानिसहरूले चुनेको वडाको अध्यक्ष समेतका ५ जनाको स्पष्ट बहुमत कायम भएको देखिन्छ ।
- (ख) विद्यालयको प्रधानाध्यापक व्यवस्थापन समितिको सदस्य-सचिव हुने र शिक्षकहरूले आफूहरूमध्येबाट छानेको एउटा शिक्षक पनि समितिको सदस्य हुने व्यवस्था ऐनले गरेको छ । त्यसैले विद्यालय र शिक्षकहरूका आधारभूत समस्याहरूको जानकारी व्यवस्थापन समितिलाई भइरहने अवस्थाको सिर्जना ऐनले खोजेको देखिन्छ ।
- (ग) स्थानीय बुद्धिजीवी वा शिक्षाप्रेमीहरू मध्येबाट विद्यालय व्यवस्थापन समितिले मनोनीत गरेको एकजना र विद्यालयका संस्थापक वा चन्दादाताहरूमध्येबाट विद्यालय व्यवस्थापन समितिले मनोनीत गरेको एकजना गरी दुईजना मनोनीत सदस्यहरू पनि व्यवस्थापन समितिमा रहन्छन् । व्यवस्थापन समितिमा अभिभावक र स्थानीय निकायको प्रतिनिधि तथा प्रधानाध्यापक र शिक्षक रहने व्यवस्था कानुनले गरेको हुनाले ती व्यक्तिहरूबाट मनोनीत हुने व्यक्ति पनि स्थानीय व्यक्ति नै हुने देखिन्छ । विद्यालयका संस्थापक वा चन्दादाताहरू धेरैजसो स्थानीय व्यक्तिहरू नै हुन्छन् भन्ने कुरालाई पनि स्वीकार गर्ने हो र विद्यालयका प्रधानाध्यापक र शिक्षकलाई पनि स्थानीय व्यक्तिकै रूपमा लिने हो भने ऐनबाट सामुदायिक विद्यालयको व्यवस्थापन समितिमा स्थानीय व्यक्तिहरूमात्र रहने अवस्थाको सिर्जना भएको देखिन्छ ।
- (घ) विद्यालयको सञ्चालन, रेखदेख र व्यवस्थापन गर्नको लागि विद्यालय व्यवस्थापन समितिको गठन हुने कुरा ऐनको दफा १२ ले गरेको छ । सामुदायिक विद्यालयको व्यवस्थापन समितिले विद्यालयको वार्षिक बजेट स्वीकृत गर्ने काम गर्छ भन्ने कुरा पनि ऐनको दफा १२ मा उल्लेख भएको छ । सामुदायिक विद्यालयको शिक्षक पदमा शिक्षक

* सह-सचिव, शिक्षा तथा खेलकुद मन्त्रालय

सेवा आयोगले सिफारिस गरेका व्यक्तिलाई स्थायी नियुक्ति दिने काम पनि सम्बन्धित विद्यालयको व्यवस्थापन समितिले नै गर्दछ । सबै प्रकारका विद्यालयका व्यवस्थापन समितिले शिक्षकहरू अस्थायी नियुक्ति गर्ने र आफ्नै स्रोतबाट खर्च व्यहोरिने दरबन्दीमा शिक्षकहरूलाई स्थायी नियुक्ति दिने र उनीहरूका सेवाका सर्तहरू तोक्ने समेतका काम पनि गर्न सक्दछन् । शिक्षकहरूलाई विभागीय कारवाही गर्ने र पुरस्कृत गर्ने काम पनि व्यवस्थापन समितिहरूले गर्दछन् । विद्यालय के कसरी सञ्चालन र व्यवस्थापन गर्ने भन्ने विषयमा निर्णय लिने अधिकार व्यवस्थापन समितिलाई प्रदान गरेर शिक्षा ऐनले विकेन्द्रीकरणको सिद्धान्तलाई स्वीकार गरेको र व्यवहारमा उतार्ने चाँजोपाँजो मिलाएको देखिन्छ ।

(ङ) एउटा गाउँ विकास समिति वा नगरपालिकाभित्र धेरै विद्यालयहरू रहन्छन् । त्यसैले एउटा विद्यालयको सञ्चालनमा गाउँ विकास समिति वा नगरपालिकाको कुनै खास क्षेत्र वा वडा वा वडाको पनि एउटा खास भेगमा बसोबास गर्ने मानिसहरूको संलग्नता बढी हुन्छ । त्यसैले विद्यालय व्यवस्थापन समितिले पाएको अधिकार गाउँ वा नगरको पनि एउटा एकाइले पाएको अधिकार हो भन्ने कुरा स्पष्ट छ । तसर्थ, विद्यालय व्यवस्थापन समितिलाई विद्यालयको सञ्चालन र व्यवस्थापन गर्ने विषयको निर्णायक अधिकार प्रदान गरेर शिक्षा ऐन २०२८ को सातौँ संशोधनले गाउँ वा नगरभन्दा पनि अझ तल्लो र अझ वडा तथा टोलस्तरीय एकाइहरूलाई अधिकार र शक्ति सम्पन्न बनाएको देखिन्छ । विकेन्द्रीकरणको पक्षमा गरिने अधिकांश चर्चा परिचर्चाहरूले गाउँ र नगरस्तरीय निकायहरूलाई अधिकार सम्पन्न बनाउनुपर्छ भन्ने मान्यता राखेको पाइन्छ । शिक्षा ऐन २०२८ को सातौँ संशोधनले पनि त्यस्ता निकायहरूका वडा र टोलस्तरीय एकाइहरूलाई र त्यहाँका वास्तविक उपभोक्ताहरूलाई सेवा सम्बन्धी निर्णय लिने अधिकार प्रदान गरेर विकेन्द्रीकरणको अवधारणालाई अझ फराकिलो बनाउन खोजेको देखिन्छ ।

(च) संस्थागत विद्यालयको व्यवस्थापन समितिमा अध्यक्ष र सदस्य-सचिव वाहेक स्थानीय शिक्षा प्रेमी वा समाजसेवीहरू मध्येबाट सम्बन्धित गाउँ विकास समिति वा नगरपालिकाले मनोनीत गरेको एकजना, अभिभावकहरू मध्येबाट एकजना महिलासमेत पर्ने गरी विद्यालय व्यवस्थापन समितिले मनोनीत गरेका दुईजना र सम्बन्धित विद्यालयका शिक्षकहरूले आफूहरू मध्येबाट छानी पठाएको एकजना तथा सम्बन्धित क्षेत्रको विद्यालय निरीक्षक एकजना गरी जम्मा ५ जना सदस्य रहन्छन् । विद्यालयको संस्थापक वा लगानीकर्ताहरू मध्येबाट विद्यालयको सिफारिसमा जिल्ला शिक्षा अधिकारीले मनोनीत गरेको व्यक्ति अध्यक्ष रहने र विद्यालयको प्रधानाध्यापक सदस्य-सचिव रहने व्यवस्था पनि ऐनले गरेको छ । यसरी संस्थागत विद्यालयका व्यवस्थापन समितिमा रहने ७ जना व्यक्तिहरू मध्ये ६ जना स्थानीय व्यक्तिहरू हुने हुँदा विकेन्द्रीकरणको सिद्धान्तले आधार भूमिको काम गरेको छ भन्न मिल्ने अवस्थाको सिर्जना ऐनले गरेको देखिन्छ ।

जिल्ला, गाउँ र नगर स्तरीय योजना तर्जुमा

- (क) शिक्षा ऐनको दफा ११ (ट) ले गाउँ शिक्षा समितिको व्यवस्था गरेको देखिन्छ । गाउँ विकास समितिको क्षेत्रभित्र सञ्चालन हुने विद्यालयको रेखदेख र व्यवस्थापन गर्ने र विद्यालयबीच समन्वय गर्ने काम गाउँ शिक्षा समितिले गर्दछ । गाउँ विकास समितिको अध्यक्ष वा अध्यक्षको काम गर्न तोकिएको व्यक्ति गाउँ शिक्षा समितिको अध्यक्ष रहने र जिल्ला विकास समितिको सम्बन्धित क्षेत्रको सदस्य पनि सो गाउँ शिक्षा समितिको सदस्य रहने व्यवस्था ऐनले गरेको छ । गाउँ शिक्षा समितिको सदस्य-सचिव गाउँ शिक्षा समितिले तोकेका गाउँ विकास समिति क्षेत्रभित्रको उच्चतम तहको सामुदायिक विद्यालयको प्रधानाध्यापक हुने व्यवस्था पनि ऐनले गरेको छ । गाउँ शिक्षा समितिमा स्थानीय समाजसेवी वा शिक्षाप्रेमी मध्येबाट गाउँ शिक्षा समितिले मनोनीत गरेका एकजना महिलासहित दुईजना सदस्य पनि रहन्छन् । यसरी ७ जनाको गाउँ शिक्षा समितिमा स्थानीय निकायका प्रतिनिधि र स्थानीय जनप्रतिनिधि समेतका ६ जनासम्म स्थानीय व्यक्तिहरू रहन्छन् । त्यसैले गाउँ शिक्षा समितिको गठनविधि र कार्यक्षेत्रसम्बन्धी व्यवस्था पनि विकेन्द्रीकरणको मान्यता अनुरूप रहेको मान्न सकिन्छ । यस्तो गाउँ शिक्षा समितिले गाउँ स्तरीय शिक्षा योजनाको तर्जुमा र कार्यान्वयन गर्ने कार्यमा अत्यन्त महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका खेल्ने कुरा स्पष्ट छ ।
- (ख) गाउँ शिक्षा समितिले तर्जुमा गरेको गाउँ स्तरीय शिक्षा योजनालाई गाउँ परिषद्, जिल्लास्तरीय शैक्षिक योजनालाई जिल्ला परिषद् र नगर क्षेत्रको शैक्षिक योजना नगर परिषद्ले अनुमोदन गर्नुपर्छ । यसबाट विकेन्द्रीकरणको मूलभूत मान्यतालाई पूर्णरूपले आत्मसात गर्न खोजिएको छ ।
- (ग) जिल्ला विकास समितिको सभापति वा सभापतिको काम गर्न तोकिएको व्यक्ति जिल्ला शिक्षा समितिको अध्यक्ष रहन्छ । १३ सदस्यीय जिल्ला शिक्षा समितिमा प्रमुख जिल्ला अधिकारी, जिल्ला विकास समितिको सचिव र जिल्ला शिक्षा अधिकारी समेतका जम्मा ३ जना निजामती कर्मचारीहरू रहन्छन् । गाउँ शिक्षा समितिका अध्यक्षहरू मध्येबाट जिल्ला शिक्षा समितिले मनोनीत गरेको एकजना समितिको सदस्य रहन्छ । जिल्लाभित्र कार्यरत एकजना महिला सहितका ५ जना शिक्षकहरू पनि जिल्ला शिक्षा समितिमा रहन्छन् । जिल्लाभित्रका सामुदायिक विद्यालयका विद्यालय व्यवस्थापन समितिका अध्यक्षहरू मध्येबाट एकजना र संस्थागत विद्यालयका विद्यालय व्यवस्थापन समितिका अध्यक्षहरू मध्येबाट एकजना पनि जिल्ला शिक्षा समितिमा सदस्य रहन्छन् । प्रमुख जिल्ला अधिकारी जिल्ला शिक्षा समितिको उपाध्यक्ष रहने विगतको कानुनी व्यवस्था शिक्षा ऐन २०२८ को सातौँ संशोधनले हटाएको देखिन्छ । त्यसैले, जिल्ला शिक्षा समितिको गठन र कार्य सम्बन्धी कानुनी व्यवस्थामा विकेन्द्रीकरणको मूल्य र मान्यता अनुरूप सुधार भएको देखिन्छ ।

विद्यालय तथा शिशु विकास केन्द्रको स्वीकृति र स्थापनासम्बन्धी व्यवस्था

पूर्व प्राथमिक विद्यालयको सञ्चालन गर्ने स्वीकृति गाउँ विकास समिति वा नगरपालिकाले दिन सक्दछ । शिशु विकास केन्द्रको सञ्चालन गर्ने स्वीकृति पनि गाउँ विकास समिति वा

नगरपालिकाले दिन्छ । कुनै विद्यार्थी निरपेक्ष गरीवीको रेखामुनीको परिवारसित सम्बद्ध रहेको कुरा प्रमाणित गर्ने अधिकार पनि गाउँ शिक्षा समिति वा नगरपालिकाको सम्बन्धित वडाले पाएको देखिन्छ ।

स्थानीय निकायमार्फत निकासा दिने प्रक्रिया

श्री ५ को सरकारले सामुदायिक विद्यालयहरूलाई दिने अनुदानको निकासा सम्बन्धित गाउँ विकास समिति वा नगरपालिकालाई दिनुपर्छ र गाउँ विकास समिति वा नगरपालिकाले आफ्नो क्षेत्रभित्रका विद्यालयलाई त्यस्तो अनुदान उपलब्ध गराउनुपर्छ भन्ने मान्यताले पनि हालका वर्षहरूमा लोकप्रियता पाउँदै गरेको देखिन्छ । स्वीकृत शिक्षक दरबन्दी र तोकिएको तलब भत्ताको आधारमा हुन आउने रकमले नै श्री ५ को सरकारले विद्यालयलाई दिने अनुदानको अधिकांश हिस्सा ओगट्ने गरेको छ । त्यस्तो अनुदान गाउँ विकास समिति वा नगरपालिकामार्फत विद्यालयले पाउने व्यवस्थाको अवलम्बनले गाउँ विकास समिति वा नगरपालिकाको काम मात्र थपिन्छ, अधिकारमा बृद्धि हुँदैन भन्ने अर्कोतर्क पनि गर्न सकिन्छ । यस्तो व्यवस्था लागू गर्ने प्रयत्न विगतमा व्यवहारमा आउन नसकेको हुनाले पनि जिल्ला शिक्षा कार्यालय मार्फत नै विद्यालयलाई अनुदान उपलब्ध गराउने कामले अहिलेसम्म निरन्तरता पाइआएको कुरा स्पष्ट नै छ । शिक्षकहरूको तलब भत्ताको भुक्तानी दिनका लागि र विद्यालयको सञ्चालनका लागि नभई नहुने जति रकममात्र श्री ५ को सरकारबाट विद्यालयले अनुदान स्वरूप पाउँदै आएको पृष्ठभूमिमा त्यस्तो अनुदान गाउँ विकास समिति वा नगरपालिका मार्फत सम्बन्धित क्षेत्रका विद्यालयमा पुग्ने व्यवस्था मिलाउँदा शिक्षा तथा खेलकुद मन्त्रालय र यसको मातहतका अन्य निकायहरूलाई असजिलो भन्दा सजिलो नै हुने देखिन्छ ।

शिक्षा क्षेत्रसँग सम्बन्धित सरकारी निकायहरूको सञ्जाल

शिक्षा तथा खेलकुद मन्त्रालय शिक्षासम्बन्धी नीतिनिर्माण गर्ने केन्द्रीय निकायको रूपमा रहेको छ । शिक्षा विभाग, शैक्षिक जनशक्ति विकास केन्द्र, पाठ्यक्रम विकास केन्द्र, परीक्षा नियन्त्रण कार्यालय, अनौपचारिक शिक्षा केन्द्र, माध्यमिक शिक्षा विकास केन्द्र र दूर शिक्षा केन्द्र जस्ता केन्द्रीय निकायहरू पनि शिक्षासम्बन्धी कार्यक्रमहरूको तर्जुमा र कार्यान्वयनको कार्यमा संलग्न छन् । क्षेत्रीय शिक्षा निर्देशनालय र जिल्ला शिक्षा कार्यालय क्षेत्रीय तथा जिल्ला स्तरका शिक्षा तथा खेलकुद मन्त्रालय अन्तर्गतका कार्यालय हुन् । जिल्लालाई विभिन्न निरीक्षण क्षेत्रमा विभाजन गरेर प्रत्येक निरीक्षण क्षेत्रका विद्यालयहरूको निरीक्षणको काम विद्यालय निरीक्षकबाट हुने व्यवस्था पनि मिलाइएको छ । जिल्लाभित्र निश्चित क्षेत्रका विद्यालयहरूको एउटा समूहको निर्माण भएको र त्यस्तो समूहमा पर्ने विद्यालयहरूको भौतिक सुधार, शिक्षण तालिम र निरीक्षणसम्बन्धी कार्यक्रमहरूको तर्जुमा र कार्यान्वयनमा स्रोतकेन्द्र क्रियाशील रहने व्यवस्था पनि रहेको देखिन्छ । यसरी शिक्षासम्बन्धी सरकारी संयन्त्रको सञ्जाल स्थानीय स्तरका शिक्षा सम्बन्धी नीति तथा कार्यक्रमहरूको तर्जुमा र कार्यान्वयनमा स्थानीय स्तरका कार्यालयहरू क्रियाशील रहने हिसाबले देशका प्रत्येक जिल्ला र जिल्लाभित्रका प्रत्येक निरीक्षण क्षेत्र र स्रोतकेन्द्रहरूसम्म फैलिएको देखिन्छ । यसरी शिक्षासम्बन्धी नीति, योजना कार्यक्रम तथा आयोजनाहरूको तर्जुमा र कार्यान्वयनको प्रक्रिया बिकेन्द्रीकरणको मूल्य र मान्यता अनुरूप निश्चित भएको देखिन्छ ।

परिवेश

दिन-प्रतिदिन खुला शिक्षाको आवश्यकता महसुस गर्न थालिएको छ । यो अवस्थामा खुला शिक्षाको सैद्धान्तिक एवम् व्यावहारिक सीमा तथा यसका सम्भावनाबारे छलफल गर्नु सान्दर्भिक देखिन्छ । नेपालको सन्दर्भले पनि यही कुराको माग गर्दछ । कुनै बेला शिक्षक तालिममा मात्र सीमित खुला शिक्षा अब विस्तारै प्राज्ञिक उपाधि (Academic degree) प्रदान गर्नेतर्फ पनि उन्मुख भइसकेको छ । औपचारिक शिक्षालयबाट पनि द्वैध मोड (Dual mode) मा शैक्षिक कार्यक्रमहरूको कार्यान्वयन भइरहेको छ । खुला विश्वविद्यालयको खाकाभित्र साक्षरतादेखि विद्यावारिधिसम्म शिक्षण गर्ने चिन्तन अगाडि बढी सकेको छ ।

खुला शिक्षा वा विश्वविद्यालयको विकास जनसङ्ख्या वृद्धि र आर्थिक आवश्यकताले निम्त्याएको माग हो (Dhanarajan, 1997) । जव जनसङ्ख्या वृद्धि हुँदै जान्छ तब शैक्षिक संस्थाहरूमा पनि विद्यार्थी चाप बढ्दै जान्छ । यसरी पढ्ने चासो बढेको अवस्थामा पनि खुला शिक्षाको माग बढ्छ । विकासोन्मुख देशहरूको सन्दर्भमा हेर्दा एकातिर साक्षरता दर वृद्धि गर्न सकिएको छैन भने अर्कातिर अल्प-दक्ष जनशक्ति प्रशस्त मात्रामा छ । एकपटक अध्ययन पूरा गरेकाहरूलाई पनि अद्यावधिक गर्नु उत्तिकै आवश्यकता देखिन्छ । यी दुवै समूहमा महिला तथा बालिकाहरू बढी पर्दछन् (Ibid) । तर यति हुँदा हुँदै पनि यी देशहरूमा विद्यालय तहमा भर्ना दर वृद्धि भइरहेको देखिन्छ । यी दुवै अवस्थामा शैक्षिक संस्थाहरूमा विद्यार्थी चाप बढ्ने अनुमान गर्न सकिन्छ । सो चाप संहाल्न प्रशस्त भौतिक तथा मानवीय संसाधनको आवश्यकता पर्दछ । भौतिक एवम् मानवीय संसाधन जुटाउन आर्थिक स्रोतको त्यति नै आवश्यकता पर्दछ । एकातिर यो अवस्था आइपर्दछ भने अर्कातिर पढ्न खोज्ने व्यक्तिहरूका आफ्नै समस्याहरू हुन्छन् । उनीहरूमध्ये कतिपय त आयआर्जन हुने काममा संलग्न भइरहेका हुन्छन् भने कतिपयलाई घर छाडेर महिनौंसम्म शैक्षिक संस्था रहेको ठाउँमा बसाइँ सर्न आर्थिक, पेसागत तथा पारिवारिक कारणले गर्दा मुस्किल पर्दछ । त्यसमा पनि महिलालाई त भनै कठिन हुन्छ । विविध व्यवसायमा नयाँनयाँ ज्ञान तथा सीपको निरन्तर मागले पनि पेसामा संलग्न व्यक्तिहरूलाई शिक्षाको आवश्यकता भनै परेको छ । अर्को शब्दमा भन्ने हो भने बढ्दो जनसङ्ख्यालाई शिक्षा दिन खुला शिक्षालयको आवश्यकता छ । रोजगारीमा संलग्न व्यक्तिहरूलाई शैक्षिक पहुँचको ग्यारेन्टी गर्न खुला शिक्षालयको आवश्यकता छ । दिनानुदिन बदलिँरहेको विज्ञान र प्रविधिसँग जानकारी हुन खुला शिक्षालयको जरुरी छ । घर छोड्न नसक्ने बालबालिका र महिलाहरूलाई घरदैलोमा शिक्षाको सुविधा दिन खुला शिक्षालय अनिवार्य भएको छ । यी सबै कारणले गर्दा खुला शिक्षा र खुला विश्वविद्यालयको प्रचलन बढ्दै गएको छ । विगतका प्रयासहरूले नेपाल पनि यही क्रममा अगाडि बढेको देखाउँछन् ।

* उप-प्राध्यापक, शिक्षा शास्त्र संकाय, त्रि.वि.

अन्तर्निहित उद्देश्य

विकासोन्मुख देशहरूमा प्रचलित खुला शिक्षाको उद्देश्य विश्लेषण गर्दा त्यसबाट चारओटा उपलब्धि हासिल हुने देखिन्छन् । खुला शिक्षाले शैक्षिक संस्थामा आउन नसकेकाहरूका निम्ति शिक्षामा पहुँच दिँदो रहेछ । दोस्रो, उच्च शिक्षा हासिल गर्न खोज्नेहरूलाई उच्च शिक्षाको अवसर दिँदो रहेछ । तेस्रो, पेसामा संलग्न व्यक्तिहरूका लागि व्यावसायिक विकास गर्ने मौका दिँदो रहेछ । चौथो, आफ्नो ज्ञान र सीपलाई अद्यावधिक गर्ने अवसर प्रदान गर्दो रहेछ । यी कुराहरूले के इङ्गित गर्दछन् भने जनस्तरमा काम गर्नेहरू (Practitioners) लाई सैद्धान्तिक ज्ञान र सिद्धान्तकारहरूलाई व्यावहारिक ज्ञान लिने अवसर खुला शिक्षा मार्फत सम्भव हुँदो रहेछ । यसो गर्नु भनेको शैक्षिक दृष्टिमा मानवीय स्रोतलाई पूर्ण बनाउनु पनि हो ।

सान्दर्भिकता

Giaconia र Hedges (Huitt, 2001) ले “विद्यालयभित्र अपनाएको खुला शिक्षा वा विद्यार्थी केन्द्रित शिक्षाको अध्ययनबाट निकालेका सार विद्यालयबाहिर संचालन हुने खुला शिक्षामा पनि सान्दर्भिक देखिन्छ” भनेका छन् । खुला शिक्षाको उद्देश्य उत्प्रेरणा (Motivation), आत्मनिर्भरता (Independence) सृजनशीलता र सकारात्मक सोचको विकाससँग गाँसिएको हुन्छ । शैक्षिक संस्थाको नियमित घेराबाहिर संचालन हुने खुला शिक्षामा पनि उनीहरूको निष्कर्ष त्यति नै उपयुक्त देखिन्छ, अर्थात् सबै क्षेत्रमा खुला शिक्षाको उपादेयता छ । औपचारिक शिक्षामा अत्याधुनिक विधि (Non-traditional method) अपनाएर, र अनौपचारिक शिक्षामा बैकल्पिक बाटो भएर शिक्षकको नियमित सम्पर्कबाट टाढा हुनेहरूले सिकाइ र विषयवस्तुप्रति उत्प्रेरित र सिर्जनशील हुनुपर्दछ । यसबाहेक खुला शिक्षाले विद्यार्थीहरूलाई आ-आफ्नो गतिमा पढ्ने र सिक्ने मौका दिने हुँदा उनीहरू आत्मनिर्भर र अनुशासित पनि हुनुपर्दछ । साथै खुला शिक्षाका धेरैजसो विद्यार्थीहरू आ-आफ्ना पेसामा संलग्न हुने हुँदा पढाइलाई आफ्नो काममा प्रयोग गर्न पनि सक्दछन् । आफ्नो ज्ञान र सीपको मूल्याङ्कन पनि आफैं गर्न सक्दछन् । यसो गर्नाले कागजी प्रमाणपत्र खोज्ने प्रवृत्तिभन्दा व्यक्तित्व विकास गर्ने प्रवृत्ति बढ्न जान्छ । यस अर्थमा भन्ने हो भने औपचारिक विद्यालयको सुरुवात सँगसँगै सन् १८०० को मध्यतिर सुरु भएको Deschooling सोचको कार्यान्वयन पनि हुन्छ र सन् १९५०/६० को दशकमा निकै चर्चित भएको यो सोचको प्रयोगात्मक स्वरूप पनि देखिन सक्छ ।

शैक्षिक बहुलता (Instructional diversity)

संचारका माध्यमहरूको विकाससँगै सिक्ने सिकाउने प्रविधिमा पनि परिवर्तन आयो । फलतः खुला शिक्षाको परम्परागत पत्राचार (Correspondence) विधि विस्तारै आधुनिक विधितिर लँकिदै गयो । रेडियो, टि.भी., इन्टरनेट, इमेल, टेलिफोन, कम्प्युटर आदिको प्रयोग गरिए पनि छापिएका वस्तुहरू (पाठ्यपुस्तक/ पत्रपत्रिका) र मुखामुख (Face-to-face) सिक्ने सिकाउने विधिलाई पनि खुला शिक्षाले अपनाइ नै रह्यो । यसले के जनाउँदछ भने खुला शिक्षामा अनेकौं विधिमाफत सिक्न सिकाउन सकिँदो रहेछ । नियमित शिक्षण संस्थाभित्र बरु सीमित विधिको प्रयोग गरिन्छ, तर खुला शिक्षामा भने बढीभन्दा बढी शैक्षणिक माध्यमहरू अपनाउन सकिने रहेछ । खुला शिक्षामा निहित लचकतालाई पनि यसले इङ्गित गर्दछ ।

खुला शिक्षाका क्षेत्रहरूको विश्लेषणले देखाउँछ कि यसले उच्च तहमा कलेज तथा विश्वविद्यालयको शिक्षा दिन्छ । प्राविधिक तथा व्यावसायिक तहमा शिक्षक तालिम तथा अन्य व्यावसायिक सीप प्रदान गर्छ । आधारभूत तहमा प्रौढ साक्षरता कार्यक्रम पनि संचालन गर्दछ । यसबाट यो पनि बुझिन्छ कि खुला शिक्षा मार्फत व्यक्तिहरूलाई एकातिर सबै तहमा औपचारिक डिग्री दिन सकिँदो रहेछ भने अर्कोतिर अनौपचारिक रूपमा अध्ययन गर्ने अवसर प्रदान गर्न पनि सकिने रहेछ । यसरी शिक्षामा सबैलाई प्रवेश दिन सकिँदो रहेछ ।

खुला शिक्षाको शिक्षण विधिले Deschooling को सोचलाई प्रयोगमा ल्याउन कोसिस गर्दो रहेछ । यसले समेटेका विषयवस्तु वा क्षेत्रहरूले Lave / Wenger (1992) को Situated learning को अवधारणालाई पनि केही मात्रामा सार्थक (Materialize) गर्दो रहेछ । त्यस्तै खुला शिक्षाको शिक्षण विधिले यो पनि इंगित गर्दछ कि यस पद्धतिमा विद्यार्थीहरू नियमित रूपमा शिक्षण संस्थामा आउनु नपर्ने हुँदा सीमित भौतिक तथा मानवीय स्रोतले पनि सिक्न सिकाउन सकिँदो रहेछ । परिणामतः शिक्षण संस्थाहरूलाई आर्थिक भार पनि कमैपर्ने रहेछ ।

खुला शिक्षाका लक्षित समूहले देखाए कि यसले केटाकेटीदेखि वयस्क वा प्रौढसम्मलाई पठन-पाठनको अवसर दिँदो रहेछ । जस्तो कि बङ्गलादेश खुला विश्वविद्यालयको खुला माध्यमिक विद्यालयले एकातिर केटाकेटीलाई लक्षित गरेको छ भने अर्कातर्फ अनौपचारिक शिक्षामार्फत मानवीय विकासका विषयहरू प्रदान गरी प्रौढलाई लक्षित गरेको छ । त्यस्तै युनिभर्सिटी अफ साउथ अफ्रिकाले खुला शिक्षामार्फत शिक्षकलाई लक्षित कार्यक्रम प्रदान गर्दछ । यसका साथै खानीमा काम गर्ने कामदारहरूका लागि भनी कार्यथलोमा शिक्षा (Work place education) कार्यक्रम पनि संचालन गर्दछ । यसरी हेर्दा खुला शिक्षाको लक्षित समूहको विश्लेषणले सबैका लागि शिक्षा भन्ने नारालाई व्यवहारमा उतार्न खोजेको देखिन्छ । किनभने यसको लक्षित समूहमा, बालबालिका, महिला, पुरुष, कामदार, कारणवश नियमित शिक्षण संस्थामा प्रवेश नपाएका, प्राविधिक पेसामा संलग्न र शिक्षक जस्ता सम्पूर्ण तहका व्यक्तिहरू पर्दछन् ।

नेपाली प्रयास

शाही उच्च शिक्षा आयोग (२०४०) को प्रतिवेदनले खुला विश्वविद्यालयको अवधारणा प्रस्तुत गर्‍यो । प्रजातन्त्रको पुनः प्राप्तिपछि बनेको शिक्षा आयोग (२०४९) ले पनि यस अवधारणालाई थप बल दियो । यसरी नीतिगत रूपमा चर्चित खुला विश्वविद्यालयलाई मूर्त रूप दिन निजी क्षेत्र अगाडि बढ्यो । परिणामतः निजी क्षेत्रमा खुला विश्वविद्यालयका अवधारणाहरू बने र विधेयकको मस्यौदा पनि तयार भयो यही अवधारणा र मस्यौदालाई शिक्षा मन्त्रालयले बनाएको कार्यदल (२०५६) ले फेरि अगाडि बढायो । त्यसलाई शिक्षा मन्त्रालयले नै बनाएको कार्य समिति (२०५७) ले पूर्णरूप दियो अर्थात् खुला विश्वविद्यालयसम्बन्धी अवधारणा र मस्यौदा विधेयक समेत शिक्षा तथा खेलकुद मन्त्रालयमा प्रस्तुत भयो । यसको उद्देश्य सबैका लागि वैकल्पिक उपायहरू प्रयोग गरी शिक्षा सर्वसुलभ बनाउनु थियो । विद्यालयदेखि विश्वविद्यालयसम्मको शिक्षा प्रदान गर्ने सोच थियो । पेसागत ज्ञान तथा सीप अद्यावधिक गर्न चाहनेहरूका लागि पनि अवसर प्रदान गर्ने सोच उक्त कार्यदलले प्रस्तुत गरेको थियो । स्वाध्ययन सामग्रीको प्रयोगदेखि मुखामुख शिक्षण व्यवस्थासम्मको शिक्षणप्रविधि थियो । रेडियो, टि.भी., कम्प्युटर, क्यासेटयुक्त शैक्षणिक केन्द्रहरू

स्थापना गरी प्रयोगमा ल्याउने सम्मको अवधारणा थियो । यी सोचहरू अन्य देशमा प्रचलित खुला शिक्षाको अभ्याससँग मिल्दोजुल्दा थिए । तर यो प्रस्तावना एवम् मस्यौदा विधेयक संसदमा नै गएन । विश्वविद्यालय अनुदान आयोगबाट भने यो स्वीकार भयो । यसले के जनाउँदछ भने सरकारी स्तरले खुला शिक्षामा विश्वास एवम् यसको आवश्यकता महसुस गर्न अभै बाँकी रहेछ ।

मौकाको फाइदा उठाएर निजी स्तरमा भने खुला शिक्षाको आवश्यकता महसुस गरी कार्यक्रमहरू संचालन हुन थालिसकेका छन् । पूर्वाञ्चल विश्वविद्यालयको सम्बन्धनमा चलेको खुला सिकाइ केन्द्र (Open learning centre) र भारतीय विश्वविद्यालयहरूका लागि पढाउने नेपाली केन्द्रहरू यसका उदाहरणहरू हुन् । निजीस्तरबाट संचालित कार्यक्रमहरूलाई देशको आवश्यकता अनुरूप ढाल्न र व्यापारीकरण हुनबाट रोक्नु जरुरी हुन्छ ।

संभाव्य गन्तव्य

माथिको छलफलबाट खुला शिक्षाको मूल लक्ष सबैका लागि शिक्षा रहेछ भन्ने बुझियो । यसका साथै अध्ययन र अनुभवले यो पनि भन्छ कि पढ्न इच्छा हुने तर विभिन्न कारणवश औपचारिक शिक्षण संस्थामा आई पढ्न नसकेहरूका लागि उनीहरूकै चालमा सुलभ तरिकाले पढ्ने अवसर दिनु खुला शिक्षाको लक्ष्य हो । विद्यालय जाने उमेरका बालबालिकादेखि विश्वविद्यालय जाने उमेरका व्यक्तिहरू र पढ्न इच्छा हुँदाहुँदै पनि औपचारिक शिक्षाको कठोर नियमबद्धता (Rigidity) र सामाजिक, आर्थिक र सांस्कृतिक कारणले गर्दा पढ्न नसकेकाहरू यसका लक्षित समूह हुन सक्दछन् । सरकारी तथा गैरसरकारी संस्थाहरूद्वारा संचालित वैकल्पिक कक्षाहरूले पनि यस्ता समूहलाई समेट्न सकेका छैनन् । यी वैकल्पिक कक्षाहरूका उद्देश्य पनि तिनीहरूलाई औपचारिक विद्यालयको निश्चित दायराभित्रै समाहित (Fit) गर्ने हुनाले यसो भएको हुन सक्छ । यो परिस्थितिमा वैकल्पिक शिक्षा पूरा गरेका विद्यार्थीहरू खुला शिक्षालयका नियमित शिक्षार्थी हुन सक्दछन् ।

शैक्षिक तथा आर्थिक कारणले जीवनको हरेक क्षेत्रमा चुनौतीको सामना गर्नुपर्ने महिला तथा बालिकाहरूका निम्ति खुला शिक्षाले विशेष महत्व राख्दछ । यसैलाई मनन गरी राष्ट्र मण्डल (Commonwealth) अर्न्तगतका देशहरूले खुला शिक्षामार्फत महिला तथा बालिकाहरूलाई शिक्षाको अवसर प्रदान गर्दै आएका छन् । यो स्थितिले महिला तथा बालिकाहरू अर्को संभाव्य लक्षित समूह हुन् भन्ने देखाउँछ । यिनकै निमित्त मात्रै पनि खुला शिक्षालय खोल्न सकिन्छ ।

आर्थिक, सांस्कृतिक तथा सामाजिक कारणले गर्दा पढ्न नपाएका वा पढ्दापढ्दै बीचैमा पढाइ छोड्न बाध्य भएका नेपाली महिला तथा बालिकाहरूका लागि पनि खुला शिक्षा जस्तो वैकल्पिक उपाय बढी सान्दर्भिक हुन्छ । यसले उनीहरूलाई परम्परागत शैक्षिक संरचनाभित्र समाहित गर्ने क्रममा आइपरेका कतिपय समस्याहरूको समाधान गर्दछ । जस्तो २ घण्टा दिनदिनै बाल कक्षामा छोरी पढाउने आमाबाबुले १५ दिन वा महिना दिनमा ३/४ दिन पठाएर अरू बाँकी घरैमा बसेर पढ्न पाउने व्यवस्था भएमा छोरी वा बुहारीहरूलाई माथिल्लो तहसम्म पढ्न दिने बाटो पनि खुला शिक्षालयले दिन्छ । तर घरमा पनि त उनीहरूलाई पढ्न समय त दिनुपर्‍यो नि सो पाउँछन् कि पाउन्नन् भन्ने प्रश्न भने आउन सक्छ । यो प्रश्न बाबुआमा, सासूससुरा वा

श्रीमान्सँग छलफल तथा बातचित गरी (Negotiation) समाधान गर्न सकिने कुरा हो । समाधानको तरिकाले छोरी बहारीका लागि खुला शिक्षालयको अनिवार्यता पनि दर्शाउँछ ।

खुला शिक्षामार्फत महिला तथा बालिकाका निम्ति शिक्षामा मानव विकासका विषयहरू तथा सम्बन्धित व्यवसायसँग सम्बद्ध ज्ञान तथा सीप प्रदान गर्न सकिन्छ । यस प्रक्रियाले सरकारको लैङ्गिक मूलप्रवाहीकरणको (Gender mainstream) प्रयासलाई तल्लैतहदेखि मद्दत पुर्याउँछ । यो संभावनाले खुला शिक्षालयको अर्को रूप दर्साउँछ ।

खुला शिक्षा प्रक्रिया सुरु गर्न हाल भइराखेकै संरचनाको प्रयोग गर्न सकिन्छ । जस्तै आधारभूत तथा प्राथमिक शिक्षा कार्यक्रमअन्तर्गतका स्रोत केन्द्रहरू र प्राथमिक शिक्षक तालिम केन्द्रहरू जनस्तरका खुला शिक्षालय केन्द्र वन्न सक्छन् । जरुरत केको छ भने वर्तमान शैक्षिक संरचनाभित्र एक आपसमा समन्वय र माथिल्लो तहमा दृढताको खाँचो हुन्छ । स्रोत केन्द्र तथा प्राथमिक शिक्षक तालिम केन्द्रका सेवा क्षेत्रभित्रका शिक्षकहरूलाई परिचालन गरी विद्यार्थीहरूलाई पठनपाठनमा सहयोग गर्ने र सामग्री जुटाउने काममा लगाउन सकिन्छ । विद्युतको सुविधा भएका केन्द्रहरूमा श्रव्य-दृश्य माध्यमको प्रयोगद्वारा शैक्षणिक क्रियाकलाप संचालन गर्न सकिन्छ । तर खाँचो केको छ भने इच्छुक, योग्य र विद्यार्थीको अनुभवलाई पढाइ लेखाइसँग जोडेर बुझाउन सक्ने क्षमता भएका शिक्षकको भने आवश्यकता छ । यस्ता शिक्षक तयार गर्न परम्परागत शिक्षक तालिम पाठ्यक्रमले काम नगर्न सक्छ । तसर्थ किताबी र अनुभवी ज्ञानबीच तालमेल गर्न गराउन सक्ने शिक्षक तालिम पाठ्यक्रम चाहिन सक्छ । यो पनि सोच्नुपर्ने क्षेत्र हो ।

खुला शिक्षामार्फत पढ्ने विद्यार्थीको मूल्याङ्कन कसरी गर्ने ? भन्ने प्रश्नले अर्को संभावनाको खोजी गर्छ । यो खोजीले बताउँछ कि मूल्याङ्कनमा विभिन्न तरिकाहरू अपनाउन सकिन्छ । परम्परागत ढङ्गको तहगत शिक्षा हासिल गर्नेहरूलाई नियमित परीक्षामा पनि सामेल गराउन सकिन्छ । छुट्टै समयमा उनीहरूलाई लिखित तथा व्यावहारिक परीक्षा दिलाउन सकिन्छ । यी उपायभन्दा बढी व्यावहारिक र दक्ष उपाय निरन्तर मूल्याङ्कन हो । विद्यार्थी शिक्षक भेटघाट (Contact session) हुँदा उनीहरूलाई गृहकार्य (Assignment) दिएर पठाउने र अर्को भेटघाटमा त्यसलाई जाँच्न प्रस्तुत गर्न लगाउने, विश्लेषण गर्न लगाउने, पृष्ठपोषण (Feedback) दिने र त्यसका आधारमा विद्यार्थीको मूल्याङ्कन गर्ने जस्ता सहज उपायहरू अपनाउन सकिन्छ । यस प्रक्रियामा शिक्षार्थीको लेखाइ, अध्ययन सीप तथा प्रस्तुती (Presentation) सबैको लेखाजोखा गर्न सकिन्छ । सो को आधारमा स्तरमापन गर्न सकिन्छ । यसो गर्नाले एकातिर शिक्षार्थीले घोकेको आधारमा परीक्षा दिने र उनीहरूले कति ओकल्न सक्छन् त्यसको भरमा नम्वर हाल्ने प्रवृत्ति निरुत्साहित हुँदै जान्छ, अर्को भने तर्फ शिक्षार्थीमा अध्ययन, विश्लेषण र छलफल गर्ने एवम् लेख्ने बानी एकैपटक विकास गर्न सघाउ पुग्छ ।

निचोड

खुला शिक्षालय धेरै अर्थमा सान्दर्भिक छ । महिला र शिक्षामा पहुँच नभएका व्यक्तिहरूलाई यसले सेवा दिन्छ । यसले पढ्ने बानी लागेकाहरूका लागि रुचिअनुसारको शिक्षा दिने संयन्त्र तयार गर्छ । कोरा पढाइ पढेर अहिलेको श्रम बजारमा खपत नभएका युवाहरूलाई थप सीप वा

आवश्यकताअनुसारको शिक्षाको अवसर दिन्छ । घर छोड्न नसक्ने वाध्यतामा हुर्केका महिला तथा बालिकालाई घर दैलोमै शिक्षाको सुलभ अवसर दिइन्छ । निरन्तर शिक्षाको अवसरबाट वञ्चित अनौपचारिक शिक्षाका शिक्षार्थीहरूलाई थप शिक्षाको परिवेश दिन्छ । विविध भौगोलिक एवं सामाजिक परिवेशका कारण आइपरेका शैक्षिक कठिनाहरूको सामना गर्ने सहज उपाय दिन्छ । चक र बोली (Chalk and talk) को संस्कार बदल्न उपयोगी प्रविधि दिन्छ । उक्त प्रविधिको अधिकतम प्रयोग गर्ने अवसर पनि दिन्छ । यी सबै कारणहरूले गर्दा खुला शिक्षा नेपालको सन्दर्भमा अति सान्दर्भिक सावित हुन्छ ।

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गुणस्तरीय शिक्षाका केही सूचक एवं उपलब्धिका प्रयासहरू

रामस्वरूप सिन्हा *

एकाइसौं शताब्दीले विश्वव्यापीकरण, आधुनिकीकरण, ज्ञान, विज्ञान, प्रविधि एवं, सूचना प्रविधिको विकास दर्शनलाई नै शिक्षाको दूरदृष्टिको रूपमा अंगीकार गरेको छ । यसअनुरूप सक्षम, सुयोग्य, प्रतिबद्ध एवं कर्तव्यपरायण नागरिक तयार पार्ने कुरा विकासशील मात्र होइन विकसित राष्ट्रहरूको लागि समेत चुनौतीका रूपमा रहेको पाइन्छ ।

विशेषगरी विश्व जनसङ्ख्याको सर्वाधिक भाग ओगट्ने एसिया तथा अफ्रिकाका मुलुकहरूले आधारभूत शिक्षाको पहुँच तथा निरक्षरताको समस्याका साथै गुणस्तरीय शिक्षाका आवश्यकतासँग समानान्तर रूपमा जुम्नुपरिरहेको छ । अतः विकसित-विकासशील, धनी-गरिब, साना-ठूला सबै राष्ट्रहरूका सामु गुणस्तरीय शिक्षाको आवश्यकता वर्तमानमा एउटा ठूलो हाँकको रूपमा उभिएको छ ।

आखिर के कस्तो शिक्षालाई गुणस्तरीय शिक्षा मान्ने ? स्तरयुक्त शिक्षालाई नाप्ने विशिष्टमापन यन्त्र के-के हुन् ? स्तरहीन र स्तरयुक्त शिक्षाका बीचको विभाजन रेखा के हो त ? जस्ता प्रश्नहरू शिक्षासँग सम्बद्ध व्यक्तित्वहरूका मनमस्तिष्कमा स्वाभाविक रूपले जागृत हुन्छन् । कुनै पनि राष्ट्र ठूलो र विकसित हुँदैमा मात्र त्यस राष्ट्रको शिक्षाको स्तर निश्चय नै उच्च रहेको हुन्छ भनी मान्न सकिँदैन । कैयौं अमेरिकी र युरोपीय मुलुकहरूका तुलनामा एशियाका जापान र सिंगापुर जस्ता राष्ट्रहरूले पनि विशिष्ट विधा र प्रविधिको क्षेत्रमा उच्चतम उपलब्धि हासिल गरेको देखिन्छ । हाम्रो जस्तो विकासशील राष्ट्रहरूमा कक्षागत र तहगत रूपमा लिइने परीक्षाको सङ्ख्यात्मक र प्राप्ताङ्कगत उपलब्धिलाई नै गुणस्तरीय शिक्षा मापनको प्रमुख सूचकका रूपमा प्रयोगमा ल्याइएको पाइन्छ । त्यसो हो भने एस.एल्.सी. परीक्षामा ९० प्रतिशत परीक्षाफल ल्याउने काठमाडौंको एउटा विद्यालयको तुलनामा शतप्रतिशत परीक्षाफल ल्याउने जुम्लाको एउटा विद्यालयको शैक्षिकस्तर उच्च मान्ने त ?

बोर्डमा स्थान ल्याएकै आधारमा एउटा निजी विद्यालयलाई स्तरयुक्त र सार्वजनिक विद्यालयलाई स्तरहीन भन्न मिल्ने हो त ? के बोर्डमा स्थान ल्याएका सबै विद्यार्थीहरूले उच्चशिक्षामा पनि उत्कृष्टता हासिल गर्न सकेका छन् त ? राष्ट्रिय, अन्तर्राष्ट्रिय शैक्षिक संस्थाहरूद्वारा आयोजित प्रतिस्पर्धामा सफलता हासिल गर्न सकेका छन् त ? पक्कै छैनन् अतः स्तरयुक्त शिक्षाको मापनयन्त्र परीक्षालाई मात्रै ठान्न उपयुक्त होइन भन्ने तथ्य प्रस्ट हुन्छ ।

सतही रूपले हृदयङ्गम गर्दा पाठ्यक्रमले निर्धारण गरेका उद्देश्यहरूलाई जस्ताको त्यस्तै रूपमा हासिल गर्नुलाई नै उच्च उपलब्धिस्तर भएको एवं गुणस्तरीय शिक्षाको रूपमा लिइने गरिएको छ । तर त्यस किसिमको शैक्षिक उत्पादनलाई व्यावहारिक, जीवनोपयोगी मान्न सकिँदैन । यस किसिमको शिक्षालाई केवल ज्ञानको लागि ज्ञान वा शिक्षाको लागि शिक्षा अर्थात् कोरा शिक्षा मात्र हो भन्न सकिन्छ । अतः पाठ्यक्रमले निर्धारण गरेका सिकाइउपलब्धीहरूलाई जीवन पद्धतिसँग

* उप-निर्देशक, शिक्षा विभाग

आबद्ध गरी वास्तविक जीवनमा चरितार्थ गर्न सक्नुलाई नै वास्तविक अर्थमा गुणस्तरीय शिक्षाको रूपमा लिन सकिन्छ ।

निर्दिष्ट शैक्षिक उपलब्धिहरू के कति हासिल हुन सके ? गुणस्तरीय शिक्षा हो होइन ? विद्यार्थीहरूले कुन दृष्टिकोणले गुणस्तरका कुन पक्षलाई के-कति पूरा गर्न सके ? त्यसको वस्तुनिष्ठ मापन केही सूचकहरूका आधारमा हुनुपर्दछ । त्यस्तै गुणात्मक शिक्षाका आधारभूत तत्वका रूपमा वैज्ञानिक शिक्षा नीति, सुदृढ शिक्षाप्रणाली, सुव्यवस्थित पाठ्यक्रम, सुयोग्य, सक्षम र प्रतिबद्ध जनशक्ति एवं प्रभावकारी कार्यान्वयन पक्षसमेतलाई ध्यान दिइनु अत्यावश्यक ठानिन्छ । तर गुणस्तरीय शिक्षाको मापन गर्नुभन्दा पहिले शिक्षा केका लागि र किन दिने भन्ने औचित्यको पुष्ट्याइँ हुनु जरुरी देखिन्छ । त्यसैले यहाँ यसै सम्बन्धमा केही कुरा उल्लेख गर्नु सान्दर्भिक ठानिन्छ ।

वर्तमानमा मूलतः शिक्षा निम्नलिखित कार्यका लागि हुनुपर्दछ :

- जनशक्ति विकासका लागि
- व्यक्तिको सर्वतोमुखी विकासका लागि
- प्रतिबद्ध नागरिक तयार पार्नका लागि

गुणस्तरीय शिक्षाका विशेषताहरू

- संचारात्मक भाषा शिक्षणप्रणाली
- आधुनिक सूचना र संचारसीप प्रणाली
- विद्यालय मूल्याङ्कनमा आधारित सर्वाङ्गीण विकासमूलक शिक्षा व्यवस्था
- एकीकृत पाठ्यक्रम प्रणालीद्वारा मान्यतामूलक शिक्षाको व्यवस्था
- व्यावसायिक विषयवस्तुद्वारा रोजगारी मूलक शिक्षाको प्रवेश
- सहभागितामूलक योजनाबद्ध विद्यालय व्यवस्थापन एवं संस्थागत विकास ।

शिक्षाबाट उल्लिखित कार्यको अपेक्षा गरिन्छ भने त्यसलाई गुणस्तरीय रूपले आँकलन गर्न आवश्यक सूचकहरूको पूर्व व्यवस्था हुनु बाञ्छनीय ठानिन्छ । त्यसैले यहाँ केही सूचक प्रस्तुत गर्ने जमर्को भएको छ । शिक्षाको स्तर मापनका लागि केही सूचकहरूतर्फ दृष्टि गर्दा हाम्रो देशको शैक्षिक गुणात्मक परिदृश्य चित्रित हुन्छ । जस्तै :

पाठ्यक्रमको ढाँचा

गुणस्तरीय शिक्षाका लागि पाठ्यक्रम एक अत्यन्तै महत्व राख्ने सर्वसम्मत पक्ष हो जस्मा राष्ट्रिय उद्देश्य पूरा गर्नका लागि के-कस्ता क्रियाकलापहरू निर्दिष्ट गर्नुपर्ने हो, सोबारेमा स्पष्ट हुनुपर्दछ । जस्तै :

- ज्ञानप्रदान गर्ने ।
- प्रयोगात्मक सीप विकसित गर्ने ।
- तार्किक शक्ति र वैज्ञानिक सोचको विकास गर्ने ।
- सिर्जनात्मक एवं उत्कृष्टतालाई प्रोत्साहित गर्ने ।

- प्रकृति एवं सौन्दर्यप्रति अनुराग विकसित गर्ने ।
- स्वस्थता र स्वच्छताप्रति सजग रहने ।
- मूल्यमान्यतामा आधारित जीवन पद्धतिलाई सुदृढ गर्ने ।
- समसामयिक चुनौतीहरूसँग सामना गर्ने ।

शैक्षिक लगानी स्तर

शैक्षिक लगानीका तुलनामा उपलब्धिस्तर कम भयो, शिक्षाको गुणस्तर खस्क्यो, शिक्षामा गरेको लगानी खेर गयो जस्ता उक्तिहरू जनजिब्रो, संचारमाध्यम, सर्वसाधारण एवं सरकारी पक्षबाट समेत सहज रूपमा आउने गर्दछन् । तर गुणस्तरीय शिक्षाका लागि सरकारी, सामुदायिक र पारिवारिक एवं व्यक्तिगतस्तरबाट के कति योगदान हुनुपर्ने हो र हाम्रो देशमा केकति भइरहेको छ, विश्लेषण गर्नु आवश्यक छ । सरकारी बजेट विनियोजनको दृष्टिकोणले हाम्रो देशमा शिक्षा क्षेत्रले प्राथमिकता पाएको देखिँदैन । कुल राष्ट्रिय विनियोजित बजेटको करीव १४ प्रतिशत रकममात्र शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा छुट्याइएको छ र वर्षेनी उतारचढाव भएको देखिन्छ । आ. व. ०५५।५६ मा १४.३ प्रतिशत ०५६-०५७ मा १३.७ प्रतिशत थियो भने ०५७-०५८ मा १३.२ प्रतिशतमात्र छ । त्यस्तै कुल गार्हस्थ्य उत्पादनको २.८ प्रतिशत रकममात्र शिक्षामा खर्च गर्ने गरिएको छ । त्यस्तै प्रतिव्यक्ति कुल राष्ट्रिय उत्पादनको प्रतिविद्यार्थी प्राथमिक तहमा ५.८ प्रतिशत अर्थात् रु. ९४२।- र माध्यमिक तहमा ९.५ प्रतिशत अर्थात् रु. १५४१।- खर्च गर्ने गरिएको पाइन्छ । सार्वजनिक खर्च बाहेक प्राथमिक तहमा ३८ प्रतिशत र माध्यमिक तहमा ५५ प्रतिशत पारिवारिक योगदान शिक्षामा रहेको देखिन्छ । तर शैक्षिक गुणस्तर अभिवृद्धिका लागि छुट्टै सरकारी लगानी गरिएको देखिँदैन । सरकारी बजेटबाट शिक्षामा छुट्याइएको रकम शिक्षक तलब भत्ताको लागि मात्र प्रदान गर्ने गरिएको छ भने प्रति प्रा.वि. रु. ११ हजार, नि. मा. वि. १३ हजार र मा. वि. लाई रु. २१ हजार व्यवस्थापन खर्चको रूपमा प्रदान गरिएको छ । शिक्षक तलब भत्ता बाहेक भौतिक साधनको व्यवस्था र गुणस्तर विकासका लागि सामाजिक खर्च के कति भई रहेको छ यकिन गर्न सकिएको छैन । अतः गुणस्तर विकासका लागि सरकारी लगानी भइरहेको पाइँदैन । जबकि विकासशील देशहरूमा गुणस्तरीय शिक्षाका लागि सरकारी विनियोजनको कमसेकम १५ प्रतिशत र कुल गार्हस्थ्य उत्पादनको कमसेकम ५ प्रतिशत लगानी शिक्षामा हुनुपर्ने मान्यता रहेको पाइन्छ । अतः हाल शिक्षामा भइरहेको सरकारी लगानीको दृष्टिकोणले गुणात्मक शिक्षाका लागि लगानीको प्रतिशत अभै बढाउनुपर्ने हुन्छ ।

शिक्षाप्रणालीको आन्तरिक र बाह्य सक्षमता

गुणस्तरीय शिक्षाका लागि विद्यमान शिक्षा प्रणालीमा आन्तरिक र बाह्य दक्षता उच्च हुनु आवश्यक छ । विद्यार्थी खुद भर्नादर र कुल भर्नादर बीचको दूरी, पढाइ छाड्ने, कक्षा दोहोर्‍याउने र अनुत्तीर्ण हुने जस्ता शैक्षिक क्षतिको स्थितिबाट शिक्षा पद्धतिको आन्तरिक सक्षमताको मापन गरिन्छ भन्ने शैक्षिक उत्पादनको गुणस्तर के कस्तो छ ? राष्ट्रिय अर्न्तराष्ट्रिय रोजगार बजारमा हाम्रो उत्पादित शैक्षिक जनशक्ति खपतको के स्थिति छ ? यसको आधारमा शिक्षाप्रणालीको सक्षमताको मापन गरिन्छ । हाम्रो देशका यी सूचकहरूको विश्लेषण गर्ने हो भन्ने प्राथमिक शिक्षा उमेर समूहका २० प्रतिशत बालबालिकाहरू अभै विद्यालयको पहुँचभन्दा बाहिर नै रहेको पाइन्छ । खुदभर्ना प्रतिशत र कुलभर्ना प्रतिशतको बीचको दूरी ४० विद्यमान छ । कक्षा १ मा

भर्ना भएका मध्ये करिब ३७ प्रतिशतले कक्षा दोहोर्न्याउँछन् भन्ने २९.६ प्रतिशत विद्यार्थीले बीचैमा पढाइ छोड्ने गरेको पाइन्छ । प्राथमिक तहमा भर्ना भएकामध्ये कक्षा ५ पूरा गर्नेको संख्या ४९ प्रतिशत मात्र रहेको पाइन्छ । त्यस्तै गरी प्राथमिक तहको सापेक्षित सक्षमता दर ४९.७ प्रतिशत भएवाट के प्रस्ट हुन्छ भने प्राथमिक शिक्षामा राष्ट्रले निकै मोटो रकम लगानी गर्दै आएको भए तापनि आशातीत उपलब्धि हासिल गर्न नसकी लागतको करिब ५० प्रतिशत रकम खेर गइरहेको कटु सत्य प्रस्ट हुन आउँछ ।

तालिका १: कक्षा पाँचका सिकाइ उपलब्धि परीक्षाको विषयगत प्राप्ताङ्क

मध्यम प्राप्ताङ्क (Mean Score)			आधारभूत सिकाइ क्षमता (Basic Learning Competencies)		
नेपाली	गणित	सामाजिक शिक्षा	नेपाली	गणित	सामाजिक शिक्षा
५९.९	२७.३	४९.८	९०	३६.४	७८

स्रोत: विद्यालयस्तरीय नेपालको शैक्षिक तथ्याङ्क, २०५६

निम्न माध्यमिक र माध्यमिक तहको आन्तरिक सक्षमताको स्थिति अभै चिन्ताजनक रूपमा रहेको पाइन्छ । निम्न माध्यमिक तहको खुदभर्ना प्रतिशत ३९.३ र माध्यमिक तहको खुद भर्ना प्रतिशत २०.८ मात्र छ । कक्षा ६ मा भर्ना भएका मध्ये कक्षा ७ पछि २५ प्रतिशत विद्यार्थीहरूले बीचैमा पढाइ छाड्ने गरेको पाइन्छ र ४९ जना एस.एल्.सी. परीक्षामा सम्मिलित हुने गरेको देखिन्छ । त्यसमध्ये ९५ जनामात्र उत्तीर्ण हुन्छन् । गणितीय दृष्टिकोणले हेर्दा कक्षा ६ मा भर्ना भएपछि एस.एल्.सी. उत्तीर्ण हुन ९२.५ विद्यार्थी वर्ष (Student year) लाग्ने देखिन्छ ।

एस.एल्.सी.उत्तीर्ण गरेकाहरूको पनि रोजगार बजारमा माग छैन र अधिकांशले साधारण विषयको उच्च शिक्षा अध्ययन गर्ने गर्दछन् । त्यस्ता विद्यार्थीहरूमा सिकेका विषयवस्तुहरूलाई वास्तविक जीवनमा उपयोग गरी जीवन निर्वाह र जीवन पद्धतिसँग आवद्ध गर्ने क्षमता छैन । अतः शिक्षा प्रणाली अनुत्पादक सावित भएको देखिन्छ । यसबाट शैक्षिक बेरोजगारीको थुप्रो ज्यामितीय गतिमा बढी चुनौतीको रूपमा उभिएको पाइन्छ ।

उल्लिखित तथ्य र तथ्याङ्कहरूले के कुरा प्रस्ट रूपमा देखाएको पाइन्छ भने हाम्रो शिक्षा प्रणालीको बाह्य सक्षमता पनि अत्यन्तै कमजोर र सिथिल रूपमा रहेको छ । शिक्षाको आन्तरिक र बाह्य सक्षमताको कमीका कारणले गर्दा नै शैक्षिक अवसरमा असमानता, शैक्षिक सुविधा र पहुँचमा असमानता, सार्वजनिक र निजी विद्यालयका बीचको दूरी, सहरी र ग्रामीण क्षेत्रबीचको शैक्षिक सुविधाको असमान अवसर, शैक्षिक बेरोजगारीको विकराल स्थिति सिर्जना भएको हो भन्दा अतिशयोक्ति नहोला ।

मानवीय संसाधन

गुणस्तरीय शिक्षाको अर्को महत्वपूर्ण पक्ष सक्षम, दक्ष, योग्य, कर्तव्यनिष्ठ, प्रतिबद्ध एवं प्रशिक्षित र तालिम प्राप्त जनशक्तिको आपूर्ति हो । विशेष गरी व्यवस्थापन र शिक्षणलाई प्रभावकारी बनाई शैक्षिक उपलब्धिको स्तर उच्च राख्न र शैक्षिक प्रणालीको आन्तरिक सक्षमतामा अभिवृद्धि गरी प्रभावोत्पादक स्थिति कायमै राख्न तालिम प्राप्त शिक्षकको महत्वपूर्ण भूमिका रहन्छ । हाम्रो देशको तालिमप्राप्त शिक्षकको अवस्थालाई नियालेर हेर्दा प्रा.वि.मा ४४.५ प्रतिशत, नि.मा.वि.मा ३२.६ प्रतिशत, मा.वि.मा ५०.६ प्रतिशत र कुल सख्याको ४३.३ प्रतिशत शिक्षक सङ्ख्या तालिम

प्राप्त देखिन्छ । त्यस्तै तालिम प्राप्त शिक्षक विद्यार्थी अनुपात प्रा.वि.मा ८५.५, नि.मा.वि.मा ११३.६ र मा.वि.मा ३९.७ रहेको पाइन्छ । हाल राष्ट्रले प्राथमिक तालिम प्राप्त शिक्षक उत्पादनार्थ ९ ओटा प्राथमिक शिक्षक प्रशिक्षण केन्द्रहरू र माध्यमिक तहका लागि २५ ओटा माध्यमिक शिक्षा विकास एकाइहरू अधिराज्यका विभिन्न क्षेत्रमा रहेका छन् । साथै शिक्षा व्यवस्थापकहरूका लागि शैक्षिक जनशक्ति विकास केन्द्रलाई तालिमको दायित्व दिइएको छ तर सो केन्द्र स्वयम्मा पेसागत र प्राविधिक दृष्टिकोणले सक्षम देखिंदैन । न्यूनतम योग्यता पुगेका र १० महिने तालिम प्राप्त शिक्षकलाई मात्र तालिम प्राप्त शिक्षक मान्ने नीतिगत व्यवस्था रहेको छ तर टुके तालिम प्याकेजको आधारमा तालिम दिने गरिएको छ । पूर्व सेवाकालीन तालिम व्यवस्थापनतर्फ त्रि.वि.वि. को शिक्षा शास्त्र सङ्काय र केही निजी संस्थाले आफ्ना कार्यक्रमहरू संचालन गरेका छन् ।

कार्यदिन

व्यवस्थापक र शिक्षकहरू योग्य र तालिमप्राप्त भएर मात्रै हुँदैन । पेसाप्रति समर्पित कर्मठ एवं प्रतिबद्ध शिक्षकहरूले विद्यार्थीसँग कक्षाकोठामा बिताउने समय अवधिलाई महत्वपूर्ण मानिन्छ । शिक्षा नियमावलीले वर्षमा २२० दिन कक्षा चल्ने नियम बनाएको भएपनि १८० दिनसम्म मात्र विद्यालय संचालन भइरहेको विभिन्न अध्ययनहरूबाट देखिन्छ ।

कक्षाव्यवस्थापन

प्रभावकारी सिकाइका लागि हावापानी ठाँउ सुहाउँदो प्रकाशयुक्त कक्षाकोठाको व्यवस्था हुनुपर्दछ । सरकारले कक्षाकोठाका लागि भनेर केही विशिष्ट आधारहरू तोकेपनि अधिकांश विद्यालयहरूलाई न्यूनतम भौतिक पूर्वाधारविना नै स्वीकृति प्रदान गरेको देखिन्छ । खासगरी निजी स्रोतमा संचालित विद्यालयहरू राजनीतिक दबाब र अस्वस्थ प्रतिस्पर्धाका आधारमा अर्थोपार्जन गर्ने र जागिर खाने उद्देश्यले मात्र संचालित छन् । यसका साथसाथै पुस्तकालय, प्रयोगशाला, कार्यशाला जस्ता भौतिक सुविधाहरू विद्यालयहरूमा नगन्य मात्रामा उपलब्ध छन् । कक्षाकोठाको आकार स्तरीय र शिक्षण सिकाइ उपयोगी हुनुपर्छ । हाम्रा विद्यालयका कक्षाको आकार हेर्दा नियमले प्राथमिक स्तरमा हिमाल, पहाड, तराई र उपत्यकामा क्रमशः ३५, ४५ र ५५ विद्यार्थी अटाउने गरी निर्धारण गरेको भएपनि वास्तविक रूपमा कक्षाकोठाहरू १८ देखि ७४ जनासम्म विद्यार्थीहरू अटाउने गरी बनाइएका छन् ।

चेतनाको स्तर

गुणस्तरीय शिक्षा सरोकारवालाहरूको चेतनाको स्तरमा भर पर्दछ । उच्च साक्षरता प्रतिशतलाई पनि गुणस्तरीय शिक्षाको परिसूचकको रूपमा लिइन्छ । हाम्रो देशमा साक्षरता प्रतिशतको र.गना ६ वर्षदेखि माथिको उमेर समूहका आधारमा गरिन्छ । जबकि ५-१५ वर्षको उमेर समूहमा करिव २५ प्रतिशत जनसंख्या आउँछ । त्यो समूहभित्रका अधिकांश मानिसहरू विद्यालय जान्छन् र साक्षर नै हुन्छन् । हालको तथ्याङ्कअनुसार देशको कुल साक्षरता प्रतिशत ५४ रहेकोमा महिला साक्षरता प्रतिशत ४३ भन्दा बढेको छैन र महिला-पुरुष बीचको दूरी २२ कायमै छ । समष्टि रूपमा हेर्दा कुल जनसंख्याको ४५ प्रतिशतभन्दा बढी मानिसहरू निरक्षर छन् । १५ वर्षदेखि माथिको जनसंख्यालाई आधार बनाएमा साक्षरता प्रतिशत भन्ने कम भएर आउने देखिन्छ ।

सुदृढ सक्षम, सान्दर्भिक र प्रभावकारी शिक्षाप्रणाली

गुणस्तरीय शिक्षाका लागि देशको शैक्षिक प्रणालीमा कार्यात्मक रूपले सम्पूर्ण शैक्षिक अवयवहरूलाई (Educational organs) निर्दिष्ट गरी सबै यौगिक उप-प्रणालीहरू (Sub-system) तथा वैकल्पिक प्रणाली (Alternative system) हरूलाई मूल धारमा समाहित गरेर स्व-चालित गराइराख्नु पर्दछ, जसले गर्दा सबै प्रणालीहरू बीच एकात्मकता कायम हुन सकी र समष्टिगत रूपमा शिक्षाको राष्ट्रिय लक्ष्य परिपूर्तिमा सघाउन पुग्न सक्नेछ। नेपालको शिक्षाप्रणालीलाई विश्लेषण गर्दा सुदृढता, सक्षमता र प्रभावकारिताको अभाव देखिन्छ। निहित स्वार्थ परिपूर्तिको लागि राजनीतिक र कर्मचारीतन्त्रबाट नै शिक्षाप्रणालीमाथि प्रहार गरिन्छ। विद्यालय स्थापना, शिक्षक दरबन्दीवितरण, शिक्षकछनोट, भर्ना, नियुक्ति, कार्यसम्पादन मूल्याङ्कन, वृत्तिविकास जस्ता प्रक्रियाहरूमा प्रणालीलाई नै भत्ताभुङ्ग पारी संस्थागत स्वार्थभन्दा राजनीतिक र वैयक्तिक स्वार्थ परिपूर्ति गर्ने गरिएको छ।

शैक्षिक दूरदृष्टि

शैक्षिक दूरदृष्टिले देशको शिक्षाप्रणालीलाई दीर्घकालीन रूपमा दिशा निर्दिष्ट गर्दछ। वैचारिक क्षितिज र सोचहरूलाई वृहत्तर दृष्टिले प्रक्षेपण गरी शैक्षिक लक्ष्य, नीति र प्रणालीको विकास गरिन्छ, यसबाट भविष्यमा राष्ट्रले अपेक्षित लक्ष्यहरू प्राप्तमा राष्ट्रिय हस्तक्षेप र प्रयासहरूलाई प्रतिष्ठापित गर्न सकोस्। त्यो दूरदृष्टि राष्ट्रिय अन्तर्राष्ट्रिय दर्शनका आधारमा तय हुनुपर्दछ। तर नेपालका शैक्षिक योजनाकार, व्यवस्थापक, प्रशासक एवं राजनीतिकहरूमा सो दूरदृष्टिको अभाव देखिन्छ। राज्यको प्रमुख लक्ष्य विकास भएपनि दूरगामी रूपले यसलाई शिक्षासँग आवद्ध गरी सुनिश्चित गरिएको देखिँदैन।

अनुगमन तथा निरीक्षणप्रणाली

शैक्षिक योजना तथा कार्यक्रमहरूको नियमित एवम् प्रभावकारी अनुगमन तथा निरीक्षणले शैक्षिक कार्यक्रमहरूको कार्यान्वयनमा सुगमता र सहजता ल्याउँछ र उपलब्धिस्तरलाई उच्च गुणस्तरीय बनाउँछ। यस्तै कक्षाशिक्षण प्रक्रियालाई सजीव, ग्राह्य एवं प्रभावकारी बन्दछ र शिक्षक विकास प्रक्रियालाई टेवा पुऱ्याउँछ। तर हाम्रो अनुगमन तथा निरीक्षणप्रणाली फितलो छ। क्षेत्रीय तथा केन्द्रीय स्तरबाट पनि नियमित अनुगमन भईरहेको छैन। विद्यालय निरीक्षणको दायित्व बोकेका विद्यालय निरीक्षक तथा स्रोत व्यक्तिहरूबाट पनि समुचित रूपमा विद्यालय निरीक्षणको कार्य भइरहेको छैन।

सक्षम शैक्षिक व्यवस्थापन सूचनाप्रणाली

शिक्षा प्रणालीको सक्षमता तलदेखि माथिल्लो निकायसम्म हुने नियमित प्रभावकारी र विश्वसनीय सूचनाप्रणालीको व्यवस्थापनमा भर पर्दछ। त्यतिमात्र होइन शैक्षिक योजनाहरूको तर्जुमा कार्यान्वयन तथा मूल्याङ्कनमा प्रारम्भिक वा दोस्रो तथ्याङ्कको प्रयोग गर्नुपर्दछ। तर हाम्रो देशका शिक्षा योजनाकार तथा व्यवस्थापकहरूले शैक्षिक सूचनाहरूको प्रयोगमा गम्भीरता देखाएको पाइँदैन। त्यसैले योजना तर्जुमा र कार्यान्वयन दुवै पक्ष कमजोर रहेका छन्।

विद्यालय नक्साङ्कन

शैक्षिक अवसरको समानता तथा विद्यालयको न्यायोचित वितरणका लागि विद्यालय नक्साङ्कनको आधारमा विद्यालयको स्थापना हुनुपर्दछ । शैक्षिक योजनाको तर्जुमा तथा लागत प्रभावकारिता (Cost- effectiveness) को दृष्टिकोणले पनि नक्साङ्कनको आधारमा शैक्षिक व्यवस्था हुनुपर्दछ । नेपालको सन्दर्भमा विद्यालय नक्साङ्कनको कार्य २०२८ सालमा भएको थियो । गतवर्ष शिक्षा विभागबाट गर्ने प्रयासले भएतापनि वैज्ञानिक, व्यवस्थित र सत्यतथ्यका आधारमा भएको छैन र यसले पूर्णता पनि प्राप्त गरेको छैन । निर्णयकर्ताहरूले यसको पूर्ण प्रयोग गरेको देखिँदैन आर्थिक रूपमा प्रयोग गरे पनि आफ्नो अनुकूलताका लागि मात्र गर्ने गरेको देखिन्छ ।

शैक्षिक अध्ययन, अनुसन्धान तथा खोज

शैक्षिक प्रणालीको विकास तथा सक्षमता अभिवृद्धिका लागि शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा निरन्तर रूपमा अध्ययन, अनुसन्धान, अन्वेषण, एवं खोजहरू भइरहनुपर्दछ र त्यसको आधारमा सुधारहरू हुनुपर्दछ । तर हाम्रो सन्दर्भमा त्यस्ता अनुसन्धानका प्रतिवेदनहरू निर्णयकर्ताहरू र योजनाकारहरूका दराजमा थन्किएका छन् ।

सुनिश्चित उत्तरदायित्व

शैक्षिक गुणस्तरलाई सुनिश्चित गर्न शैक्षिक प्रणालीभित्रका निकायहरूको जिम्मेवारी एवं उत्तरदायित्व सुनिश्चित गर्नुपर्दछ र एकअर्काको अधिकार क्षेत्रको सीमाङ्कन एवं रेखाङ्कन हुनुपर्दछ । उत्तरदायित्व र जिम्मेवारीहरू निर्दिष्ट हुनुपर्छ र उत्तरदायित्व निर्वाहका आधारमा कार्यसम्पादन मूल्याङ्कन र दण्डपुरस्कारको व्यवस्था वस्तुनिष्ठ र पारदर्शी हुनुपर्दछ ।

हाम्रो शिक्षाप्रणालीमा विद्यालयको स्वामित्व विद्यालय व्यवस्थापन समिति, स्थानीय निकाय, नागरिक समाज, समुदाय, जिल्ला शिक्षा समिति, जिल्ला शिक्षा अधिकारी, क्षेत्रीय शिक्षा निर्देशनालय, शिक्षा विभाग तथा शिक्षा मन्त्रालय कसको हो ? सबैले विद्यालयको व्यवस्थापन हाम्रो दायित्व हो भन्दछन् तर जिम्मेवारी लिन किन कोही तयार देखिँदैनन् ? भूमिकाको दोहोरोपन, अधिकारमा हस्तक्षेप एवं अस्पष्टता छ ।

शैक्षिक नेतृत्व

सक्षम एवं कर्मठ शैक्षिक नेतृत्वले शिक्षाप्रणालीलाई सुदृढ, प्रक्रियालाई सक्षम र प्रभावकारी संयन्त्रहरूलाई क्रियाशील कार्यात्मक, तन्त्रहरूलाई गतिशील तुल्याई उपलब्धिस्तरलाई उच्च र गुणस्तरीय बनाउँछ । नेपालको सन्दर्भमा प्रधानाध्यापक, विद्यालय निरीक्षक, जि.शि.अ., क्षेत्रीय शिक्षा निर्देशक लगायत सबैले नेतृत्व दिन खोज्दछन् तर सक्षम शैक्षिक नेतृत्वप्रदान गर्न कसैले पनि सकिरहेका छैनन् । यसको मुख्य कारक तत्वको रूपमा शैक्षिक संस्थाहरू भौतिक एवं प्रशासनिक रूपले कमजोर बनेका छन् । त्यसमा कार्यरत मानवीय साधनहरू प्राज्ञिक, प्राविधिक, पेसागत, व्यावसायिक, एवं व्यवस्थापकीय दृष्टिकोणले दक्ष, सक्षम, कुशल छैनन् भने तिनीहरूमा नेतृत्व सीप को पनि अभाव छ ।

विकेन्द्रित शासनप्रणाली:

विकेन्द्रित शासनप्रणाली सक्षम, कुशल, चुस्त, दुरुस्त र उत्तरदायित्वपूर्ण प्रजातान्त्रिक व्यवस्थापन प्रणालीको एउटा महत्वपूर्ण सूचक हो । यसमा सरोकारवालाहरूको योजना तर्जुमा, कार्यान्वयन र अनुगमन तथा मूल्याङ्कन प्रक्रियामा प्रत्यक्ष उत्तरदायित्व रहन्छ । केन्द्रीय निकायमा निहित अधिकारहरू तल्लो निकायमा कानूनद्वारा उत्तरदायित्व र जिम्मेवारीसहित निर्धारित हुनु अधिकारको विकेन्द्रीकरण हो । यो प्रजातान्त्रिक शासनप्रणालीको मुटु हो ।

नेपालमा विकेन्द्रीकरणको चर्चा परिचर्चा २००७ सालदेखि कुनै न कुनै रूपमा भएपनि अभै वास्तविक रूपमा सार्थक हुन सकेको छैन । स्थानीय स्वायत्त शासन ऐन २०५५ ले स्थानीय निकायलाई सशक्त एवं अधिकार सम्पन्न बनाउन खोजे पनि प्रचलित अन्य ऐन कानून एवं आफूमा निहित अधिकार अरूमा हस्तान्तरण गर्न नचाहने मनोवृत्तिले गर्दा व्यवहारमा विकेन्द्रीकरण वास्तविक धरातलमा उत्रन सकेको छैन । शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा विकेन्द्रीकरण पद्धतिलाई विश्लेषण गर्दा वि.स. १९९६ को राणाकालीन शिक्षा इस्तिहारले व्यवस्था गरेको विद्यालय संचालन समितिको व्यवस्था र त्यसमा जनसहभागिताको प्रावधानले सम्बन्धित सरोकारवालालाई बढी सशक्त र अधिकार सम्पन्न तुल्याएको थियो । प्रजातान्त्रिक शासन व्यवस्थाको अभ्यासपछि अहिलेको वर्तमान शिक्षा ऐनले विद्यालय व्यवस्थापन समिति जनताबाट प्रत्यक्ष रूपमा गठन गर्न प्रावधान राखेको छ । व्यवहारमा अभै पनि प्राथमिक विद्यालयको अनुमति, विद्यालयमा शिक्षक दरबन्दी वितरण, शिक्षक सरुवा जस्ता सानोतिनो कार्य पनि केन्द्रीयस्तरबाट हस्तक्षेप भइरहेकोबाट शिक्षामा विकेन्द्रीकरण हुन नसकेको स्थिती प्रस्ट हुन्छ ।

ऐन नियमहरूको परिपालना

देशको शिक्षाप्रणालीलाई सुव्यवस्थित रूपले परिचालन गर्न विकसित ऐन नियमहरूको परिचालन हुनुपर्दछ । त्यसले शैक्षिक प्रणालीलाई आन्तरिक एवम् बाह्यरूपमा सक्षम बनाउँछ । हाम्रो देशको शिक्षा ऐन र नियमावलीमा स्थायित्व छैन, बढी लचिलो भएको हुनाले आ-आफ्नो किसिमले परिभाषित गर्ने, विश्लेषण गर्ने र अर्थ्याउने काम भइरहेको छ । जेजस्तो गर्दा आफ्नो स्वार्थ पूरा हुन्छ त्यस्तै अर्थ लगाउने गरिएको छ । शिक्षा ऐननियमले व्यवस्था गरेको आचार संहिताको अवहेलना भएको छ । तलदेखि माथिसम्मका शिक्षा व्यवस्थापकहरूले ऐननियमको दोहन गरेका छन् र शैक्षिक विकृतिको सृजना भएको छ । चाहे त्यो तालिम प्राप्त उम्मेदवारको सन्दर्भमा होस् वा महिला शिक्षक नियुक्ति वा अध्यापन अधिकार पत्रका सम्बन्धमा होस् शिक्षा ऐननियमसँग खेलवाड भएकै छ । शिक्षामा निजी क्षेत्र सहभागितासम्बन्धी स्पष्ट नियम कानूनको अभावमा निजी स्रोतबाट संचालित विद्यालयहरू सरकारको कानूनी दायराभित्र छैनन् । शुल्क लगाउनेदेखि लिएर निर्धारित पाठ्यक्रम पाठ्यपुस्तक लागू गर्ने कामसमेतमा मनोमानी छ । शिक्षा नियम र निर्देशनले विभिन्न प्रावधान तय गरेपनि परिपालना भएको देखिँदैन । त्यसैले सामुदायिक र संस्थागत विद्यालयबीचको दूरी भन्नु बढ्दै छ । नागरिक समाजमा असमान अवसरहरूको सृजना हुँदैछ र यसलाई सरकारको उपस्थितिको प्रत्याभूति पनि दिन सकिएको छैन ।

उपसंहार

शैक्षिक सूचकहरू शिक्षा प्रणालीको सक्षमता, सङ्ख्यात्मक उपलब्धि तथा गुणस्तरसँग सम्बद्ध छन् । वस्तुपरक रूपमा सक्षमता र सङ्ख्यात्मक पक्षलाई नाप्ने साधन सजिला भएपनि गुणात्मक पक्षलाई नाप्ने साधन प्रामाणिक, विश्वसनीय र वस्तुनिष्ठ बनाउन सजिलो हुँदैन । त्यसैले गुणात्मक उपलब्धिलाई हुबहु ठम्याउन विशिष्ट किसिमका साधनहरू विकसित गर्नुपर्ने हुन्छ । सतही रूपमा हेर्दा ती सूचकहरू तीन समूहमा समूहीकृत भएपनि एक अर्काको पूरकको रूपमा कार्य गर्दछन् र समष्टिगत रूपमा शिक्षाप्रणालीको सक्षमता तथा गुणात्मक उपलब्धिको उच्च स्तरका लागि यी सूचकहरूमा ध्यान राख्नुपर्दछ । शिक्षाक्षेत्रमा संलग्न योजनाकार, प्रशासक, व्यवस्थापक तथा अध्ययन अनुसन्धानकर्ताहरूले ममेन यी सूचक परिसूचकहरूलाई आधार मानी कार्यान्वयन पक्षलाई सुदृढ बनाउने हो भने शैक्षिक लागत तथा प्रतिफलमा तादम्यता आउने निश्चित प्रायः देखिन्छ ।

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विषयप्रवेश

शिक्षा राष्ट्रिय विकासको आधारशीला हो । शैक्षिक विकासलाई राष्ट्रिय विकासबाट अलग गरेर अगाडि बढाउन सकिन्न । हाम्रो देशको विकासको अवस्था अति कमजोर छ । नेपाल विकासोन्मुख वा अल्प विकसित देश हो । नेपालका ९०% मानिसले परम्परागत कृषि व्यवसायमा भर गरेका छन् । नेपालमा भौतिक सुख-सुविधाको अभाव छ । कमै मानिसले मात्रै आधुनिक किसिमका सुख-सुविधाहरूको उपभोग गर्दै आएका छन् । कुल राष्ट्रिय आम्दानीको ६५% आयस्रोतको रूपमा कृषिलाई लिनु परेको छ । यहाँका लगभग ५०% जनता निरपेक्ष गरिबीको रेखामुनि छन् । प्रतिव्यक्ति वार्षिक राष्ट्रिय आम्दानी २०० डलरभन्दा कम छ । अझै ४०% जति जनता निरक्षर छन् । विकासमा क्षेत्रीय असन्तुलन र लैङ्गिक असमानता पाइन्छ । पुरुषको अनुपातमा एकतिहाइ महिलाहरूमात्र साक्षर छन् । यस देशको अवस्था अझै ग्रामीण समुदायमा आधारित छ, बहुभाषिक र बहुसांस्कृतिक देश भएका कारणले देशका सबै समुदाय र सबै जातजातिलाई विकासको एउटै गतिमा हिडाउन सकिएको छैन । यस देशका विकासका कामहरू अनुदान र ऋणको भरमा सञ्चालन भएका छन् । विकासका कार्यहरूमा स्वदेशी निजी क्षेत्र फस्टाउन सकेको छैन र त्यसमा पनि अस्वस्थ प्रतिस्पर्धा छ । यस किसिमको समस्यामूलक अवस्थाको असर शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा पनि परेकाले शिक्षा क्षेत्रको विकासलाई अपेक्षित रूपमा सहज ढङ्गले अगाडि बढाउन सकिएको छैन । शिक्षाप्रति अहिलेको जस्तै दृष्टिकोण रहिरहने हो भने मुलुकको अस्तित्वमाथि नै खतराका काला बादलहरू मडारिन सक्छन् ।

नेपालमा वि.सं. २००७ मा भएको प्रजातन्त्रको अम्युदयपछि मात्र अभियानका रूपमा शैक्षिक विकासको थालनी भएको हो । त्यो विकासको कम शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा अहिले पनि त्यसै कम कायम गरिएको छ, तर शिक्षा क्षेत्रबाट सन्तोषजनक उपलब्धि हासिल हुन सकेको छैन । शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा सङ्ख्यात्मक प्रगति देखिए पनि प्रभावकारी परिणाम हासिल हुन सकेको छैन । राष्ट्रिय विकास र सामाजिक सुधारका सन्दर्भमा देखिएका विसङ्गति र विकृतिहरूको दोषारोपणको भागी शैक्षिक क्षेत्र मानिएको छ । पढेलेखेकोमा अभिमान गर्ने छोराछोरीले बाबु-आमाको परम्परागत मूल्य र मान्यतालाई विर्सँजस्तो अहिलेको शिक्षित जमातले राष्ट्र र राष्ट्रियतालाई छलफलको औपचारिकतामा मात्र सीमित गरेको देखिन्छ । परिश्रमबिना नै धनाढ्य बन्ने धुनमा देशको श्रमशक्ति खेर गइरहेको छ । शिक्षित बेरोजगारको सङ्ख्या दिनप्रतिदिन बढ्दो छ । प्राविधिक सीपयुक्त जनशक्तिको अभावमा स्थानीय स्रोत र साधनको सदुपयोग हुन सकेको छैन । वैदेशिक रोजगारका लागि विदेशिने नेपाली नागरिकले सीपको अभावमा स्तरीय व्यवसाय र इलमका अवसर उपलब्ध गर्न सक्ने अवस्था छैन । शैक्षिक गुणस्तरको अभाव र उत्पादित शिक्षित जनशक्तिमा भएको अल्प ज्ञानका कारण दक्ष व्यक्तिको अभावले गर्दा सार्वजनिक सरोकारका सबै पक्ष, क्षेत्र र संस्था अस्तव्यस्त र त्रस्त अवस्थामा अल्मलिएका छन् । यस्तो अवस्थाबाट ग्रसित मुलुकलाई गतिप्रदान गर्ने जिम्मेवारी भनेको नेतृत्ववर्ग र शिक्षाक्षेत्रको नै मानिन्छ ।

* शा.अ., दू.शि.के.

शैक्षिक उपलब्धिहरू

हाम्रो देशमा शिक्षा क्षेत्रको विकास भएको छैन भनेर भन्न भने अवश्य मिल्दैन । हामीकहाँ २% जनता मात्र साक्षर थिए भने केही नभए पनि मुलुकमा अहिले ६ वर्ष माथिका ६०% जनता साक्षर भइसकेका छन् । देशभरिमा वि.सं. २००७ मा ३२१ प्राथमिक विद्यालय, ११ माध्यमिक विद्यालय र १ महाविद्यालय मात्र भएको कुरा तथ्याङ्कले देखाएको छ । त्यस ताकासम्म विश्वविद्यालय भने छँदै थिएन । यस अवस्थाबाट शिक्षा क्षेत्रको विकास आज निकै माथि उठेको कुरालाई भने हामी सबैले स्वीकार गर्नुपर्छ । आज हामीकहाँ सबै तहका विद्यालयको सङ्ख्या मिलाएर गणना गर्दा लगभग २६ हजार पुगेको अनुमान हुन्छ । त्यस्तै उच्च माध्यमिक विद्यालयको सङ्ख्या ६८० छ । विश्वविद्यालयकै कुरा गर्दा पनि बहुविश्वविद्यालयको अवधारणा अनुसार हामीकहाँ ५ ओटा विश्वविद्यालयहरू छन् । त्रिभुवन विश्वविद्यालयअन्तर्गत मात्रै आङ्गिक क्याम्पस ६१ ओटा र सम्बन्धन प्राप्त क्याम्पसको सङ्ख्या १४० रहेको पाइन्छ । प्राथमिक विद्यालयमा मात्रै लगभग ३० लाख बालबालिका अध्ययन गर्छन् । उच्च माध्यमिक शिक्षा र उच्च शिक्षामा भर्ना भएर नियमित अध्ययन गर्ने विद्यार्थीहरूको सङ्ख्या झन्डै तीन लाख पुग्न लागिसकेको छ । एस.एल्.सी. दिने विद्यार्थीहरूकै कुरा गर्ने हो भने एउटा परीक्षा नियन्त्रण कार्यालयले अधिराज्यभरका सबै एस.एल्.सी. दिने विद्यार्थीको परीक्षा सञ्चालनको व्यवस्था केन्द्रीयस्तरमै मिलाउन र त्यसअनुसार परीक्षा सञ्चालन गर्न नसकिने अवस्था भएको छ । प्राथमिक शिक्षकहरूको सङ्ख्या हामीकहाँ १ लाखभन्दा बढी छ । नि.मा.वि. र मा.वि.का शिक्षकहरूसमेत गणना गर्ने हो भने हामीकहाँ विद्यालय शिक्षा सेवाका शिक्षकहरूको सङ्ख्या मात्रै १ लाख २५ हजार जति भएको पाइन्छ । प्राविधिक शिक्षा तथा व्यावसायिक तालिम परिषदअन्तर्गत सरकारी अनुदान र निजी खर्चमा सञ्चालित शैक्षिक संस्थाहरू पनि लगभग २०० पुग्न गएकोले त्यस क्षेत्रमा पनि आशा लाग्दो स्थिति देखापर्छ । यस रूपले शैक्षिक गतिविधिको विस्तार हुँदै गएको कुरालाई विश्लेषण गर्दा शिक्षा क्षेत्र निष्क्रिय रूपले निदाएको छ भन्न मिल्दैन । प्रश्न हो केवल सामाजिक सन्दर्भ र राष्ट्रिय हितको यस आधारमा शिक्षा विकासमा व्यवस्थापन पक्षको सुदृढता र सक्रियताको कुरा गर्दा न्यायगत सन्तुलन र प्रतिफलमूलक प्रभावकारिताका कुराहरूलाई चर्चाको विषय बनाउनु न्यायसङ्गत नै हुन आउँछ । अहिलेको हाम्रो शिक्षा व्यवस्थाले क्षेत्रीय र वर्गीय सन्तुलन पनि कायम गर्न सकेको छैन । साथै समुदायमा उपलब्धिमूलक प्रभाव पर्न गएको पनि देखिँदैन ।

शैक्षिक समस्या र चुनौतीहरू

हामीकहाँ प्राथमिक विद्यालय उमेरका १० लाख बाल-बालिकाले विद्यालय जाने अवसरको उपयोग गर्न सकेका छैनन् । सबै तहमा गरेर लगभग ६०% प्रतिशत शिक्षकहरू तालिम अप्राप्त अवस्थामै विद्यालय तहको शिक्षण गरेको पाइन्छ । सबै विद्यालयमा पाठ्यक्रम छैन र सबै विद्यार्थीको हातमा समयमा पाठ्यपुस्तक पुग्दैन । हाम्रा विद्यालयहरूको भौतिक अवस्था अति कमजोर छ । विद्यालय शिक्षण-सिकाइका लागि आकर्षणको केन्द्र बन्न सकेको पाइँदैन । २२० दिन विद्यालय सञ्चालन हुनुपर्ने र १८० दिन नियमित रूपले कक्षामा शिक्षण गरिनु पर्नेमा मुस्किलले १०० दिनमात्र कक्षाशिक्षण हुने गरेको पाइन्छ । विद्यालयमा शिक्षक विद्यार्थीको उपस्थिति ८०% भन्दा माथि हुनुपर्नेमा हाम्रा विद्यालयहरूमा औसत ६०% भन्दा माथि शिक्षक विद्यार्थीको उपस्थिति हुने गरेको छैन । यस्तो अवस्थामा सरकारी अनुदानमा सञ्चालन हुने विद्यालयको औपचारिक शिक्षा पनि आफूखुसीको विषय बन्न गएको छ । शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा कुल राष्ट्रिय उत्पादनको २.६% मात्र लगानी

गरिएको छ जबकि अहिलेको अवस्थामा कुल राष्ट्रिय उत्पादनको ३.७% रकम शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा लगानी गर्नुपर्ने खाँचो औल्याइएको छ । त्यस्तै वार्षिक बजेटको १७% रकम शिक्षा क्षेत्रका लागि विनियोजित गरिनुपर्ने आवश्यकता महसुस भएकोमा १४% भन्दा बढी रकम शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा विनियोजित हुन सकेको छैन । हाम्रो शिक्षाप्रणालीको अति कमजोर पक्ष भनेको सक्षमतासम्बन्धी विषय हो । आन्तरिक र बाह्य दुबै सक्षमताका दृष्टिबाट हाम्रो शिक्षाप्रणाली अति कमजोर अवस्थाबाट गुजिरहेको छ । कक्षा-छोड्ने र कक्षा दोहोर्‍याउने प्रवृत्ति विद्यार्थीहरूमा अत्यधिक मात्रामा रहेको छ । कक्षा एकदेखि स्नातकोत्तर तहसम्म नै विद्यार्थीहरू अस्वाभाविक रूपले अनुत्तीर्ण हुने गरेका छन् । शिक्षाविनाका शैक्षिक प्रमाणपत्र लिएर रोजगारका लागि बजारको चाहारी गर्ने व्यक्तिहरूको उत्पादन पनि हाम्रो शिक्षाप्रणालीबाट नै भएको छ । शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा गरिने लगानीलाई सामाजिक सेवाको रूपमा लिने परम्परागत प्रवृत्ति अहिले समुदायमा पाइँदैन । सबै कुरा छोड, आफ्ना सन्तानलाई अङ्ग्रेजी पढाऊ भन्ने राणाहरूको आफूमात्र मोज गर्ने स्वभाव अहिलेका सम्पन्न वर्गमा देखिन्छ । यस्तो अवस्थामा आवश्यकता अनुसारको शैक्षिक अवस्था सिर्जना गर्न निकै असजिलो हुन गएको महसुस हुन्छ ।

आजको नयाँ सहस्राब्दीमा शिक्षाको प्रमुख दायित्व भनेको व्यक्तिलाई सामाजिक जीवनयापनमा सहजता प्रदान गर्नु हो । शिक्षाले व्यक्तिलाई सहज रूपमा सामाजिकीकरण हुन सहयोग गर्नुपर्छ । सेवा प्रदान गर्ने क्षमताका दृष्टिले व्यक्तिलाई सक्षम बनाएर विश्वको कुनै श्रम बजारमा पनि खपत हुन सक्ने तुल्याउने ध्येय आजको शिक्षा प्रणालीमा रहेको हुनु आवश्यक छ । किनभने अहिले विश्वग्रामको अवधारणा हाम्रो सामु आएको छ । त्यसका लागि सार्वभौम मानवीय मूल्य र मान्यताका आधारमा शिक्षाको माध्यमबाट स्वस्थ प्रतिस्पर्धा गरेर बाँच्न प्रयास गर्नु आजको हाम्रो प्रमुख आवश्यकता हो । अहिलेको विश्वमा पुरानो मूल्य र मान्यता विघटित भैसकेको छ, नयाँ मूल्य र मान्यता स्थापित हुन बाँकी छ । यस्तो परिस्थितिबाट जोगाई विश्वलाई निश्चित गति प्रदान गर्ने काम पनि शिक्षाको हो । यसका लागि शिक्षाले व्यक्तिमा अन्तर्निहित व्यक्तित्वको विकासमा सहयोग पुर्‍याउनुपर्छ । वातावरणको संरक्षण गरी पृथ्वीलाई विनाश हुनुबाट रोक्न जनचेतनाको विकास गर्ने कार्य पनि शिक्षाबाट नै सम्भव छ । समाजका सबै व्यक्ति र वर्गलाई विकास निर्माणमा शिक्षाले समान रूपमा अग्रसर गराउन नसकेको खण्डमा वर्गविभाजन र त्यसबाट वर्गसङ्घर्षको स्थिति सिर्जना हुनसक्छ । आजको २१ औँ शताब्दी वा त्यस्तै यो तेस्रो सहस्राब्दिमा लैङ्गिक समतालाई ध्यानमा राखी आय आर्जनको व्यवसायमा लाग्ने क्षमता प्रदान गर्ने र विश्व वातावरणका बारेमा जानकारी राख्न सकिने खालको शिक्षा सबैका लागि समान अवसरका रूपमा उपलब्ध हुनुपर्छ । शिक्षा, स्वास्थ्य जस्ता सामाजिक संरचनालाई सुदृढ तुल्याउने तत्वको उपभोगलाई व्यक्तिको नैसर्गिक अधिकारको रूपमा लिइन्छ । आत्मनिर्भर बन्न व्यक्तिलाई अभिप्रेरित गरी स्वस्थ समाजको विकासमा सहयोग गर्नु अहिलेको शिक्षाप्रणालीको मुख्य दायित्व हो ।

शिक्षा आर्जन गर्ने अवसर र शिक्षा ग्रहण गर्न सक्ने अवस्थाप्रतिको पहुँचलाई मानव अधिकारको विषयका रूपमा लिइन्छ । सन् १९४८ को मानव अधिकारसम्बन्धी घोषणापत्रले शिक्षालाई मानव अधिकारको रूपमा अधिसारेको छ । यस अवधारणालाई हाम्रो नेपाल अधिराज्यको संविधान २०४७ ले पनि स्वीकार गरेको छ । महिलाहरूका लागि शिक्षासम्बन्धी विशेष कार्यक्रम सञ्चालन गर्ने, मसिना बाल-बालिकाहरूका लागि निशुल्क शिक्षाप्रदान गर्ने, अपाङ्गहरूको लागि विशेष

शिक्षाको व्यवस्था गर्ने, विपन्न वर्गका लागि लक्षित समूहका रूपमा परियोजनामूलक कार्यक्रम लागू गर्ने, समाजमा पछि परेकाहरूलाई शिक्षाको माध्यमबाट विकासको मूलप्रवाहमा ल्याउने, विज्ञान र प्रविधिको विकासमा जोड दिने, स्थानीय प्रविधिको विकासलाई प्राथमिकता दिने, कृषिलाई उद्यमको रूपमा विकास गर्ने, जनचेतना जगाई वातावरणलाई संरक्षण गर्ने जस्ता कुराहरूलाई शिक्षाको सम्बन्धमा हाम्रो नेपाल अधिराज्यको संविधान २०४७ ले लक्षित गरेको देखिन्छ । “सबैका लागि शिक्षा” दिने सम्बन्धमा नेपालले अन्तर्राष्ट्रिय क्षेत्रमा आफ्नो प्रतिबद्धता रहेको कुरा जाहेर गरिसकेको छ । यस अर्थमा शिक्षालाई सबै नेपालीको घरदैलोमा पुऱ्याउनुपर्ने खाँचो टडकारो रूपमा खट्किएको छ । त्यसमा पनि शिक्षा र ज्ञानका क्षेत्रमा नयाँ आयामहरू थपिँदै गएका अवस्थामा व्यक्तिले चाहेको र रोजेको विषयमा शिक्षा आर्जन गर्ने अवसर सबै व्यक्तिहरूलाई उपलब्ध गराउन हाम्रो स्रोत र साधनलाई कुन रूपमा उपयोग गर्ने सम्बन्धमा हामीले बेल्छौं विचार पुऱ्याउनुपर्छ । कम्प्युटर शिक्षा, वातावरण शिक्षा, जनसङ्ख्या शिक्षा जस्ता अन्य विषयहरू पनि शिक्षण-सिकाइका लागि आवश्यक मानिएका छन् । नेपाल अधिराज्यको संविधान २०४७ को भाग ४ धारा २५ मा उल्लेख गरिएका राज्यका उद्देश्यहरू हासिल गर्नेतर्फ हाम्रो शिक्षा प्रणाली केन्द्रित हुनु आवश्यक हुन आउँछ ।

शैक्षिक पुरावलोकनको खाँचो

शिक्षालाई हामीले विशेष प्राथमिकताको रूपमा लिएनौं र शिक्षामा समयानुसार सुधारका कार्यक्रमहरू लागू गरेनौं भने शिक्षाले समाजमा विसङ्गति र विकृतिहरू पनि ल्याउन सक्छ । शिक्षामा विषयगत विविधता र छनोटको स्वतन्त्रताका अवसरको पनि त्यतिकै खाँचो छ । त्यस्तो अवस्थामा मात्रै आफ्नो रुचि र आवश्यकताअनुसारको शिक्षा लिने अवसर सबैलाई उपलब्ध हुन सक्छ । शिक्षाविना राष्ट्रियता अर्थहीन हुन्छ र प्रजातन्त्रको जगेर्ना हुन सक्तैन । कानूनप्रदत्त अधिकारको उपयोग गर्ने क्षमता पनि शिक्षाले प्रदान गर्छ । यस सन्दर्भमा शिक्षामा विषयगत र प्रक्रियागत विविधता र अनिवार्यताको खाँचो छ ।

वि.सं. २०११ साल ताकाको प्राथमिक शिक्षामा रहेको विविधता पनि हामीले समुदायलाई उपलब्ध गराउन सकेका छैनौं । त्यतिवेला हामीकहाँ प्राथमिक तहका विद्यालय मात्रै ६ किसिमका थिए । राष्ट्रिय प्राइमरी स्कूल, भाषा पाठशाला, आधार स्कूल, मदरसा, सेस्ता पाठशाला र गुम्बा विद्यालय त्यस बेला प्राथमिक विद्यालयका रूपमा सञ्चालन भएका थिए । त्यसवेला देशमा शिक्षा विकासले विशेष महत्त्व पाएको थियो । त्यो महत्त्व शिक्षा क्षेत्रले अहिले हासिल गर्न सकेको छैन । सबैका लागि शिक्षा र अनिवार्य शिक्षाको अवधारणालाई साकार रूप दिन हामीले हाम्रो शिक्षा प्रणालीलाई पनि पुनरावलोकन गर्नुपर्ने आवश्यकता हुन आउँछ । वि.सं. २०१३ सालबाट थालनी भएको प्रथम पञ्चवर्षीय योजनाले शिक्षा क्षेत्रका लागि ८०% बजेट विनियोजित गरेको थियो । त्यस योजना अवधिमा शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा विशेष उल्लेखनीय कार्यहरू पनि भएका थिए । अहिलेको अवस्थामा भने हामी शिक्षामा त्यस किसिमले बजेट विनियोजित गर्न सक्ने अवस्थामा छैनौं । शिक्षाको आवश्यकता भने त्यसको अनुपातमा अहिले भन् बढेर गएको देखिन्छ । जनसङ्ख्यामा भएको अत्यधिक वृद्धि, प्रजातान्त्रिक वातावरणमा सबै समुदायको विकासको उत्तिकै महत्त्व, रोजगारीको अवस्था, विज्ञान र प्रविधिको क्षेत्रमा भएको विकास, नेपाली युवाहरूका लागि अन्तर्राष्ट्रिय रोजगारका खोजीमा विदेशिनुपर्ने विवशता, नेपालले देशको शिक्षा विकासमा देखाएको अन्तर्राष्ट्रिय प्रतिबद्धता, समय-समयमा गठन भएका शिक्षा आयोगले हाम्रो शैक्षिक अवस्थाको विश्लेषणबाट

निकालेका निष्कर्ष आदिलाई मनन गर्दा शिक्षामा सुधारात्मक प्रयासको थालनी गर्नु र त्यसलाई निरन्तरता दिनु हाम्रा लागि अत्यावश्यक भएको छ । यसका लागि हामीले हाम्रो प्रचलित शैक्षिक संरचनामा फेरबदल गर्नुपर्ने पनि हुन आउँछ । संरचनामा फेरबदल गर्ने सन्दर्भमा ३ वर्षको पूर्वप्राथमिक शिक्षा ७ वर्षको प्राथमिक शिक्षा, ३ वर्षको माध्यमिक शिक्षा र २ वर्षको उच्च माध्यमिक शिक्षा लागू गर्न सकिन्छ । यसो गर्दा ६ वर्ष पूरा पुगेपछि कक्षा १ मा बालबालिका भर्ना गर्ने व्यवस्था मिलाउनुपर्छ । प्राथमिक शिक्षालाई माध्यमिक शिक्षाको व्यवस्थापनभन्दा अलग व्यवस्थापनमा सञ्चालन र उच्च माध्यमिक शिक्षालाई माध्यमिक शिक्षाको व्यवस्थापनभित्र सञ्चालन गर्ने गरी व्यवस्था मिलाएमा बढी उपयुक्त हुन आउँछ । प्रचलित ढङ्गबाट प्रदान गरिने शिक्षाको वैकल्पिक माध्यम पनि अपनाउनु आवश्यक मानिन्छ । यस सन्दर्भमा खुला शिक्षालाई पनि एउटा वैकल्पिक माध्यमका रूपमा अवलम्बन गर्नुपर्छ ।

वैकल्पिक माध्यमका रूपमा खुला शिक्षा

खुला शिक्षाको सम्बन्धमा विभिन्न प्रतिवेदन एन नियम आदिमा आवश्यकता महसुस गरिएको पाइन्छ ।

“अनौपचारिक शिक्षा प्राप्त गर्नेहरूलाई औपचारिक शिक्षाका विभिन्न तहमा प्रवेशका लागि तयार गर्ने खुला विद्यालयहरू तथा व्यावसायिक शिक्षाका विभिन्न तहहरू सहायक हुनसक्छन् । विश्वविद्यालयमा प्रवेश लिई उच्चस्तरीय शिक्षा प्राप्त गर्न नसक्नेहरूलाई खुला विश्वविद्यालयद्वारा पत्राचार शिक्षा, रेडियो र टी.भी.का माध्यमबाट नियमित रूपमा पाठ्यसामग्री दिएर दूर शिक्षणका विभिन्न पद्धति समेत अँगाली शिक्षा दिन सकिन्छ । प्रस्तावित खुला विश्वविद्यालयले व्यक्तिगत परीक्षार्थीहरूको परीक्षा लिने काम मात्र नगरी औपचारिक रूपमा नियमित कक्षाहरूको पनि संचालन गर्नुपर्छ ।” (राष्ट्रिय शिक्षा आयोगको प्रतिवेदन २०४९)

नेपालमा केही मात्रामा दूर शिक्षा कार्यक्रम विद्यालयीय शिक्षाका निम्ति प्रयोग भए तापनि यसले सुदृढ संस्थागत रूप लिन सकेको छैन । खुला विश्वविद्यालयको अवधारणा अनुरूप उच्च शिक्षाका प्रणालीमा विगत डेढ दशकदेखि शिक्षा आयोगहरूले यसको स्थापना गर्ने सिफारिस तापनि अभ्र साकार हुन सकेको छैन । शिक्षामा सामाजिक चाहनाको पूर्ति गरी शिक्षालाई प्रजातान्त्रीकरण गर्ने र आजीवन शिक्षाको ढोका खोल्न खुला विश्वविद्यालयको स्थापना गर्न जोड दिइनेछ । (उच्चस्तरीय राष्ट्रिय शिक्षा आयोगको प्रतिवेदन २०५५)

“अनौपचारिक शिक्षा तथा दूर शिक्षाको सञ्चालन तोकिए बमोजिम हुनेछ ।” शिक्षा ऐन (सातौँ संसोधन) २०२८

यस किसिमले हामीकहाँ दूर शिक्षाको थालनी र खुला शिक्षाको आवश्यकता भएको महसुस केही दशक पहिलेदेखि हुँदै आएको हो । तर न त दूर शिक्षाप्रणाली फस्टाउन नै सकेको छ न त सरकारी तवरबाट बहुविश्वविद्यालयको अवधारणा अनुरूप खुला विश्व विद्यालयको स्थापना नै भएको छ । यसरी आवश्यकताको महसुस हुँदाहुँदै पनि समयको माग अनुसार हामीले शिक्षाको विकासको गतिलाई अगाडि बढाउन सकिराखेका छैनौं । विकासलाई गति दिन र सार्थक बनाउन वातावरण र समयको मागलाई बुझ्न सक्नुपर्छ भन्ने दृष्टिकोणलाई पनि हामीले विर्सनु हुन्न । अहिलेको अवस्थामा हामीकहाँ खुला विश्वविद्यालयको स्थापना र तदनुरूपको शिक्षाको व्यवस्था गर्ने कार्यमा ढिलाई भइसकेको छ । शिक्षामा देखा परेका चुनौतीहरूको सामना गर्न हाम्रो

सन्दर्भमा खुला विश्वविद्यालयको स्थापनाले निकै सहयोग गर्ने सम्भावना रहेको कुरा गम्भीरतापूर्वक विचार गरेमा सबैका सामु छर्लङ्ग हुन आउँछ ।

निष्कर्ष

बहुविश्वविद्यालयको अवधारणा अनुरूप विश्वविद्यालयको सङ्ख्या पाँचओटा पुग्दा पनि त्रि.वि.वि.का आङ्गिक क्याम्पसहरूमा भर्ना हुन चाहने वा भर्ना भएका विद्यार्थीको बाहुल्यताले गर्दा उनीहरूका लागि उपयुक्त किसिमको शैक्षिक व्यवस्था मिलाउन क्याम्पस प्रशासनलाई धौ-धौ परेको भान हुन्छ । यो समस्या खुला विश्वविद्यालयको स्थापनाबाट धेरै मात्रमा समाधान हुनसक्छ । उच्च माध्यमिक शिक्षा परिषद्ले विद्यालय शिक्षाको अन्तिम तहको रूपमा सँगाल्दै आएको प्रवीणता प्रमाणपत्र तहको शिक्षा विभिन्न कठिनाइका कारण शिक्षाको राष्ट्रिय लक्ष्य मुताविक बन्न सकेको छैन । यसले प्राविधिक शिक्षालाई सुलभ गराउन नसकेको कारणले गर्दा जेहेन्दार विद्यार्थीहरूका लागि क्याम्पसतहको प्राविधिक शिक्षाको ढोका बन्द भएको छ । निजी क्षेत्रबाट व्यवस्थापन भएको विद्यालय तहदेखि विश्वविद्यालय तहसम्मको शिक्षा सर्वधारण विपन्न वर्गका विद्यार्थीहरूको पहुँचभन्दा बाहिरको विषय बनेको छ । त्यस्तै प्राविधिक तथा व्यावसायिक शिक्षा बढी खर्चिलो भएकाले सर्वसुलभ गराउने अवस्थाको सिर्जना पनि हुन सकेको छैन । यसर्थ अनौपचारिक शिक्षाबाट औपचारिक शिक्षामा प्रवेश गर्ने बातावरणको खोजी गर्ने, शैक्षिक परिपाटीमा लचिलोपनको अपेक्षा गर्ने, सोखको रूपमा तहगत हिसावले माथिल्लो तहको शिक्षा लिन चाहने, नियमित ढङ्गबाट औपचारिक शिक्षा लिने अवसर अनुकूल नभएका तर शिक्षा हासिल गर्ने क्षमता राख्नेहरू सबैका लागि सरकारले बौद्धिक कसरथ वा अभ्यास गर्ने अवसर प्रदान गर्नुपर्छ । पेसागत रूपमा व्यावसायिक शिक्षाको आवश्यकता पर्नेहरू पनि हामीकहाँ त्यतिकै छन् । यी सबैका लागि कम लागतमा शिक्षा आर्जन गर्ने बातावरण खुला शिक्षामा हुन सक्छ । यसका लागि खुला विश्वविद्यालयको स्थापना र तदनुरूपको शैक्षिक गतिविधिको सुरुवात सुरुमा श्री ५ को सरकारबाट नै हुनु आवश्यक ठानिन्छ ।

पृष्ठभूमि

विगतको आधा शताब्दीमा शिक्षाको क्षेत्रमा भएको विकासलाई उल्लेख्य प्रगति मान्नुपर्छ । सन् १९५१ मा ३२१ ओटा प्राथमिक विद्यालयहरू थिए । त्यो सङ्ख्या वृद्धि भई अहिले करिब २६,००० संस्थागतसमेत) पुगिसकेको छ । त्यस्तै कुल जनसङ्ख्याको २% रहेको साक्षरता दर सन् २००० मा ५८% पुगेको छ । यसरी शिक्षाको विकासमा भएको प्रगतिताई निम्नानुसार उल्लेख गर्न सकिन्छ ।

तालिका नं. १ : Trends of Primary Education Development in Nepal

Topics and Time	1971	1976	1981	1991	1999	2000
Number of primary schools	7634	8768	10628	18694	25522	25927
Number of students (000)	410	762	1388	2884	3780	3623
Number of teachers		2077 5	29134	74495	99382	97879
% of partial trained teachers*			36	43	44.5	52
% of female teachers		10		14	24	25

* Partial trained teachers refer those teachers having at least 2.5-month training.
(Adopted from Annual Strategies Implementation Plan (ASIP) 2002/2003, DOE)

सङ्ख्यात्मक प्रगति उल्लेख्य भए पनि हाल सञ्चालित अधिकांश विद्यालयहरू आन्तरिक तथा बाह्य समस्याहरूबाट ग्रस्त छन् । त्यस्ता विद्यालयहरूले समयानुसार गुणात्मक शिक्षा दिन सकिरहेका छैनन् । समाजका आकांक्षाहरू पूरा गर्न नसक्नाले अधोगतितर्फ उन्मुख भएको आरोप खप्न बाध्य छन् । विभिन्न आयोग तथा प्रतिवेदनहरूले औल्याएअनुसार विद्यालय शिक्षाका केही समस्याहरूलाई उदाहरण स्वरूप निम्नानुसार वर्गीकरण गर्न सकिन्छ ।

- (क) विद्यार्थीहरूको सिकाइउपतथिस्तर अपेक्षित रूपमा सुधार नहुनु ।
- (ख) शैक्षिक क्षति बढ्दै जानु ।
- (ग) विद्यालय विकासमा जनसहभागिता जुट्न नसक्नु, विद्यालय र समुदायको सम्बन्ध सुमधुर बन्न नसक्नु ।
- (घ) प्र.अ., शिक्षक र विद्यालय व्यवस्थापन समितिमा विद्यालय व्यवस्थापनसम्बन्धी आवश्यक सीप तथा क्षमताको अभाव देखिनु र सो सीप विकास गर्ने कार्यक्रम प्रभावकारी रूपमा कार्यान्वयन हुन पनि नसक्नु ।
- (ङ) विद्यालय विकासको निर्दिष्ट कार्ययोजना बन्न नसक्नु ।
- (च) शिक्षकहरूमा पेसाप्रतिको प्रतिबद्धता न्यून हुनु ।
- (छ) सक्रिय सिकाइका निमित्त आवश्यक एवम् प्रभावकारी वातावरण तयार नहुनु ।

* शा.अ., शिक्षा विभाग

- (ज) शिक्षण-विधि/क्रियाकलापमा समयानुसार सुधार गर्न नसक्नु ।
- (झ) भौतिक वातावरण आकर्षक एवम् सुविधाजनक बनाउन नसक्नु ।
- (ञ) विद्यालयलाई प्रदान गरिने आर्थिक तथा प्राविधिक सहयोग अपर्याप्त हुनु ।

यस्ता अवस्थाबाट गुज्रिरहेका विद्यालयहरूको सुधार गर्ने कार्य अवश्य पनि सहज एवम् सरल छैन, सुधार ल्याउन स्थानीयस्तरमा उपलब्ध सीमित स्रोत र साधनको समुचित परिचालन गर्नुपर्ने हुन्छ । विद्यमान अवस्थामा विद्यालयहरूले सरोकारवालाहरूको सहभागिता जुटाउन प्रयास गरेका छैनन् । आवश्यक ज्ञान, सीप र ढाँचाको अभावमा विद्यालय विकासका कार्यहरू अलपत्र अवस्थामा रहेका छन् । विद्यालय विकास सम्बन्धमा सरोकारवाला, शिक्षक, विद्यार्थी, अभिभावक तथा विद्यालय व्यवस्थापन समितिको बीचमा आपसी छलफल गर्ने प्रचलन प्रायः न्यून छ । जसले गर्दा विद्यालय विकासका लागि आवश्यक साझा सहमति हुन सकेको छैन ।

विद्यालय सुधार कार्यक्रम

विद्यालयलाई बदलिंदो परिस्थितिको मागमुताबिक परिवर्तन गरी विद्यार्थीहरूको पहुँच बढाउन तथा सिकाइउपलब्धिमा सुधार ल्याउन सरोकारवालाहरूद्वारा नै तयार गरिने कार्यक्रम नै विद्यालय सुधार कार्यक्रम हो । हाल भइरहेको शैक्षिक क्षतिलाई पूर्णतः नियन्त्रण गरी सीमित स्रोतको अधिकतम परिचालनद्वारा विद्यालय उभरका बालबालिकाहरूलाई विद्यालयमा भर्ना हुन अभिप्रेरित गर्नु, भर्ना भएका बालबालिकाहरूलाई पाठ्यक्रमले तोकेका सिकाइउपलब्धिका साथ निर्धारित समयभित्र निर्धारित तह पूरा गराउनु र विद्यालयलाई सामुदायिक विकास केन्द्रको रूपमा विकसित गराउनु नै विद्यालयको अवस्थामा सुधार ल्याउनु हो ।

विद्यालय सुधार कार्यक्रमले विद्यालयको भौतिक सुधारमा आन्तरिक कुशलता, शैक्षिक क्षतिन्यूनीकरण एवम् उच्चतम प्रतिफल हासिल गर्ने पक्षमा जोड दिन्छ । यस तथ्यलाई Carter (1998) ले समेत विशेष महत्त्व दिएका छन् । उनका अनुसार विद्यालय सुधार योजनाले निम्न महत्त्वपूर्ण पक्षहरूमाथि जोड दिने गर्छ ।

- The necessity for careful planning
- Management and
- Continuity in the face of difficulties (p7).

विद्यालय सुधार कार्यक्रमले अपेक्षा गरेका उपलब्धिहरू हासिल गर्न विद्यालयको समग्र पक्षमा सुधार ल्याउनु नितान्त आवश्यक हुन्छ । सर्वप्रथम, विद्यालयहरूको विद्यमान अवस्थामा सुधार गर्नका लागि हाल प्रयोगमा आइरहेको कार्य प्रणालीमा परिवर्तन गर्नु आवश्यक हुन्छ ।

विद्यालय सुधार भनेको शैक्षिक परिवर्तन ल्याउने एउटा यस्तो उपाय हो जसले विद्यार्थीको शैक्षिक उपलब्धिको अभिवृद्धिमा र विद्यालयको क्षमता सुदृढीकरणमा मद्दत पुऱ्याउँछ (Hopkins, 1994) । परिवर्तन ल्याउन अपनाइने उपायहरूलाई नै विद्यालय सुधार मान्नु पर्ने तर्क Glover (1995) को छ । Hopkins et al. (1998) ले school improvement as a distinct approach to educational change that enhances student outcomes as well as strengthening the school's capacity for managing change भनेर विद्यालय सुधारलाई परिभाषित गरेका छन् । शैक्षिक परिवर्तनले कसरी विद्यार्थीको सिकाइउपलब्धि अभिवृद्धि गर्न सहयोग गर्छ भन्ने विषयतर्फ विद्यालय सुधार कार्यक्रम

उन्मुख हुनुपर्ने विषयमा Hopkins को विशेष जोड रहेको पाइन्छ । त्यस्तै Mortimore (1995) ले विद्यालय सुधार शैक्षिक परिवर्तनका लागि एउटा निर्दिष्ट प्रक्रिया (Distinct approach) हो, जुन प्रक्रिया प्रभावकारी विद्यालय बनाउन प्रयोग गर्न सकिन्छ भनेका छन् । विद्यालय सुधारलाई प्रभावकारी बनाउन प्रयाग गरिने सहयोगी अवस्था मान्नु पर्ने मत Stoll & Mortimore को पनि छ । Joyce (1991) ले अझ फराकिलो दायरामा गएर विद्यालय सुधारको प्रक्रिया एक किसिमको खुल्ला ढोका जस्तै हो भनेका छन् ।

विद्यालय सुधार गर्ने प्रक्रिया

विद्यालय सुधार गर्ने प्रक्रिया विविध हुन सक्छन् । त्यसैले विद्यालय सुधारको कार्यलाई focusing upon various approaches to development and change in schools भन्न सकिने कुरा Carter (1998) ले औल्याएका छन् । Improving the Quality of Education for All (IQEA) Project मा समेत School improvement, of course, is not a 'quick-fix' approach to change भनी विद्यालय सुधारका कार्यहरू विभिन्न उपायहरू (approachs) बाट गर्न सकिने उल्लेख गरिएको पाइन्छ । यसबाट विद्यालय सुधारका निमित्त विभिन्न उपायहरू हुन सक्ने देखिन्छ । जुनसुकै उपाय तथा तरिकाहरू अपनाए पनि ती उपायहरूद्वारा सरोकारवालाहरूलाई विचार गर्न, सोच्न, छलफल गर्न प्रोत्साहित गरिनुपर्छ । यस सम्बन्धमा Carter (1998)ले विशेष जोड दिंदै भनेका छन् :

'The provision of an approach which encourages problem solving and thinking at the local level of the school or the classroom would, then, seem to have much to offer teachers as they tackle the task of school improvement'. (P8)

यसबाट के प्रस्ट हुन आउँछ भने विद्यालय सुधारका लागि विद्यालयले आफ्नो काम गर्ने तौर तरिकामा परिवर्तन गर्नु अपरिहार्य रहेछ । त्यस्ता तौर तरिकाहरू विविध हुन सक्ने पक्षमा समेत मनन गरिनुपर्छ । फेरि अर्कोतर्फ यहाँनेर बुझ्नुपर्ने पक्ष के छ भने सधैं गरिने परिवर्तन सुधारतर्फ उन्मुख हुन्छ त भनिन्छ तर सफल नै हुन्छ भन्न भने सकिंदैन । परिवर्तन जोखिमपूर्ण पनि हुने गर्दछ । यस तथ्यलाई Stoll and Mortimore र Mortimore (1995) ले समेत यसरी उल्लेख गरेका छन् ।

All school improvement involves educational change, although it cannot be assumed that all change leads to improvement sometimes changes might be notoriously 'messy', time consuming and difficult (Stoll and Mortimore, 1995).

यसको अर्थ जोखिमपूर्ण हुनाले परिवर्तन गर्नु नै हुँदैन भन्ने होइन । नयाँनयाँ खोज, आविष्कार, तथा विकास गर्नका लागि कुनै न कुनै समयमा परिवर्तन गर्ने प्रक्रियाको थालनी गर्नुपर्ने हुन्छ । सावधानीपूर्वक निश्चित कार्य ढाँचाको आधारमा गरिएको परिवर्तनबाट सफलता हासिल गर्न सजिलो हुन्छ । शैक्षिक परिवर्तन गर्ने कार्यप्रणालीको प्रमुख उद्देश्य विद्यार्थीहरूको सिकाइउपलब्धि अभिवृद्धि गर्ने हुनुपर्छ । परिवर्तन विद्यार्थीको सिकाइउपलब्धि गर्ने तर्फ लक्षित गरिनु पर्दछ । School improvement is about raising student achievement through focusing on the teaching learning process and the conditions, which support it. Hopkins *et al.* (1994) विद्यालय सुधारको कार्यक्रमलाई 'The need for focus on teaching and learning as well as upon

supporting organizational conditions' भनी Carter (1998) ले स्पष्ट रूपमा परिवर्तन विद्यार्थीहरूको सिकाइ उपलब्धिमा आधारीत हुनुपर्ने विषयमा जोड दिएका छन् ।

विद्यालय सुधारका निमित्त सुझाव गरिएको ढाँचा

हाम्रा विद्यालयहरूको अवस्थामा सुधार गर्न एउटा निश्चित ढाँचा को विकास एवम् अनुसरण गर्नुपर्ने हुन्छ । सो प्रस्तावित ढाँचा लाई निम्नानुसार प्रस्तुत गरिएको छ ।

सर्वप्रथम, विद्यालयका सरोकारवालाहरू, विद्यालय व्यवस्थापन समिति अभिभावक, शिक्षक, विद्यार्थी, गाउँ शिक्षा समिति र आवश्यकतानुसार छिमेकी विद्यालयहरूको समेत उपस्थितिमा विद्यालयहरूको सेवा क्षेत्र निर्धारण गरिनुपर्छ । यसरी सेवा क्षेत्र निर्धारण गर्दा वडा, गा.वि.स. तथा अन्य कुनै क्षेत्रको भौगोलिक सीमानालाई समेत आधार मान्न सकिन्छ । विद्यालय सेवाक्षेत्र छुट्याउनुको मूल उद्देश्य कुनै पनि स्थान विद्यालयको सम्पर्कभन्दा बाहिर नरहोस् भन्ने हो । विद्यालय सेवाक्षेत्र overlap हुने अवस्था आएमा घरधूरी सर्वेक्षणबाट प्राप्त तथ्याङ्कका आधारमा सम्बन्धित विद्यालयहरू वसी आपसी छलफलद्वारा समस्या समाधान गर्नुपर्छ ।

विद्यालयले आफ्ना कार्यहरूमा सुधार ल्याउन आफैं तत्पर हुनुपर्छ । आफैं तत्पर नभएसम्म बाहिरबाट गरिएका प्रयासहरूको निष्फल ठूलो महत्त्व रहँदैन । सो कार्य गर्नका लागि सरोकारवालाहरू एउटै थलोमा बसी विद्यालयका सबल एवम् कमजोर पक्षहरू पहिचान गर्न खुला रूपमा छलफल गर्ने बानीको विकास गर्नुपर्छ । यस्तो छलफल गर्ने प्रक्रियाले विद्यालयका सरोकारवालाहरूको बीचमा विश्वासको वातावरण सिर्जना गर्दछ ।

विद्यालयले आफ्ना कार्यहरूको पुनरावतोकन तथा स्व-मूल्याङ्कन गरी के-कस्तो कारणबाट ती कमजोरीहरू देखिएका हुन सो बारेमा पनि छलफल गर्नुपर्छ । किनभने, विद्यालयका कार्यहरूमा परिवर्तन ल्याउन आन्तरिक तथा बाह्य दुबै किसिमको दबाव आवश्यक हुन्छ र गरिनु पनि पर्दछ, (Early, 1998) । आन्तरिक दबाव पुनरावतोकन तथा स्व-मूल्याङ्कनबाट सिर्जना हुन्छ भने बाह्य दबाव समुदाय तथा माथिल्लो निकायबाट गरिने नियमित अनुगमन तथा सहयोगबाट सिर्जना हुन्छ । यी आन्तरिक र बाह्य दबावमा Carter (1998) ले भने बाह्य दबाव भन्दा आन्तरिक दबावको कारणबाट थालिने सुधारको कार्यलाई महत्त्वपूर्ण ठानेका छन् ।

Improvement comes from the internal process of implementation not from the mere imposition of innovation from outside of the school. School Improvement Research (SIR) does not deny the influence of external environment but places school improvement efforts within this context, with a strong emphasis upon internal organizational features and teacher interpretation. (P8)

यस्ता दुबै दबावका आधारमा विद्यालयलाई प्राविधिक तथा अन्य किसिमको सहयोग समेत उपलब्ध गराउनुपर्छ । सरोकारवालाहरूलाई आपसी छलफलद्वारा आफ्ना आवश्यकता पहिचान गर्न र सोको परिपूर्तिका निमित्त नयाँनयाँ उपायहरू खोज्न अभिप्रेरित गर्नु नै एक प्रकारको सहयोग र आजको समयको आवश्यकता पनि हो । यस्तो सहयोग उपलब्ध गराउने प्रक्रियाद्वारा विद्यालयको हालको कार्यप्रणालीमा सुधार ल्याउन सजिलो हुन्छ र उनीहरूलाई सुधारतर्फ अग्रसर गराउन सजिलो हुन्छ । सन् १९९० मा बेलायतमा गरिएको Improving the Quality of Education for All

(IQEA) Project मा पनि विद्यालय सुधारका कार्यलाई अगाडि बढाउन विद्यालयलाई कसरी सहयोग गर्न सकिन्छ भनेर सोचिएको थियो (Hopkins *et al.* 1998).

विद्यालयका कमीकमजोरीहरू पत्ता लगाईसकेपछि त्यस्ता कमीकमजोरीहरू समाधान गर्नेतर्फ सरोकारवालाहरूलाई उत्साहित गरिनुपर्छ । विद्यालय सुधार कार्यलाई अगाडि बढाउन स्थानीय स्रोत र साधनलाई स्थानीय उपायद्वारा नै प्रयोगमा ल्याउन सकिन्छ । यसको आशय सरोकारवालाहरूलाई आत्मनिर्भर बन्तर्फ अगाडि बढाउनु हो । यस सम्बन्धमा Carter (1998) ले शिक्षकको भूमिकालाई महत्वपूर्ण मानेका छन् । उनका अनुसार SIR does, however, provide the scope for teachers to offer their own definitions and interpretations of what makes an effective school and to incorporate these values and judgments into targets for improvement।

विकेन्द्रीकरणको मूल मर्मअनुसार यसरी शिक्षाको तल्लो निकाय विद्यालयदेखि नै सरोकारवालाहरूको सहभागितामा योजना निर्माण, कार्यान्वयन, अनुगमन तथा मूल्याङ्कन गर्ने परिपाटीको सुरुवात गर्नु विद्यालय सुधार कार्यक्रमको प्रमुख उद्देश्य हो । त्यसैले विद्यालय सुधारको कार्यलाई top-down policy भन्दा bottom-up strategies भन्नु बढी सान्दर्भिक र उपयुक्त देखिन्छ (Carter, 1998) । स्थानीय स्वायत्त शासन ऐन (२०५५), शिक्षा (सातौँ संशोधन) ऐन (२०२८) र दसौँ योजनाको अवधारणा पत्रमा समेत तल्लो तहको योजना निर्माण एवम् कार्यान्वयन स्थानीय तहबाट नै सम्पन्न गराउनु पर्ने अभिप्राय रहेको छ । “सबैका लागि शिक्षा” (Education for All, EFA) भन्ने आह्वानलाई सार्थक गर्न हाल तयार भइरहेको EFA Action Plan ले पनि विकेन्द्रीकरणको मूल मर्मलाई नै अङ्गीकार गरेको छ । विकेन्द्रीकरणको प्रक्रियाबाट सम्पन्न गरिएका कार्यक्रमप्रति अपनत्वको भावना विकास भई कार्यक्रम दिगो रूपमा सफल हुन्छ ।

विद्यालयमा सुधार गर्नुपर्ने क्षेत्रहरू भनेका विद्यालयहरूले भोगिरहेका समस्या तथा मुद्दाहरू हुन् । अर्को अर्थमा ती सुधार गर्नुपर्ने क्षेत्रहरू नै विद्यालयका आवश्यकताहरू हुन् । यस्ता क्षेत्रहरू धेरै हुन सक्छन् । खास गरी विद्यार्थी, शिक्षक, विद्यालय, व्यक्ति तथा समुदायसँग सम्बन्धित विषयहरू नै प्रमुख क्षेत्रहरू हुनु पर्छ । IQEA मा जम्मा पाँचओटा क्षेत्रहरू (Principles) लाई Aid-memoire को रूपमा स्वीकार गरिएको थियो । अर्को अर्थमा उक्त प्रायोजनाका आकांक्षाहरू (Expectations) यिनै पाँचओटा क्षेत्रहरू थिए ।

- School improvement is a process that focuses on enhancing the quality of students' learning.
- The school will see in external pressures for change important opportunities to secure its internal priorities.
- The school will seek to develop structures and create conditions, which encourage collaboration and lead to the empowerment of individuals and groups.
- The school will seek to promote the view that monitoring and evaluation of quality is a responsibility, which all members of staff share.

Hopkins *et al* (1998, P25)

सरोकारवालाहरूद्वारा पहिचान गरिएका विविध क्षेत्रहरूमा सुधार ल्याउन धेरै स्रोतको आवश्यकता पर्न सक्छ । तसर्थ विद्यमान स्रोत तथा भविष्यमा उपलब्ध हुन सक्ने स्रोतसमेतको आङ्कलन

एवम् विश्लेषण गरी माथि छुट्याइएका क्षेत्रहरूलाई प्राथमिकता क्रमअनुसार उल्लेख गर्नुपर्छ । यसरी स्थानीय स्रोतको पहिचान एवम् विश्लेषणबाट परिनिर्भरता हटाउन मद्दत पुग्छ ।

विद्यालयले जब आफ्ना आवश्यकता एवम् स्रोतको आकलन गर्छ सोको आधारमा विद्यालय विकासको स्पष्ट दृष्टिकोण तयार गर्नुपर्छ । यस्तो दृष्टिकोण अल्पकालीन तथा दीर्घकालीन दुवै रूपमा तयार गर्न सकिन्छ । IQEA को पहिलो बुँदा नै दृष्टि (Vision) को रूपमा लिन सकिने मत Hopkins et al (1998) ले उल्लेख गरेका छन् ।

अल्पकालीन तथा दीर्घकालीन दृष्टिकोणमा के-कस्ता लक्ष्यहरू हासिल गर्न खोजिएको हो सोसमेत उल्लेख गर्नुपर्छ । यही दृष्टिकोणलाई पूरा गर्नका साथै उल्लिखित लक्ष्यहरू हासिल गर्न विभिन्न कार्यक्रम, कार्यनीति तथा उपायहरूको तय गर्नुपर्छ । यस्ता कार्यक्रमहरूमध्ये कतिपय कार्यक्रमहरू कार्यान्वयन गर्न भने बजेटको आवश्यकता नपर्ने हुन सक्छ । बजेट आवश्यक पर्ने कार्यक्रमहरूको लागत के-कति मात्रामा लाग्ने हो, सोको परिपूर्ति कहाँ र कुन शीर्षकबाट गरिने हो जस्ता पक्षहरूका बारेमा स्पष्ट दृष्टिकोण विकास गर्नुपर्छ । स्रोत प्राप्त गर्ने शीर्षक उल्लेख गर्दा यथासम्भव स्रोतप्रदान गर्ने निकाय वा व्यक्तिहरूसँगको आपसी भेटघाट, छलफल तथा अन्तरक्रियालाई महत्व दिनु आवश्यक हुन्छ ।

तय गरिएका कार्यक्रमहरूको प्रभावकारिता परीक्षण गर्न वस्तुपरक मापकहरू (Indicators) को विकास गर्नुपर्छ । यस्ता मापकहरूद्वारा कार्यक्रम अपेक्षित गतिदर्शक अगाडि बढेनबढेको र अपेक्षित प्रतिफल प्राप्त भएनभएको बारेमा पत्ता लगाउन सजिलो हुन्छ । यस प्रक्रियाले कार्यक्रम कार्यान्वयनमा देखिने विचलनलाई समयमा नै औल्याइदिने हुनाले कार्यान्वयन कर्ताहरू सचेत हुन्छन् ।

विद्यालयको विकास गर्न कार्यान्वयन गरिने जुनसुकै कार्यक्रमहरूको अनुगमन एवम् मूल्याङ्कन गर्ने कार्यमा समेत सरोकारवालाहरूलाई सरिक बनाउनुपर्छ । कार्यक्रम कार्यान्वयन एवम् अनुगमन गर्नका लागि जिम्मेवारीको बाँडफाँड गर्नुपर्छ र जिम्मेवारी पूरा गरेनगरेका बारेमा आपसी छलफल गरी निष्कर्ष निकाल्नुपर्छ । यसबाट कार्यक्रम एवम् कार्यान्वयनप्रति स्वामित्वको भावनाको विकास हुन जान्छ ।

उल्लिखित कार्यहरू सुरु गर्नुभन्दा अगाडि विद्यालयका सरोकारवालाहरूको सहमतिमा विद्यालय आचार संहिता तयार गरी त्यसलाई कार्यान्वयन गर्ने प्रतिबद्धता जनाउनुपर्छ । तत्पश्चात् सुरु गरिएका विद्यालय विकासका कार्यहरू अभि प्रभावकारी बन्न सक्छन् ।

विद्यालय सुधार कार्यक्रम कार्यान्वयन पश्चात् प्राप्त हुने उपलब्धिहरू

विद्यालयको कार्यशैलीमा परिवर्तन गर्नुपर्ने मूल कारण निम्न बमोजिमका उपलब्धिहरू हासिल गर्नु नै हो भन्न सकिन्छ (Stoll and Mortimore ; MacGinn and Borden, 1995).

■ स्पष्ट दृष्टिकोण

विद्यालयको विकासका निम्ति सुमधुर भविष्यको परिकल्पना गरी आफ्ना सम्पूर्ण प्रयत्नहरू त्यसैतर्फ लक्षित गराई त्यसलाई यथार्थमा परिणत गराउन विद्यालयसँग स्पष्ट दृष्टिकोण रहेको हुन्छ ।

- **स्पष्ट उद्देश्य**
विद्यालयको विकासका निम्ति व्यावहारिक मापनयोग्य र साभ्मा उद्देश्य हुन्छन् । त्यसप्रति सम्बन्धित सरोकारवालाहरूबीच सहमति कायम भएको हुन्छ ।
- **रणनीति**
निर्धारण भएका उद्देश्यलाई प्रभावकारीरूपमा हासिल गर्न थप उपायहरूको निर्धारण गरिएको हुन्छ । विद्यालयका निम्ति आवश्यक सुविधाहरू उपलब्ध गराउने, पाठ्यक्रम र पाठ्यसामग्रीको सर्वोत्तम एवम् समुचित प्रयोग गर्न, शिक्षक विद्यार्थी र समुदायलाई समुचित रूपले परिचालन गर्न रणनीतिहरू अवलम्बन गरिएका हुन्छन् ।
- **जिम्मेवारी र कार्यक्षेत्रको विभाजन**
जिम्मेवारी तथा कार्यक्षेत्र स्पष्टरूपले विभाजन गरी विद्यालयले सबै निर्णयहरूमा सरोकारवालाहरूको सक्रिय सहभागिता जनाउने वातावरण तयार गर्छ । विकेन्द्रीकरणको मर्मअनुरूप अधिकार र कर्तव्य सम्बन्धमा सम्बद्ध पक्षलाई सचेत बनाई सोहीअनुसार परिपालन गरिएको हुन्छ ।
- **सरोकारवालाहरूको सहभागिता**
विद्यालयमा हुने निर्णय प्रक्रियामा सरोकारवालाहरूले सक्रियरूपमा सहभागी हुने अवसर पाउने वातावरण तयार गरिएको हुन्छ । अभिभावक तथा शिक्षकहरूका बीचको सम्बन्ध सहज एवम् सुमधुर भई एक अर्काप्रति सहयोगी हुन्छ । विद्यालय तथा समुदायका बीचमा प्रभावकारी सञ्चार सम्पर्कको व्यवस्था गरिएको हुन्छ । सरोकारवालाहरूले विद्यालयलाई सामुदायिक विकास केन्द्रको रूपमा मानेका हुन्छन् र विद्यालयले पनि सोहीअनुसारको व्यवहार प्रदर्शन गर्छ ।
- **सक्रिय सिकाइ**
विद्यार्थीहरूलाई सिकाइ कार्यमा कसरी सक्रिय गराउने तथा शिक्षकहरूको भूमिकालाई कसरी विद्यार्थीहरूको सहयोगीको रूपमा ल्याउने भन्ने बारेमा विद्यालय दत्तचित्त रहन्छ । शिक्षकको भूमिका विद्यार्थीहरूको सहयोगीको रूपमा रहन्छ । के, कहिले र कसरी सिक्ने भन्ने बारेमा शिक्षकहरूको निर्देशनमा विद्यार्थीहरू आफैं सक्रिय रहन्छन् । बालबालिकाहरूको अधिकार सम्बन्धमा सम्बद्ध पक्षहरू सचेत भई तद्अनुरूप बाल मनोवैज्ञानिक कार्यकलापहरूक प्रयोग पनि गरिएको हुन्छ ।
- **स्तरनिर्धारण**
आफ्ना क्रियाकलाप, व्यवहार र कार्य सम्पादनको स्पष्ट स्तर निर्धारण गरी शिक्षक, विद्यार्थी र व्यवस्थापन पक्षको कार्य सम्पादनको स्तर सरल किसिमबाट परिभाषित एवम् मापन गरिएको हुन्छ । स्तर निर्धारणपश्चात् आवश्यकतानुसार प्रोत्साहन, सुभाव तथा निर्देशन प्रदान गरिन्छ ।

- **स्रोत र साधनको परिचालन**
आवश्यक स्रोत र साधन उपलब्ध गर्ने र तिनको अधिकतम उपयोगद्वारा उच्चतम उपलब्धि हासिल गर्ने बारेमा विद्यालयहरू प्रयासरत रहेका हुन्छन् ।
- **सामूहिक नेतृत्व**
विद्यालय विकासका कार्यक्रमहरू सहज एवम् प्रभावकारी तरिकाबाट सम्पन्न गर्ने सामूहिक नेतृत्वको प्रयोग गरिएको हुन्छ ।
- **अनुगमन तथा मूल्याङ्कन**
वैज्ञानिक तरिकाद्वारा नियमित तथा आवधिक रूपमा अनुगमन तथा मूल्याङ्कन गर्ने गरिन्छ । यसबाट प्राप्त सुझावहरू आवश्यक छलफलपश्चात कार्यान्वयन गर्ने गरिन्छन् ।

विद्यालय सुधार कार्यक्रमलाई सफल एवम् प्रभावकारी बनाउन सम्बद्ध पक्षहरूले गर्नुपर्ने कार्यहरू :

विद्यालय सुधार कार्यक्रमलाई प्रभावकारी बनाउन केन्द्र, जिल्ला तथा स्रोतकेन्द्रस्तरबाट निम्नानुसार गर्नुपर्छ ।

१. केन्द्रले जिल्ला, जिल्लाले स्रोतकेन्द्र र स्रोतकेन्द्रहरूले विद्यालयहरूलाई विद्यालय विकासका कार्यक्रममा प्राविधिक सहयोग उपलब्ध गराउनुपर्छ ।
२. निश्चित ढाँचाका आधारमा तयार गरिएका विद्यालय सुधार योजनालाई आधार मानी गाउँ शिक्षा योजना/नगरस्तरीय शैक्षिक योजना निर्माण गरी त्यसलाई कार्यान्वयन गरिनुपर्छ ।
३. नियमित बजेटका अलावा गुणस्तरीय शिक्षा तथा व्यवस्थापकीय क्षमता सुदृढ गर्ने कार्यक्रम र बजेट निश्चित गर्ने प्रावधान र कार्यक्षमताका आधारमा विद्यालयलाई नै एकमुष्ट रूपमा निकास दिने प्रावधानको व्यवस्था मिलाउनुपर्छ ।
४. गा.वि.स./नगर क्षेत्रभित्र बालविकास, अनौपचारिक शिक्षा कार्यक्रम, विशेष शिक्षा कार्यक्रम, समुदाय परिचालन, बालिका शिक्षा, विशेष समूहका लागि शिक्षा, छात्रवृत्ति, पौष्टिक आहार, साक्षरता आदि जस्ता कार्यक्रम सञ्चालन गर्न साभेदारी कार्यक्रम विकास गरी उनीहरूलाई नै जिम्मा दिनु पर्छ ।
५. विद्यालयको भौतिक पूर्वाधार विकास गर्ने कार्यमा सम्बन्धित विद्यालय व्यवस्थापन समिति, समुदाय, गाउँ विकास समिति र नगरपालिकालाई जिम्मेवार बनाइनुपर्ने हुन्छ ।
६. भौतिक पूर्वाधारका लागि उपलब्ध हुने सरकारी सुविधा सम्बन्धित गा.वि.स. र न.पा.मा दिने र स्थानीयस्तरमा शैक्षिक विकास कार्यलाई प्रभावकारी बनाउन शैक्षिक कोष खडा गरी कोष सङ्कलन गर्नका लागि शैक्षिक करको प्रावधान लागू गर्ने सम्बन्धमा पनि आवश्यक नीति नियमको तर्जुमा गर्ने व्यवस्था मिलाउनुपर्छ ।

७. विद्यालय अनुगमन तथा निरीक्षणको हकमा सम्बन्धित सरोकारवालाहरू, वि.व्य.स., गा.वि.स. र जि.शि.का.को प्रतिनिधिको संयुक्त सहभागितामा कम्तिमा दुई महिनामा एकपटक बैठक बसी सोको समीक्षा गरेर कार्यान्वयन गरिनुपर्छ ।

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संक्षिप्त इतिहास

श्री ५ को सरकार शिक्षा मन्त्रालय अन्तर्गत २०५० श्रावण १ गते दूर शिक्षा केन्द्रको स्थापना भए पनि दूर शिक्षा पद्धतिको सुरुवात भने रेडियो शिक्षा शिक्षक तालिम आयोजनाको स्थापनासँगै वि. सं. २०३५ मा भएको हो । तत्कालीन अवस्थामा देशमा विद्यमान र नयाँ स्थापना हुने प्राथमिक विद्यालयहरूलाई आवश्यक पर्ने तालिम प्राप्त प्राथमिक शिक्षक क्याम्पसद्वारा संचालित कार्यक्रमबाट मात्र हुने स्थिति संभव नदेखी प्रवेशिका अनुत्तीर्ण प्राथमिक शिक्षकहरूलाई तालिम प्राप्त गराउने उद्देश्य लिएर अमेरिकी सरकारको सहयोगबाट वि.सं. २०३५ (१९७८) सालमा उक्त आयोजनाको स्थापना भएको थियो । प्राथमिक शिक्षकहरूका लागि तालिम संचालनका क्रममा उक्त आयोजनाबाट २०३७ भाद्र ४ गते पहिलोपटक रेडियोबाट तालिम कार्यक्रमको प्रसारण सुरुवात गरियो । रेडियो शिक्षा शिक्षक तालिम आयोजनाबाट २०३७ देखि २०४७ सम्म संचालित कार्यक्रमहरू निम्नानुसार भएको कुरा दूर शिक्षा केन्द्रको अभिलेखले देखाउँछ ।

(क) रेडियो शिक्षा शिक्षक तालिम आयोजना (प्रथम चरण)

प्राथमिक विद्यालयमा कार्यरत एस.एल्.सी. अनुत्तीर्ण शिक्षकहरूको पेसागत दक्षता अभिवृद्धि गर्ने उद्देश्य लिई २०३७ देखि २०४३ सम्म तेह्रथुम, रूपन्देही र कपिलवस्तु बाहेकका अधिराज्यका ७२ जिल्लामा संचालन भएको तालिम कार्यक्रममा जम्मा ६,४९२ जना सहभागीहरू सम्मिलित भएका थिए । उक्त तालिम कार्यक्रममा नेपाली, गणित, स्वास्थ्य, सामाजिक शिक्षा, शारीरिक शिक्षा, कला र शिक्षा जस्ता विषयहरू समावेश गरिएको थियो ।

(ख) रेडियो शिक्षा शिक्षक तालिम आयोजना (दोस्रो चरण)

प्राथमिक विद्यालयमा कार्यरत एस.एल्.सी. अनुत्तीर्ण शिक्षकहरूको शैक्षिक योग्यता अभिवृद्धि गर्ने उद्देश्य लिई २०४३ देखि २०४५ सम्म १० जिल्लामा संचालित अङ्ग्रेजी विषयको ट्युसन कार्यक्रममा ५०४ जना शिक्षकहरू सम्मिलित भएका थिए । विद्यालयको स्वीकृत पाठ्यक्रमानुरूप गणित, अङ्ग्रेजी, नेपाली र विज्ञान विषयमा रेडियो ट्युसन कार्यक्रम संचालन गर्ने उद्देश्य रहेको भए पनि अङ्ग्रेजी विषयको मात्र ट्युसन कार्यक्रम संचालन भएको थियो ।

(ग) आधारभूत शिक्षक तालिम कार्यक्रम

शिक्षाको गुणस्तर अभिवृद्धि गर्ने श्री ५ को सरकारको अठोटानुरूप प्राथमिक शिक्षकको न्यूनतम योग्यता एस.एल्.सी. निर्धारण गरेपछि रेडियो शिक्षा शिक्षक तालिम आयोजनाबाट सेवाकालीन शिक्षकहरूको पेसागत दक्षता अभिवृद्धि गर्न २०४५ आषाढ १२ गतेदेखि एस.एल्.सी.उत्तीर्ण तालिम अप्राप्त प्राथमिक शिक्षकहरूका लागि आधारभूत शिक्षक तालिम कार्यक्रम संचालन भएको थियो । २०४९ सम्म संचालन गरिएको उक्त १५० घण्टे आधारभूत तालिम कार्यक्रममा जम्मा ४८७१ जना शिक्षकहरू सफल भए ।

* शा.अ., दू.शि.के.

२०३७ देखि २०४९ सम्मको लक्ष्य तथा प्रगति

रेडियो शिक्षा शिक्षक तालिम आयोजनाबाट २०३७ देखि २०४३ सम्म संचालन गरिएको प्रवेशिका अनुत्तीर्ण सेवाकालीन प्राथमिक शिक्षक तालिममा जम्मा ६,४९२ जना, २०४३ देखि २०४५ सम्म संचालन गरिएको अङ्ग्रेजी ट्युसन कार्यक्रममा जम्मा ५०४ जना, र २०४५ देखि २०४९ सम्म संचालन गरिएको आधारभूत शिक्षक तालिम कार्यक्रममा ७,९९९ जना शिक्षकहरू सम्मिलित भएका थिए ।

रेडियो शिक्षा शिक्षक तालिम आयोजनाको ट्युसन कार्यक्रमको

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यस अध्ययन प्रतिवेदनको उपलब्धिहरू निम्न अनुसार उल्लेख गरिएको छ :

- आम शिक्षा (Mass education) का लागि रेडियो प्रभावकारी साधन भएको ।
- रेडियो प्रसारणका धेरैजसो पाठ राम्रो रहेका ।
- रेडियो पाठ प्रसारणको गति केही छिटो भएको ।
- शिक्षण सीपअन्तर्गत लेखाइ सीप रेडियोबाट प्रभावकारी नभएको ।
- पुराना शिक्षकहरूलाई भन्दा २१ देखि ४० वर्षका उमेर समूहका शिक्षकहरूका लागि यो बढी उपयोगी भएको ।
- १० वर्षभन्दा बढी शिक्षण गर्नेका लागि भन्दा १० वर्षभन्दा कम समय शिक्षणमा संलग्न शिक्षकहरूमा बढी उपयोगी भएको ।
- एस.एल.सी को परीक्षा नदिने भन्दा एस्.एल्.सी. को परीक्षा दिने शिक्षकहरूका लागि यो बढी प्रभावकारी भएको ।

केन्द्रको उद्देश्य र यस वर्षको कार्यक्रम

२०४६ को राजनीतिक परिवर्तनपछि स्थापना भएको दूर शिक्षा केन्द्रले अहिलेसम्म मूल रूपमा प्राथमिक शिक्षक तालिम कार्यक्रम संचालन गर्दै आएको छ । श्री ५ को सरकारको नीतिअनुरूप १० महिने प्राथमिक शिक्षक तालिम चार चरणमा पूरा गर्नुपर्ने व्यवस्था अनुसार प्रथम र चौथो चरण शैक्षिक जनशक्ति विकास केन्द्रअन्तर्गतका प्राथमिक शिक्षक तालिम केन्द्रमा Face- to- face mode बाट, दोस्रो र तेस्रो चरण दूर शिक्षा केन्द्र मार्फत Distance mode बाट संचालन हुने व्यवस्था रहेको छ । सोहीअनुरूप दूर शिक्षा केन्द्रबाट अधिराज्यभरका प्राथमिक विद्यालयमा कार्यरत शिक्षकहरूका लागि दोस्रो र तेस्रो चरणको सेवाकालीन तालिम संचालन हुँदै आएको छ ।

केन्द्रका उद्देश्य

- (क) विद्यालयमा अध्यापन गर्ने शिक्षकहरूलाई शिक्षण सिकाइसम्बन्धी आवश्यक ज्ञान तथा सीपप्रदान गरी गुणात्मक शिक्षामा सहयोग पुर्याउन तालिम प्रदान गर्नु ।
- (ख) समुदायलाई उपयोगी हुने विविध अनौपचारिक शैक्षिक कार्यक्रम प्रसारण गर्नु ।
- (ग) विद्यालयीय शिक्षा लगायत उच्च शिक्षालाई समेत सर्वसुलभ बनाउने कार्यमा सहयोग पुर्याउनु ।

आ.व. २०५८।०५९ को वार्षिक कार्यक्रम

यस केन्द्रबाट आ.व. २०५८।०५९ मा देहायका कार्यक्रमहरू संचालन गरिएको छ ।

(क) ३३० घण्टे प्राथमिक शिक्षक तालिम तेस्रोचरण

यो तालिम कार्यक्रम ५१ जिल्लाका प्राथमिक तहमा कार्यरत ७,००० जना शिक्षकहरूका लागि गत मंसिर ८ देखि फाल्गुण १३ गतेसम्म संचालन गरिएको थियो । उक्त कार्यक्रमको सम्पर्क कक्षा संचालन गर्न ५१ जिल्लामा ३१५ स्रोत केन्द्रमा गणित र नेपाली विषय समूहका ६३० स्रोत शिक्षकहरूको व्यवस्था गरिएको थियो । उक्त कार्यक्रमलाई प्रभावकारी रूपमा सञ्चालन गर्न प्रत्येक स्रोतकेन्द्रमा क्यासेटप्लेयर र क्यासेट चक्का पनि वितरण गरिएका थिए ।

उक्त कार्यक्रममा ७,००० जना शिक्षकहरूलाई ३३० घण्टे तेस्रोचरणको तालिम दिने लक्ष्य रहेकोमा जम्मा ७,३०० जना सहभागीहरू परीक्षामा सम्मिलित भएका छन् ।

(ख) ३३० घण्टे प्राथमिक शिक्षक तालिम दोस्रोचरण

२४ जिल्लाका २५०० जना प्राथमिक तहमा कार्यरत शिक्षकहरूलाई सेवाकालीन दोस्रोचरणको तालिम दिने लक्ष्य रहेको छ । सोहीअनुरूप उक्त कार्यक्रम गत फाल्गुण १४ गतेदेखि सुरु भई आगामी जेष्ठ १६ गतेसम्म संचालन हुनेछ । उक्त कार्यक्रमको सम्पर्क कक्षा संचालन गर्न २४ जिल्लामा १२६ स्रोत केन्द्र निर्धारण गरी अङ्ग्रेजी र विज्ञान विषय समूहका २५२ जना स्रोत शिक्षकहरूको पनि व्यवस्था गरिएको छ । कार्यक्रमलाई प्रभावकारी रूपमा सञ्चालन गर्न कार्यक्रमको प्रत्येक स्रोतकेन्द्रमा क्यासेटप्लेयर र क्यासेट चक्काहरू वितरण गरिएका छन् ।

(ग) अन्तर्क्रियात्मक रेडियो शिक्षण कार्यक्रम

उदयपुर, नुवाकोट कपिलवस्तु, दाङ र डडेल्धुरा गरी ५ जिल्लाका १४० विद्यालयमा कक्षा ५ को अङ्ग्रेजी र कक्षा ३ को गणित विषयका पाठ्यक्रम र पाठ्यपुस्तकबाट २५/२५ ओटा रेडियो पाठ तयार गरी अन्तर्क्रियात्मक रेडियो शिक्षण कार्यक्रम संचालन गरिएको छ । असोज ८ गतेदेखि राष्ट्रिय रेडियो प्रसारणमार्फत सञ्चालन गरिएको उक्त कार्यक्रम प्रत्येक हप्ता सोमबार र मंगलबार दिउँसो २:१५ देखि २:४५ बजेसम्म प्रसारण गरियो र सो कार्यक्रम चैत्र १३ गतेसम्म संचालन भएको थियो । उक्त कार्यक्रमको सम्पर्क कक्षा संचालन गर्न ५ जिल्लामा ३० ओटा स्रोत केन्द्रमा अङ्ग्रेजी र गणितका ६० जना स्रोत शिक्षकहरूको व्यवस्था पनि भएको थियो । युनिसेफको आर्थिक र प्राविधिक सहयोगमा संचालित उक्त अन्तर्क्रियात्मक रेडियो शिक्षक कार्यक्रममा कक्षा ३ का १,००० र कक्षा ५ का १,००० जना विद्यार्थीहरूको pre-test र post-test लिने कार्य सम्पन्न भएको छ ।

घ) शैक्षिक कार्यक्रम प्रसारण

यस केन्द्रले प्रत्येक हप्ताको सोमबार बेलुका ८:३० देखि ८:४५ बजेसम्म शिक्षासँग सम्बन्धित लेखरचना तथा शैक्षिक गतिविधिहरू समावेश गरी शैक्षिक कार्यक्रम प्रसारण गर्दै आएको छ ।

यस केन्द्रका कार्यक्रमको उपलब्धि

विभिन्न शैक्षिक संस्थाले गरेका दूर शिक्षासम्बन्धी अध्ययनको परिणाम निष्कर्ष र सुझावहरू निम्नानुसार छन् :

अन्तर्क्रियात्मक रेडियो शिक्षण कार्यक्रम (सेरिड, २००१)

निष्कर्षहरू

- कार्यक्रममा समावेश गरिएका गीत, खेल, समूह कार्य र अभिनय (Role-play) ले गर्दा विद्यार्थीहरूमा सिकने उत्सुकता बढ्न गएको छ ।
- कार्यक्रममा प्रयोग गरिएका शैक्षिक सामग्रीहरू विद्यार्थीहरू आफैँले संकलन गर्न सक्ने खालका भएकाले ती सामग्रीहरूको प्रयोग बढी प्रभावकारी भएको छ ।
- गणित पाठमा दैनिक आइपर्ने गणितीय समस्याहरूलाई समावेश गरिएकाले गणितीय अवधारणा बुझ्न सजिलो भएको छ ।
- अङ्ग्रेजी पाठमा सुन्ने, बोल्ने, शब्द उच्चारण गर्ने जस्ता क्रियाकलाप समावेश गरिएकाले परम्परागत शिक्षण क्रियाकलापभन्दा यस किसिमको शिक्षण बढी प्रभावकारी हुन गएको छ ।
- यस कार्यक्रमले रेडियोको माध्यमबाट शिक्षक र विद्यार्थीबीच अन्तर्क्रिया प्रदान गरेको छ ।

सुझावहरू

१. यस कार्यक्रमका रेडियो पाठहरू पाठ्यक्रममा आधारित भएकाले रेडियो पाठ पाठ्यपुस्तकमा आधारित हुनुपर्दछ ।
२. मूल्याङ्कनकर्ताहरूले अन्तर्क्रियात्मक कार्यक्रमको सुधारका लागि विस्तृत जानकारी प्रदान गर्नुपर्दछ ।
३. नियमित कक्षा संचालन गर्न अवरोध हुने भएकोले मूल्याङ्कनकर्ताको रूपमा प्र.अ.को मनोनयन गर्ने व्यवस्था हुनुहुँदैन ।
४. शिक्षकहरूको परिचयात्मक तालिम कार्यक्रमको समय बढाउनुपर्दछ ।
५. अन्तर्क्रियात्मक रेडियो शिक्षण कार्यक्रम संचालन गर्ने शिक्षकहरूलाई कार्यक्रमको अवधिभर सरुवा गरिनु हुन्न ।
६. कार्यक्रमको सम्पूर्ण पक्षलाई समेटने गरी शिक्षक निर्देशिका तयार गरी शिक्षकहरूलाई वितरण गर्ने व्यवस्था हुनुपर्दछ ।
७. प्रत्येकले बुझ्ने गरी रेडियो पाठहरू सरल भाषामा तयार हुनुपर्दछ ।

८. हाम्रो देशको सन्दर्भमा धेरै शिक्षक तथा बालबालिकाहरूले अङ्ग्रेजी भाषा सजिलैसँग सम्झन नसक्ने भएकाले अङ्ग्रेजी विषयका रेडियो पाठमा निर्देशनहरू नेपाली भाषामा दिने व्यवस्था हुनुपर्दछ ।
९. रेडियो पाठमा क्रियाकलाप गर्न दिएको समय कम भएकाले उक्त समय बढाइनुपर्दछ ।
१०. अन्तरक्रियात्मक रेडियो शिक्षण कार्यक्रमलाई पुनर्ताजगी तालिमको रूपमा संचालन गरिनुपर्दछ ।

नेपालको दूर शिक्षा तालिमको प्रभावकारिता (चिराग, २००१)

यस संस्थाले गरेको दूर शिक्षा तालिमको प्रभावकारिता अध्ययनका मुख्य उपलब्धिहरू निम्न रूपमा उल्लेख गरिएका छन् :

स्वाध्ययन सामग्री

१. अधिकांश (५४%) शिक्षकहरूले नियमितरूपमा स्वाध्ययन सामग्री पढ्ने गर्दैनन् भने ४३% शिक्षकहरूले परीक्षाको दृष्टिकोणले मात्र पढ्ने गरेको पाइयो । यसबाट शिक्षकहरूले गम्भीर रूपमा यो सामग्री अध्ययन नगरेको प्रस्ट हुन्छ ।
२. ९७% शिक्षकहरूले स्वाध्ययन सामग्री पाठ तयारी गर्न र शिक्षण सिकाइलाई प्रभावकारी बनाउन उपयोगी भएको विचार व्यक्त गरे भने अर्कातर्फ कक्षाअवलोकन गर्दा २०% शिक्षकहरूले मात्र पाठयोजना तयार गरेको देखियो । धेरैजसो शिक्षकहरूले स्वाध्ययन सामग्री पाठयोजनाका लागि सहयोगी भएको अनुभव गरेका छन् भने धेरै कम शिक्षकहरूले वास्तविक कक्षामा प्रयोग गर्ने गरेको पाइन्छ ।
३. अङ्ग्रेजी, शारीरिक शिक्षा र सिर्जनात्मक अभिव्यक्तिशील कला विषयमा बाहेक अन्य विषयमा धेरैजसो शिक्षकहरूले स्वाध्ययन सामग्री बुझ्ने गरेको पाइयो ।
४. ४५% शिक्षकहरूले स्वाध्ययन सामग्रीमा दिएका अभ्यासहरू कहिल्यै पनि नगरेको पाइयो भने दिएको अभ्यास पूरा गर्ने शिक्षकहरूको संख्या ३३% रहेको देखियो । शिक्षकहरूलाई अभ्यास गर्नका लागि सामग्रीहरू संकलन गर्नुपर्ने भएकाले धेरै जसो शिक्षकलाई कठिनाई परेको पाइयो ।

रेडियो प्रसारण

१. ७३% शिक्षकहरूले रेडियो नसुन्ने गरेको पाइयो । यसले गर्दा दूर शिक्षा केन्द्रको ८० पाठ प्रसारणको लागि खर्च हुने १.२ मिलियन रूपैयाँ राम्रोसँग उपयोग हुन सकेको छैन ।

२. रेडियो नसुन्ने शिक्षकहरूमध्ये ७४% ले समय उपयुक्त नभएको, २७% ले घरायसी कारणले गर्दा सुन्न नसकेको गुनासो पाइयो । यसबाट अहिलेको प्रसारण समय दिउँसो ५:३० देखि ६:०० बजे उपयुक्त नभएको पाइयो । कहिलेकाहिँ रेडियो प्रसारण स्पष्टसँग नसुनिने गरेको पाइयो । जसको कारण रेकर्डिङको गुणस्तरमा पनि भर पर्ने हुन्छ ।
३. रेडियो कलाकारको बोलाइको गति सहभागी शिक्षकहरूको विचारमा सुहाउँदो पाइयो ।
४. शिक्षकहरूको विचारमा उनीहरू रेडियो पाठ सारमा एकदम आधारित हुनुका साथै यसले रेडियो पाठ प्रसारणलाई प्रस्ट गरेको भन्ने पाइयो ।

सम्पर्क कक्षा

१. यद्यपि स्रोत व्यक्तिहरूले सम्पर्क कक्षाको क्रियाकलाप दूर शिक्षा केन्द्रले उपलब्ध गराएको निश्चित तालिका अनुसार नै गर्ने गरेको भए तापनि केही स्रोत व्यक्तिहरूले शिक्षकको इच्छा आँकाइका तथा शिक्षकको उपस्थिति समयको आधारमा पनि सम्पर्क कक्षा संचालन गर्ने गरेको पाइयो ।
२. शिक्षकहरूलाई प्रसारण र स्वाध्ययन सामग्री दुवैको विषयवस्तुमा प्रस्ट हुनका लागि सम्पर्क कक्षाको राम्रो उपलब्धि रहेको पाइयो भने ८६% शिक्षकहरूको विचारमा छलफल गर्ने, अर्न्तवार्ता गर्ने, अनुभव आदानप्रदान गर्ने र कक्षाशिक्षणको लागि व्यावहारिक क्रियाकलाप गर्ने अवसर प्रदान गर्नु नै सम्पर्क कक्षाको मुख्य उपलब्धि देखियो ।
३. केही जि.शि.अ. तथा विद्यालय निरीक्षकहरूले भने शिक्षकहरू स्रोत केन्द्रमा नियमित रूपमा उपस्थित हुन नसकेको विचार व्यक्त गरेको पाइयो ।

एकाई लागत

१. एकाई लागत तालिममा भर्ना भएको र तालिममा उत्तीर्ण भएको संख्याको आधारमा निकालिएको छ । २०५६/०५७ मा भर्ना भएको आधारमा प्रति शिक्षक रु.२,९५७ छ भने अर्को तर्फ उत्तीर्ण भएको आधारमा प्रति शिक्षक रु.३,०८२ रहेको पाइयो ।

शिक्षक दक्षता

१. दूर शिक्षा केन्द्रबाट तालिम लिएका २०% शिक्षकहरूले मात्र शिक्षणको लागि पाठयोजना तयार गरेको पाइयो ।
२. शिक्षकहरूको शिक्षण सिकाइ पक्ष सन्तोषजनक नै रहेको पाइयो ।
३. शिक्षकको विद्यार्थी मूल्याङ्कनको पक्ष उत्साहजनक छैन । धेरै कम शिक्षकहरूले मात्र कक्षा शिक्षणको समयमा विद्यार्थी मूल्याङ्कन गर्ने गरेको पाइयो ।

१. धेरैजसो सहभागी शिक्षकहरूले समयको कारणले रेडियो प्रसारण नसुन्ने भएकाले प्रसारणको समय परिवर्तन गरी दिउँसो १ बजेदेखि प्रसारण गर्ने व्यवस्था हुनु पर्दछ ।
२. धेरैजसो शिक्षकहरूले रेडियो प्रसारण नियमित रूपमा नसुन्ने गरेकाले दूर शिक्षा केन्द्रको लगानी अधिकतम मात्रामा उपयोग नभएकाले तालिम कार्यक्रमले रेडियो प्रसारणको लागि छुट्टाइएको समयभार कम गरिनुपर्दछ ।
३. प्रत्येक जिल्लामा १/१ ओटा अगुवा स्रोतकेन्द्र स्थापना गरी दूर शिक्षा केन्द्रले उक्त केन्द्रलाई सुविधायुक्त बनाउने र उक्त स्रोत केन्द्रले जिल्लाभरका अन्य स्रोत केन्द्रसँग समन्वय गर्ने व्यवस्था मिलाइनुपर्दछ ।
४. एउटा स्रोत शिक्षक धेरै विषयमा दक्ष नहुने भएकाले शारीरिक र सिर्जनात्मक अभिव्यक्तिशील कला विषयको लागि स्थानीय विशेषज्ञ वा विषय शिक्षकहरू मार्फत सम्पर्क कक्षा संचालन गर्ने व्यवस्था हुनुपर्दछ ।
५. शिक्षकहरूले अङ्ग्रेजी विषयका रेडियो पाठहरू राम्रोसँग सम्झन नसक्ने भएकाले रेडियो पाठहरू सरल अङ्ग्रेजी र नेपालीमा प्रस्तुत गर्नु पर्दछ । त्यसै गरी रेडियो कलाकारको बोलीको गति केही कम गर्नुपर्दछ ।
६. सहभागी शिक्षकहरू स्रोत केन्द्रमा संचालन हुने सम्पर्क कक्षामा नियमित रूपमा उपस्थित नहुने भएकाले कम्तीमा ९०% उपस्थित नहुने शिक्षकहरूलाई तालिमको बाह्य परीक्षामा समावेश नगर्ने व्यवस्था मिलाइनु पर्दछ । साथै स्रोत केन्द्रहरू सहभागीको लागि उपयुक्त स्थानमा निर्धारण गर्नु पर्दछ ।
७. सहभागीहरूको उत्प्रेरणा विना दूर शिक्षा कार्यक्रम सफल हुन नसक्ने भएकाले दूर शिक्षा केन्द्रले १० महिने पूर्व सेवाकालीन तालिम प्याकेज निरन्तर संचालन गर्नुपर्छ । यस कार्यक्रमको सफलताका लागि श्री ५ को सरकारले शिक्षण पेसामा प्रवेश गर्न उक्त १० महिने तालिमलाई अनिवार्य बनाएमा सहभागीहरू तालिमप्रति स्वयम् जिम्मेवारी बोध गर्दछन् ।

२०५० देखि २०५८ सम्मको वार्षिक लक्ष्य तथा प्रगति

आ.व.	तालिमको किसिम	जिल्ला	लक्ष्य	प्रगति	कैफियत
०५०१०५१	१५० घण्टे	१२		१,८३६	
०५११०५२	१५० घण्टे	१४		१,४८८	
२०५२१०५३	१५० घण्टे	१९		८४४	
०५२१०५३	१८० घण्टे	२०		५,६९२	
०५३१०५४	३३० प्रथम	१०	२,०००	१,०८९	
०५४१०५५	३३० प्रथम	१०	२,०००	७५८	
०५४१०५५	३३० दोस्रो	१०	२,०००	९४४	
०५५१०५६	३३० दोस्रो	४९	१०,०००	८,५५४	
०५६१०५७	३३० तेस्रो	४७	१०,०००	१०,५५६	
०५७१०५८	३३० दोस्रो	५१	१०,०००	८,४१८	

Seventh Amendment of the Education Act-1971

An Assessment

Dr. Kedar N. Shrestha *

The Genesis

Recently, the Ministry of Education and Sports (MOES) has made serious attempt to incorporate some amendments in the existing Education Act, 1971. Both houses of the parliament have unanimously approved the amendment in the summer sessions of 2001. The government has hurriedly sought this amendment to solve some of the following critical problems.

- Some organized student groups demanded that secondary schools should not be allowed to raise any kind of fees from the students. When the government has a declared policy of free secondary education the government should fully finance the public schools. Terror tactics have been applied by these students to the school management which raised the fees from students because the government is not providing adequate financial resources to the schools.
- Private education system has been a state of total haywire, Parents continued complaining the high fees of the private schools. Private school organizations continued to plead for personal ownership of school property. The existing Education Regulations have failed to regularize the fee structure for the private schools. No mechanism existed to regulate the financial anarchy in the private school system. Again some organized student groups forced the private schools to close down. Most of the private schools outside the Kathmandu valley were closed. Attempts of the MOES to negotiate with the demanding students failed to come to the agreed conclusion. There was vandalism in Private schools resulting in damages to school property. There was an urgent need to break this impasse.

Besides these two urgent problems, the government was facing the major problem of rapidly deteriorating standard of instruction in the public schools. The achievement level of students in public school was so low that the system has almost lost its credibility as educational institutions. Because of the comparatively higher level of performance of students of private schools parents who can afford to pay fees, started admitting their children in the private school. Private schools grew fast during the 1000's to accommodate the exodus of students from public schools. Two types of schools existed in the country, one for the poor and the other for the non-poor. Educationists, sociologists and even politicians pointed out the far teaching damaging consequences on the society because of the discriminatory education system based on the financial standing of the parents. The only solution is the improvement of the quality of education in the public schools and reducing the cost of private schools.

Quite a few studies have pointed out several reasons for the deterioration of the quality of instruction in public schools. Some such reasons are related to the

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management efficiency and other reasons are related to the inadequate financing. There are large number of schools which face no financial problems. But the quality of such schools also has been found deplorable poor.

These public schools are deficient on all the indicators of efficiency like teacher and student regularity, teachers' time on task, appropriate continuous assessment system, etc.

There are other reasons that account for the poor performance of the public schools. The government has failed to provide adequate number of teachers with appropriate qualification. The HMG/N school management has not been sensitive to the problems of public schools. In addition, inadequate finance in rural schools has remained a determining factor for the poor performance of the public schools.

Assumptions of the Seventh Amendment

The Seventh Amendment of the Education Act was drafted on the basis of some of the following assumptions:

- School communities have disowned the public schools. In general, they feel that public schools are owned by the government. If measures are taken to revive the sense of community relationship to schools, the level of community participation in terms of financial assistance and regular supervision can be revived eventually resulting in the raised quality of instruction.
- Parents are the main stakeholders of schools and they are the ones who have the natural interest in the school operation. Their actual involvement would raise the management efficiency at the school level.
- Teachers, in general, have felt neglected in the decision making process in all aspects of school operation. This is one reason why teachers have remained apathetic towards the operation of schools. If teachers are recognized as potential stakeholders of the education system, they will feel more accountable to their profession.
- Teachers unions have so far been operating as labour unions, and they make their presence felt by forwarding never ending demands to the government. They have hardly unionized as professional groups. Now teachers have also received almost all the benefits of the government service. They would certainly work as professionals if they are provided with the professional challenges.
- Interests of political parties have played significant role in the teacher recruitment and the relaxation of legal training requirements for the teacher during the past decade. This behavior of the political leaders can be checked only by a strong regulation in the form of a Act of Parliament. Once such a system is put in place, the teachers themselves would be attracted towards the professional trainings. This will lead to raised dignity of teaching profession.

Private School Education

- Though quite a large proportions of private schools have social service as their guiding motives, quite a large number of private schools have also been established on commercial

motives. A mixture of these two kinds of private schools have created confusion in the management of private schools. If the government clearly stated its policy on private schools, such schools could share a sizable burden of school education from the government without disrupting the basic educational policy of the government. They will also provide visible contribution to the education system by providing quality education.

- In general, rural schools of remote districts would continue to face resource shortage. Equity in terms of providing quality education in remote areas will remain unachieved because of the resource shortage. Appropriation of some funds from the profit of the private schools to the public school may help achieve the equity goal.

Strategic Items in the Amendment

1. Change of the Name of Schools

- a. The current name of "Public" school has been changed to "Community" school.

Possible outcome

As the word "Public" has a connotation of a government institution, "Community" will definitely take the school closer to the community. However, the change of name can only create a favourable atmosphere to generate the feeling of community ownership of school. It will not activate the community to fully participate in school affairs. Additional interventions in the form of regulations should be incorporated to empower the community to take decisions on some aspects of school management.

- b. The current name of "Private" school has been changed to "Institutionalized" school.

Possible outcome

The word "Private" has given rise to the understanding that private schools can be the private property of the individuals. The replacement of the word "Private" by "Institutionalized" clearly indicates that schools along with their assets cannot be the property of an individual. This may result in the closure of quite a few existing schools. People interested in profit motive may be discouraged to establish new institutionalized school.

2. Change in the Composition of the District Education Committee (DEC)

Status of DEC Operation

District Education Committee was established by the Education Act of 1971 as a strong mechanism to implement the National Education System Plan (NESP). It was a strong and indispensable district level education committee because of the following reasons.

- NESP, 1971 abolished the individual standing of the schools by abolishing individual School Management Committee of each school.
- NESP 1971 ended the system of schools as employers of teachers. The District Education Committees were made the employers of teachers.
- As NESP provided the system of paying 75 percent and 50 percent of the salary of lower- secondary and secondary teachers respectively, the District Education Committee was responsible to pay the fixed salary of teachers and the operational cost for school by regulating the student fees in each school. The District Education Committees played major role in managing school finances at the district level. In most cases, it subsidized the poor rural small school from the additional amount of money they raised from big urban schools.

3. Change in the Role and Perception of DEC

Major changes appeared in the operation of the DEC after restoration of democracy. The following are the major ones:

- **The Party Politics:** The District Development Committee (DDC) chairpersons are the ex-office chairpersons of District Education Committee (DEC). When DDC chairpersons were elected on political party lines, the DEC chairpersons also became political positions. The very operation of DEC was difficult when the DEC chairperson belonged to opposition party in the parliament. As most of the chairpersons of DEC belonged to the Nepali congress party, the nine-month CPM, UML government went to the extent of changing the position of the DEC chairperson by amending the Education Regulation. The CPM/UML amendment of Education Regulation provided that some reputed educationists could be the chairperson of the DEC.
- The party politics makes the operation of DEC difficult even today not only because of the party allegiance of the chairperson. DEC still invites the Member of Parliament (MP) in the DEC meeting. DEC meetings are convened very rarely by DEO's to avoid unpleasant incidents in the meetings. Parties invariably present different opinions on the issues of new school approval, special government grants to school in the form of teachers etc.
- After 1990, DEC's role as a planner and provider of education in district has shrunk considerably. Political consideration dominated its decision making process.
- **Decreased financial role:** When the government declared some sort of free secondary education, DEC virtually lost its role as a regulator of financial activities. All schools received full salary of teachers from the government treasury. Schools were allowed to raise some fees without the approval of DEC. DEC's role to raise additional financial resources was hardly played. In the absence of the financial role, DEC was even viewed by some as a superficial body.

Composition of District Education Committee

Before Amendment	As per Amendment
➤ District Development Committee -Chairperson	➤ District Development Committee -Chairperson
➤ Chief District Officer -Vice-Chairperson	➤ Chief District Officer - Member
➤ Local Development Officer -Member	➤ Secretary, District Development Committee -Member
➤ Three headteachers or teachers from secondary and Higher secondary schools nominated by RED on the recommendation of DEO -Member	➤ Four teachers representing primary, lower-secondary, secondary, higher secondary (One female teacher) nominated by DEC -Member
➤ One nominated by DEC from among those who served education -Member	➤ One SMC chairperson from community school nominated by DEC -Member
➤ One SMC chairperson nominated by DEC -Member	➤ One SMC chairperson from institutionalized school nominated by DEC -Member
➤ Four representatives of four recognized teachers' unions -Member	➤ One VEC chairperson nominated by DEC -Member
➤ DEO -Member-Secretary	➤ One educationist nominated by DEC -Member
	➤ One Chairperson of District Teacher Union -Member
	➤ District Education Officer Member-Secretary

The Seventh Amendment of the Act has brought about some of the following major changes in authority and responsibility of the DEC:

- The existing regulation authorizes the DEC to approve the district education plan. The Seventh Amendment has just authorized the DEC to prepare the District Education Plan.
- The existing regulation authorizes DEC to classify the existing schools on the basis of the fixed criteria. But, the amended Act does not mention this authority of DEC which must have been mentioned, because, the new Act has stated that existing schools will be classified.
- The authority of the DEC to increase or decrease the grant-in-aid to the schools provided by the existing regulation has been removed by the amended Act.
- The authority of the DEC to distribute and adjust the approved teachers' positions has been retained by the amended Act.
- The Seventh amendment has authorized the DEC to fix the remuneration of those auditors who audit school account.

Expected Operation of DEC after the Amendment

The Seventh Amendment has not made any departure in their expectations from the DEC. The changes in the composition of the membership of the DEC are not going to make any difference. HMG/N, however, can make DEC an effective and useful institution if some of the following authorities and responsibilities are provided to DEC.

- HMG/N should provide some sizable amount of money as block grant to DEC which they can use on the basis of the criteria provided by the MOES.

- DEC should continue to possess the authority to locate and relocate school based on scientific school mapping.
- HMG/N / MOES should raise the capacity of educational planning at district level and should adopt the policy of allocating funds to DEC on the basis of the approved district education plan.
- As nearly 60 percent of the DEC membership is from the groups that are directly related to education, DEC can be a very useful forum to discuss on the issues and problems of education at district level.

Composition, Authorities and Responsibilities of School Management Committees

For the first time in the history of Educational Act and Regulation, HMG/N has included the composition, authorities and responsibilities of School Management Committees in the Education Act. Such SMC provisions have always been included in the educational regulation. As there has been very frequent changes in the SMC composition during the past ten years of party government, the stability of management at school level has been visibly hampered. This measure to include SMC related items in Education Act might have been an attempt to create some stability in the school level management.

There has been some significant change in the composition of the SMC's for community schools. In the case of private / institutionalized school, no significant change has been introduced. Before the 7th amendment of the education Act, SMC for pre-primary and primary school has seven members and lower-secondary and secondary has nine members SMC. The 7th amendment has provided nine member SMC for primary, lower-secondary and secondary schools.

Authorities and Responsibilities of SMC

The existing Education Regulation has included 28 items in the clause which describes the authority and responsibility of the SMC. The nine items are the list of responsibilities. Similarly, out of 28 items listed in Education Regulation, 4 items denote authority. The rest is the list of responsibilities. Because of the nature of authority and responsibility, DEO's ignored the formulation of SMCs. The head teachers also kept SMC in low profile because schools could operate without a SMC. The chairpersons and members of SMC also remained inactive because of the insignificant role given to them.

The amended Act also has made no provision to activate the SMCs. The new composition of SMC may mean nothing to the guardians and DEOs. The schools can still operate without SMCs. Even some useful authorities included in the Education Regulation have been removed in the Education Act. The SMCs could provide additional facilities to teachers if the school had resources. The SMCs could provide tuition-free facility to the needy students. The SMCs could take disciplinary action

against the head teacher with the prior approval of the DEOs. All these important authorities are missing in the amended education Act. At this state one can safely conclude the SMCs will not be able to contribute towards the improvement of the quality of instruction in the schools. The newly constituted SMCs will still remain apathetic towards the schools when they would know that they have no authority to take any decision that would be required to raise the efficiency of the school management.

Some rays of hope: The Seventh Amendment has included a clause which can have a far reaching influence on the total school operation system. The Seventh Amendment has authorized the school management to appoint teachers for the school from among the persons who possess teaching license. This heralds the revival of the days when SMCs were all-powerful in terms of staffing and staff personnel activities. This may mean that teachers thus appointed will be accountable to the schools which appoint them. However, there is a note of caution. Provision should be made to ensure that the SMC appointed teachers should enjoy all the perks and benefits which are provided to the existing permanent teachers.

Required Actions to Maintain Active School Management Committees

Formation of SMC in School

- The schools should have a record of all the guardians of the students and it should be updated every year.
- The schools must form the SMC within two months of the beginning of academic years (every two years).
- To ensure that SMCs are formed in time, provision should be made that the bank-account of the schools must be operated with SMC chairperson as one of the signatory.
- Schools without SMCs should not be provided the grants-in-aid of any kind.

Operation of SMC

- SMCs should be authorized to fix any kind of fees from the students within the general guidelines of the District Education Committees.
- SMCs should be authorized to provide all kinds of fee-relaxation scholarships to the students who deserve such scholarship within the financial resources of the schools.
- SMCs should be authorized to reward and punish the teachers as required.
- SMCs should be authorized to suspend the teachers and head teachers pending the final decision by DEO.
- SMCs should have authority to spend the resources of the schools (except the government-grants-in-aid) in school affairs.

The Private School Affairs

One of the major purposes of the Seventh Amendment was to solve the problem related to private school management. The existing Education Regulation has provided all powerful SMC for all private schools. But, the government management mechanism proved ineffective to manage the private schools. The Seventh Amendment of Education Act included important provisions to regulate the private schools. The first major item is to name "Institutionalized" to the "Private". When the Education Act with Seventh Amendment will complete all the process, persons willing to establish new schools will have to specify whether they would like to establish school under the "Education Trust" or "Company". The existing private schools also will have to apply to convert their schools either under "Education Trust" or "Company" within six months. However, the following types of private schools cannot be converted into company schools:

- Schools operated in government owned or public buildings.
- Schools with their buildings built in the government or public land.
- Schools operated in the buildings built in the land donated by an individual donor or institution.

Authority and Responsibility of the SMC of "Institutionalized" School.

The Seventh Amendment has provided nine items that specify the authority and responsibility of the SMC of the "Institutionalized" schools. But out of the nine items, the following eight are the responsibilities:

- Make use of the school resources to operate the school.
- Make the physical facilities available for the school.
- Make necessary arrangements for the security and maintenances of the physical facilities of the school.
- Strictly use the HMG/N curriculum and textbooks.
- Make use of reference materials approved by HMG/N, CDC.
- Appoint only those persons who have received teaching license from Teacher Service Commission.
- Pay the salary as per the salary scale fixed by the government.
- Obey the directions of HMG/N.

The only authority of the SMC is to take action against the teacher for behaviour relate to indiscipline.

A Critique on SMC Composition and SMC Authority

The composition of SMC of private schools as reflected in the existing Education Regulation does not favour an enterprising persons who wish to operate an effective school. Almost all members of the present SMC would not be favourably inclined to support the enterprise which can flourish or perish on the basis of their performance. That may be the reason why most private schools connive to survive in the

unfavourable situation. How can an enterprise function when nearly 70 percent of the board members would not have any stake in the success and failure of the school?

The Seventh Amendment of the Education Act almost continued the same unscientific composition of the SMC. How can a company run business enterprise with politicians, social workers, employees dominating the board of governors? The Act has given a wrong type of SMC for private (institutionalized) school. But, the Act does not provide any authority to this unscientifically composed School Management Committee. The founders and investors can use the SMCs as an ornamental body just to meet once a year in a parents' day or a school-founding day. The proposed amendment has not given any substantive authority to the School Management Committee. The SMC in private school is going to be just an appendix to the main governing body which will be the "Trustees" if it runs as a "Trust" or "Company Board of Directors" if it runs as a company. In fact, the name of School Management Committee should have been "School Assistance Committee" in the case of Trust schools or Company schools.

Private (Institutionalized) School Financing

The Seventh Amendment of the Education Act has totally excluded the problem of private school financing. May be it was a wise decision not to include anything related to private school financing. Once the decision to classify private schools into two categories, one can see the hidden decision on private school financing. The trust schools would not levy unnecessary high fees to students because the trustees would not directly benefit from the school profit. So, the trust schools would be comparatively cheaper than the Company Schools. But, there is a danger of gradual deterioration of quality in trust school, again mainly because of the absence of incentive among the trustees to improve the schools. The Company School will be expensive, and they deserve to be expensive. Parents have three options: (i) Community Schools, (ii) Trust Schools, (iii) Company Schools. If parents opt for Company School, it is their decision. The question of high fees in Company Schools becomes irrelevant. There should be no restrictions on the fee structures of Company School from the government. Company Schools cater to the educational expectations of those parents who would admit their children in school in India if such schools do not exist in Nepal.

The Seventh Amendment of the Education Act has provided that the trust schools will get the tax exemption in the registration fees in the purchase of land. This registration fee exemption can also be obtained by Company Schools if the purchases are made in the name of the school. This is an important benefit for all kinds of schools, and this may be an incentive for schools to buy property in the name of the schools.

Provision to Levy 1.5 Percent of the Income for Rural Education Development Fund

The Seventh Amendment has included a strange clause in the Education Act which make obligatory for the institutionalized schools to pay 1.5 percent of the school income to the Rural Education Development Fund. It looks, the decision to include such clause in the Act was done without adequate scrutiny of the merits and defects of this arrangement. One, it would not be relevant to levy such tax on institutionalized trust schools because such schools do not operate for profit. They operate for social service. Two, if this levy of 1.5 percent of the income from company schools is raised, the company schools will be more expensive because the company will have to raise the money from students. It may be so expensive that such schools may not be able to compete with schools in India in fee structure, and there may be boy exodus of Nepali students in India. Further, there is no rationale to levy 1.5 percent of the income because "income" may mean all the money raised from students, and schools may have to pay enormous amount for the fund for no rational reason. The governments spends billions of public money on public schools, almost 13 percent of the total government budget. If the government budget cannot help the rural schools with billions one cannot expect much if the Rural Education Development Fund managed by a government body would help the rural schools.

Requirement of Teaching License to Teach in Schools

The newly amended Education Act has included the requirement of possessing teaching license for all school teachers. It has stated that all working teachers would be provided a temporary license, and they would require to possess a permanent license within five years. Temporary teachers unable to receive permanent license will be terminated, and some sort of termination of service will occur even for the permanent teacher if they could not get the permanent license within the stipulated duration.

Positive outcome

- There has been repeated relaxation of training requirement for teachers to receive permanent tenure by the government during the past twelve years. As a result the number of untrained permanent teachers have increased during this period. The introduction of teacher licensing has brought a total full stop on the repeated decision to relax the training requirement. This will help government raise the percentage of trained teachers very quickly.
- After the introduction of Teaching License System, training will be attractive for teachers and they will be willing to invest on training by spending their own resources. The past practice of attracting teachers by paying allowances for attending training programs will probably end. Thus the per trainee cost for training will be highly reduced.

Possible Implications of the Teaching License System on the Training Program

Planning and Management: About 5,000 primary school teachers and about 16,000 lower-secondary and 10,000 secondary teachers will have to be provided permanent teaching license within five years. This is an enormous and challenging task for the government. The MOES has to plan and implement training program to execute the amended Education Act.

Training Program: MOES has a 10 month training package offered in four packages in nine Primary Teacher Training Centres and through Distance Education Program. When Teaching License System would be introduced, the strategies adopted by the Teacher Education Project (ADB, MOES agreement) would be irrelevant. More teachers will have to be trained within five years and teachers would need no financial incentive to join the training program. The Project to be implemented with ADB assistance will need through revision in the emerging new context.

MOES has a small one-month training program for the lower-secondary and secondary teachers. These programs were initiated by the Secondary Education Development Project. This one month training will have to be reviewed and revised to implement a ten-month training programs for about 20,000 thousand teachers.

The Licensing Strategies: The amendment of the Education Act has provided a very short time frame (Five Years) to provide teaching license to the thousands of permanent and temporary teachers. The MOES should devise strategies which would help the MOES to provide permanent teaching license to permanent teachers without distorting the spirit of introducing teaching license system. Some of the strategies can be as follows:

- Permanent teachers with 20 years of teaching experience and 50 years of age would require only one-month training to get permanent teaching license.
- Permanent teachers with 15 years of teaching experience and 45 years of age would require one-month residential training plus one-month school-based training to get a permanent license.

Similar strategies should be developed to provide quality teacher training to all the serving permanent teachers. There should, however, be no relaxations of training requirement for the temporary teachers irrespective of their years of service.

Village Education Committee

The establishment of the Village Education Committee is a very important contribution of the seventh amendment. A Village Education Committee has to be constituted in all Village Development Committees to look after and support the

education development within the village. The Village Education Committee consists of the following members.

- | | |
|---|----------------------|
| ➤ Chairperson or person designated to act as the chairperson of VDC | - Chairperson |
| ➤ One person nominated by DEC from among the chairpersons of the schools within the VDC | - Member |
| ➤ Two persons (one female) nominated by VEC from among the social workers | - Member |
| ➤ School supervisor of the area | - Member |
| ➤ Member of the DEC from the area of the VEC | - Member |
| ➤ A head teacher of the school of highest level (Primary, lower-secondary, secondary and highest) | - Member - Secretary |

Possible outcome

Most VDCs have more than one primary schools. There are schools which are located in wrong places. Again, there are primary schools which have more teachers than required, and there are primary schools which need more teachers for effective classroom teaching. The VEC should have the authority to correct these mistakes. About 20 years back, the Education Regulation had a clause which provided the provision to establish only one School Management Committee for several schools. That provision had some positive effect. But, that clause was removed for reasons unknown. The present Village Education Committee can be of great advantage for the effective operation of public schools if the following authority and responsibilities are provided:

- The VEC should have the authority to transfer the teaching position along with the teacher among the schools within the concerned VDC.
- The VEC should be authorized to change the location of school if that change is going to provide convenience to the children in terms of the distance for walking to schools.
- In the case where some schools do not have SMC for some reason, the VEC would automatically act as the SMC for that school.
- The VEC can create a school fund and raise funds for schools within this existing Acts and Regulations.
- The VEC must meet once in four months, and it should provide its report of schools to the DEC.
- The VEC, through its members, must make official observation visit to the schools at least twice a month and such visits should be recorded in the schools.
- The VEC should have authority to expend the resource they have collected without prior approval of any other agency.
- The VEC should have the authority to suspend the teachers on the recommendation of the concerned school SMC and inform the decision to DEO. In the case of the teachers appointed by SMC on their resource, the VEC should have the authority to hear the appeal of the teachers who are dismissed by the school SMC.

- The VEC should have the authority to reward the teachers in the form of non-recurrent lump-sum-grant.
- The VECs should be allowed to seek assistance from NGO's INGO's and government agencies.

It would have been quite useful if the provision of establishing Municipal Education Committee was made.

Some Provisions of Doubtful Utility

Membership of the Teacher Service Commission

The Seventh Amendment has included provision to change the qualification of the commission members and composition of the body which appoints the commission.

Assessment of the Change

The earlier (existing) provision has provided for a senior educationist to head the Teacher Service Commission (TSC). But the Committee which was authorized to appoint the chairman did not do the justices to the existing Act. The TSC appointing committee appointed a chairperson to the TSC who is neither a senior educationist, nor even senior bureaucrat. May be, as a reaction the seventh amendment has gone too far in recommending the qualification for the chairperson which reversed the previous spirit. The seventh amendment brought the following change.

- A candidate for the position of TSC chairperson should have at least served for 5 years in the special class position with a 15-years, experience in the field like law, administration or education. Fixation of 5 years experience in Special Class in HMG/N service is not only unnecessary and arbitrary, it may create a problem of not finding a suitable person who is willing to serve in this position.
- Teacher Service Commission performs mainly professional job of developing curriculum for external examination and conduct tests for candidates. It is more a professional task where professional competency and experience would be more suitable than a management experiences.
- It appears, the amendment has also suggested that other members also should come from bureaucratic cadre with 15 years of experiences in education, law or administration.
- In summary, one can state that it was an unnecessary amendment.

Clauses that Need Immediate Amendment

In the clause 11 (dha) on Teacher licensing, the following provision should be inserted:

- MOES will make provision of minimum training obligatory to all the teachers. The untrained permanent teachers will have to receive the training to become permanent. Permanent teachers will B.Ed. will be automatically provided permanent license.

- The 11 (dha) states that the amount of grants-in-aid will not be reduced for the schools from the present level of financial aid. This is a very faulty provision. This "wordings" of the clause mean that even if the school performs badly, or even if the school needs only 5 teachers instead of 10 teachers because of the decrease in the number of students, the government cannot reduce the amount of grants-in-aid to that school.

The clause 12 (ga) has provided for a committee for the management of the Fund for Rural Education Development. The following is the membership of the Committee.

- | | |
|---|--------------------|
| ➤ Secretary of the Ministry of Education and Sports | - Chairperson |
| ➤ Representative of Finance Ministry | - Member |
| ➤ Representative of Ministry of Local Development | - Member |
| ➤ Joint Secretary, Education Adm. Division, MOES | - Member |
| ➤ Director General, Department of Education | - Member |
| ➤ Two chairpersons of the organizations of Institutionalized school | -Member |
| ➤ Chief of School Administration Section, MOES | - Member Secretary |

Observation on the Committee and its Functions

The basic purpose of the formation of the committee for the management of Fund for Rural Education Development is to assist the schools of rural remote areas. In the first place, this additional fund has a doubtful necessity at a situation when MOES has a huge amount of BPEP fund unspent. The donors would be more than happy if the government plans to spend for the development of education in rural areas. The MOES does not seem to put forward any program that would attract the attention of the donors. The only sensible way of spending this money is to build boarding school in remote areas so that students of that area can get good education near their homes.

Summary and Recommendations

Summary

The Seventh Amendment of the Education Act was theoretically influenced by two documents prepared for the MOES by two groups of task-force members. The first one is a document on the management of private schools prepared by a task-group headed by Dr. T.R. Khaniya. The second document was prepared by another high level committee composed under the conveynorship of Dr. Nirmal Panday. The amendments of the Act have some selected items of both the documents. The MOES has wisely excluded many details and wrong recommendations of these documents. The Seventh Amendment of the Education Act has included the following items that can solve some of the cancerous problems in education.

- Attempt is made to take the public schools back to the community who owned them once. MOES has to materialize it by providing authority to the School Management Committees.

- The question of individual ownership of private schools has been answered in clear terms. The country will have two types of private schools non-profit making private schools and private schools for profit.
- The Seventh Amendment has clarified in clear terms non-poor parents will have to share the cost of secondary education.
- The introduction of Teaching License has a potential to solve many quality-related problems of public schools. Teaching license system will help develop professionalism among teachers.
- The recognition of only one teachers' union by the government would discourage politicization of teachers. Party politics may have less influence in the teachers organization when they will not be allowed to organize on party lines.

Recommendations

- The amended act has not developed adequate authority to the School Management Committees. The Education Regulation should be revised to include personnel and financial authorities to the School Management Committees. The school head teachers should be authorized to evaluate the teachers.
- Private schools cannot provide quality in a controlled system. The less governed, the better private schools. Market mechanism will maintain the cost and benefit balance.
- A strong School Management Committee can provide equity and quality in public schools.
- The district teachers unions should be supported and professionally strengthened. A large amount of the resources on in-service training of teachers should be spent with adequate participation of the teachers unions.
- The teaching license system should be used as a professional program to promote the professional skill and attitude of teachers.

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Reaching the Unreached Through Distance Education Program

Prof. Khadga Man Shrestha*

The statistics report of the Ministry of Education and Sports (MOES), mentions 48% literacy rate in 1997. The Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) mentions that 57.6% people over six years of age are literate in 2000. This shows that more than 42% people are still illiterate. The statistics of the MOES also shows that the age group population from (6-10) is 29,60,062 which includes 14,44,833 female and 15,15,229 male in 1999. The total enrolment in the primary school from the grade (1-5) is 37,80,314 in which the girls include 1,61,133 (42.6%) and 21,68,981 boys. Compared to the age group population, greater number of boys and girls at the primary level indicates the enrolment of over age or underage at the primary level. Besides this, the statistics shows that many of the school going age children are out of school. The children of disadvantaged group and underprivileged group, termed as focus group, are deprived of education compared to the children of urban areas. The children of rural areas have no access to education. Compared to boys the percentage of girls going to schools is very low. Low participation of girls in schools is not simply an access issue. A number of factors including impoverishment and workload of girls, the low value given to female education by guardians, cultural taboos, ineffectiveness of demand stimulating measures and absence to role model as female teachers have contributed to the low participation of girls in schools.

The geographical features such as high mountains or mountain terrain, to go up and down, the roaring rivers, forest and wild animals block our students from going to school. They have remained as unreached segment of population. They do not have access to education.

Although Nepal is committed to Jomtein or Dakar declaration of Education for All, the national objective of providing basic and primary education or access to education for all has not been achieved.

If we see the annual increment trend of primary schools from 1990 to 1999 the number of primary schools were 17,842 (growth percentage 12.7 % in 1990, 21,102 in 1994 (growth percentage 4.4%) and it was 25,522 (growth percentage 6.9%) in 1999.

To see the annual growth trend of student in the last ten years at the primary level, in 1990 the total enrolment of student was 27,88,644 and girls enrolment was 10,03,810 (36.0%), in 1994. The total student enrolment was 31,91,614 in which girls

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enrolment was 12,58,353 (39.4%) and in 1999 the total student enrolment was 37,80,314 in which girls enrolment was 16,11,333 (42.6%).

To see the annual growth trend of teachers in the primary level in 1990, the total number of teachers was 71,213 (11.4% annual growth), the total number of trained teachers was 26,775 (5.8% annual growth) and percentage of trained teachers was 37.6 %.

In 1994, the total number of primary teachers was 81,544 (annual growth 2.5%), total number of trained teachers was 33,536 (annual growth rate 13.0%) and total percentage of trained teachers was 41.1 %. In 1999 the total number of teachers in the primary level was 99,382 (annual growth rate 81%), the total number of trained teachers was 44,221 (annual growth rate 3.6%) and the total trained teachers in the primary level was 44.5%

In 1990, the total female teacher at the primary level was 9,181, female teacher percentage 12.9%, female teacher trained 3,329, and female teacher trained percentage 36.3%. In 1994, the total number of female teachers at the primary level was 14,395, female teacher percentage 17.7, female teacher trained 5,026, and female teacher trained percentage was 34.9%. In the same way in 1999, the total female teachers at the primary level was 23,608, female teacher percentage 23.8%, female teacher trained 8,294, and female teacher trained percentage 35.1%.

The above data shows the rapid growth in the number of students, number of teachers, number of schools and percentage of trained teachers every five years. Compared to the growth in the number of schools, students and teachers, the percentage of trained teachers both male and female does not match and the training facilities are not adequate. The statistical data of MOES mentions that the total enrolment at primary level is 3.7 million and percentage of girls enrolment is 42.6% in 1999.

In this scenario 57.4% of the girls have no access to education. Girls belonging to disadvantaged group, backward communities and others are taken as focus group in the program like education for girls and women in BPEP-II. Even though there is a growth in the percentage of the trained female teacher 64.9% of the female teachers have remained untrained. The growing number of schools and students demand more trained teachers. The present training facilities are not adequate in view of the growth in the number of teachers and students as well as schools. In this regard the Distance Education Program (DEP) has a great role to play.

Radio Education Teacher Training Program for Primary School Teachers

In 1978 Radio Education Teacher Training Program for primary school teachers was started. In 1994, Distance Education Centre (DEC) was established with a view to

conduct well-prepared and effective programs on massive scale. The main objectives of DEC are-

1. To train the primary teachers through radio and other modes to make teaching /learning activities more effective
2. To broadcast useful non-formal education programs so that maximum number of people from different communities will get involved in education activities.
3. To conduct programs that will help make higher and school level education available to all and also to expose them to the wider education world.

Primary Teacher Training Program

The National Centre for Educational Development (NCED) and the Distance Education centre (DEC) seem to have been closely related in effective delivery of the training programs and standardization of teaching content. The NCED has designed primary teacher training program which includes a ten months teaching curriculum. It has divided into four packages each of 2.5 months duration. It includes a total of 1320 hours and divided into 330 hours per package. The NCED conducts 1st and 4th packages of 10 months teacher training. The first package consists of basic training with the allocation of 45 credit hours teaching on Education Foundation. The package I includes face-to-face training. Each package includes practice teaching of 35 credit hours. The module IV also includes face-to-face training.

The NCED provides national policy formulation regarding teacher training and co-ordinates, evaluates and undertakes research studies in this regard. Its objectives are to develop and manage in-service training programs for educational managers and experts and to provide accreditation, recognition of in-service teacher training programs conducted by various institutions.

Primary Teacher Training Centres (PTTCs) - Under NCED nine teacher training centres are in operation throughout the country. They are in Sunsari, Bhojpur, Kavre, Dhanusha, Bara, Tanahun, Rupandehi, Surkhet and Dipayal. The main functions of PTTCs are to prepare annual primary teacher training programs, conduct primary teacher training programs, distribute teacher training quotas to districts, conduct examination of teacher training, conduct follow-up programs of teachers training and conduct trainers training. NCED also monitors and supervises private PTTCs. According to the statistics report of MOES, PTTCs have the training capacity of training 4,725 primary teachers in a year. The data of 1999 shows that the capacity of PTTCs is under-used. The full capacity of PTTCs has to be used in view of the backlog of untrained teachers.

The main agencies or institutions which impart primary teacher training are –

- a. Primary Teacher Training Centres (PTTCs)
- b. Private Teacher Training Centres

- c. Distance Education Centre
- d. Resource Centres (BPEP)
- e. Faculty of Education, Tribhuvan University and Kathmandu University.

The campuses of Faculty of Education, private institutions and higher secondary schools are expected to provide pre-service training as per NCED– developed packages and policies. The Faculty of Education T.U. however, seems to have been involved in training of trainees and development of the training packages.

If the present trend of training 4,725 primary teachers continues, it will take more than 10 years to train all the backlog of untrained teachers. Moreover, the new teachers will be augmented in the backlog every year. The target of appointing the trained teachers in all the primary schools will not be achieved. In order to achieve the target special program is desirable.

Distance Education Centre conducts 2nd and 3rd packages of 10 months teacher training. The statistics report of MOES mentions that 10,000 primary teachers were enrolled in the second package of training in the fiscal year 1998-99. In the year 1999-2000 these teachers were expected to complete the third package of training. The target of the fiscal year 2001-2002 was set as follows:

- a. DEC conducts 2nd and 3rd packages of training,
- b. 7,000 primary teachers of 51 districts are expected to enroll in the third package of training.
- c. 2,500 teachers of 24 districts are expected to enroll in the second package of training.

It is also mentioned that 315 resource centres were established and 630 resource teachers were assigned for the third package of training and for the second package 126 resource centres were established and 252 resource teachers were assigned for the second package of training.

DEC is also imparting Dual Audience Interactive Radio Instruction (DA-IRI) teacher training package. The delivery of the program was through audio-cassettes in grade III Math and grade V English as piloting and at present it is aired through Radio Nepal.

Five districts are selected for the conduction of Dual Audience Interactive Radio Instruction teacher training in the aforementioned subjects and grades. In the year 1999-2000 it was planned to assign two resource teacher for one resource centre. It was planned to replicate the same model in the year 2001-2002. The implementation of the program should be monitored and necessary feedback should be given. Successful implementation of this resource centre model will undoubtedly have good impact in the mountainous country like Nepal. The analysis of the program shows

that resource centres are involved in both recurrent and 2.5 months (330 hours) training.

Improved Educational Materials

The educational materials should deal with the technique to develop specific skills, attitudes and knowledge of teachers and students of primary schools based on the general objectives of the primary curriculum. The specific objectives should bridge the gap between general objectives and textbook materials and activities.

The educational materials should be self-directing for teachers and students. It should contain instructional guides for teachers, self-instructional tasks for students. Attention should be given to designing materials that will facilitate instruction and learning in classroom. Materials should also recognize multi-grade classroom whereas the students would be able to demonstrate a wide range of their abilities. It should be activity-oriented and students-centred. It should be well designed so as to include active student participation, giving immediate feedback to students on the correctness of responses and providing tasks appropriate examples for solution of the problems.

Instructional models could be developed to complement and enhance the materials in the textbooks. It should contain guidelines to the resource persons in using appropriate resource materials available locally. It should contain the ways and means of self-examining the knowledge and skills learnt from instructional model. Every model lesson should contain the main points discussed for self-comprehension. It should specify the minimum essential levels of skill and knowledge required for primary level. The checklist should be included in the module. The module should contain multimedia package for in-service teachers, which may include the use of radio, self-instructional modules involving face-to-face contact with experienced teacher, so that minimum training requirements may be fulfilled.

The Open University of Thailand has also been conducting distance education model in a large scale for open learning. Instruction is given in a modular way. Model lessons are imparted through radio instructional materials such as audio-cassettes and books are given to the students. Contact sessions are held in the schools. Tests are administered in the schools involving the school teachers. Thus, open learning facilities are provided to many people who do not have opportunity or facility of attending school or college.

The DEC in Nepal can be turned into a successful centre or agency for delivery of primary teacher training program. It can prove as an effective multimedia centre of education. Transmission of radio program in each and every part of the country has facilitated the people to get knowledge and skill through radio in their leisure. The electrical and electronic media has been applied as a part of higher secondary

education in India. Many higher secondary school students in major cities of India attend such classes and interact through computer. The rural students have no access to such programs whereas distance education imparted through radio is accessible to all. It has proved itself as an effective means of education. This media has provided means for reaching the unreached and access of education for all. The DEC, in spite of many constraints, is successfully conducting primary teachers training program in a distance education mode in resource centres by mobilizing experienced local teachers as resource teacher.

Basic and Primary Education Phase II (BPEP-II) program is being operated as a regular program. Now it is not an ad hoc program. In order to achieve the objective of Education for All (EFA), this program will certainly establish its credibility. The financing of this program in any way should not be stopped.

The technical capacity of the Distance Education Centre has to be strengthened. The program in operation such as the modules of primary teacher training and DA-IRI should be evaluated in a formative way. Standardized training modules with the involvement of specialists should be produced in greater number. NCED also should provide full support to this program. The Resource centres so created should be well furnished with equipment, instructional materials and other qualitative physical facilities. The Resource Persons (RPs) should have recurrent training, refresher training and easy access to resource materials.

The DEC should also maintain close liaison with Curriculum Development Centre. All the modules of recurrent training, in-service teacher training, pre-service training and training modules in different subjects to be taught at primary level should be produced in a qualitative manner. The distance education mode is also an effective means of non-formal education. It should be developed as a specialized agency in imparting quality education to the teachers, students as well as all other people who are keen in the development of quality education.

The DEC has to make four packages of ten months primary teacher training to be delivered effectively through distance mode. Trial and revision of the package should be a continuous process. Distance education materials such as audio-cassettes in different modules should be produced in a standardized way.

SACODiL - A Framework for Regional Cooperation

Dr. Hom Nath Bhattarai*

Introduction

SACODiL stands for SAARC Consortium of Open and Distance Learning. The origin that led to the development of this concept goes back to the 9th summit of SAARC held in Male, Maldives. At the meeting, the leaders of SAARC countries expressed their commitment to take steps towards eradication of illiteracy from the region. Subsequently, at the 10th submit of SAARC held in Colombo, Sri Lanka in July 1998, the following declaration (article 39-41) was made:

- The Heads of State or Government were in agreement that illiteracy was a major impediment to economic development and social emancipation and that the eradication of illiteracy in the Region including through cooperative endeavours within SAARC must continue to be pursued resolutely.
- The Heads of State or Government noted that the concepts of Open Learning and Distance Education could help substantially towards equal opportunities and access to knowledge. The Heads of State or Government directed that SAARC should build on the substantial expertise already existing in the Region in the field of open education, by establishing a SAARC Forum of Vice-Chancellors of Open Universities. This Forum, consisting of regional leaders in the field, should strengthen cooperation in areas such as the sharing and joint development of Programs, credit transfers for specific Programs and the translation of existing Programs.
- The Heads of State or Government urged the Forum, to spearhead the development of distance education outside the Open University System as well, drawing on the advances in Information Technology, to reach out to the remote and under privileged sections. They welcomed the offer of Sri Lanka to host a meeting of Vice-chancellors of SAARC open universities during the last quarter of 1998 to discuss the modalities for the establishment of the Forum and to draw up a Program to achieve the objectives identified by the Heads of State or Government. The Heads of State or Government requested the Forum to report to the Standing Committee on a continuous basis on its Programs.

In accordance with the above directives, the Open University of Sri Lanka took the initiative to hold the inaugural meeting of the "SAARC Forum of Vice-Chancellors of Open Universities". The meeting was held in Colombo, Sri Lanka on 25-27 January 1999. India, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Sri Lanka were represented by the

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Vice-Chancellors of the Open Universities. The other three countries of the SAARC do not yet have open universities and therefore were represented by concerned institutions. The Member-Secretary of the University Grants Commission and a joint secretary of the Ministry of Education represented Nepal in the meeting. The meeting not only deliberated on the possible areas of cooperation among SAARC countries, but also recommended to establish an organization under the umbrella of SAARC named as SAARC Consortium of Open and Distance Learning (SACODiL). In order to perform necessary works towards establishment of SACODiL, a Steering Committee was constituted comprising heads of delegation of each country as follows:

- Prof.M. Aminul Islam, VC, Bangladesh Open University, Bangladesh.
- Mr. R. N. Dorji, Head, Procurement & SLC Dept. of Education, Bhutan.
- Prof. A.W. Khan, VC, Indira Gandhi Open University, India.
- Dr. H. Hameed, Principal, College of Higher Education, Maldives
- Prof. Hom Nath Bhattarai, Member-Secretary, UGC, Nepal
- Dr. A.H. Siddiqui, VC, Allama Iqbal Open University, Pakistan
- Prof. N.R. Arthenayake, VC, Open University of Sri Lanka

Rationale

About half of the illiterate population of the world is said to live in South Asia. The adult literacy rate is about 48%, the lowest in the world. More than 40% of the children are said to be dropping out before reaching grade 5. In fact, major social problems are attributed to illiteracy. The traditional education system has been stretched to a limit by the population explosion, scarcity of resources and expansion of knowledge. It is in this context that open and distance learning are probably opted as viable options to meet this escalating need of education and training. Development of effective open and distance learning systems to provide quality education require various resources. For example, the use of rapidly emerging communication technologies is imperative to reach the remote areas. Resource capacity and capabilities are not evenly distributed in South Asian Region. Common approaches and policies, sharing of informations, material and facilities, pooling of resources and capacity for development of programs etc. can help to overcome the gap in the region. This would help to develop cost-effective programs and maximize the use of the available scarce resources. Regional cooperation in the field of open and distance learning would enable the member countries to provide more cost-effective educational opportunities to the larger segment of their population.

Main Objectives of SACODiL

The main objectives of SACODiL are to:

- Promote cooperation and collaboration among institutions imparting knowledge through open and distance learning within member states.

- Promote the use of open and distance learning as viable and cost-effective method of imparting quality education at all levels.
- Facilitate the uses of open and distance learning for eradication of illiteracy and poverty.

Areas of Cooperation

The meeting in Colombo focused the discussion on the four major areas of cooperation in open and distance learning. Four working papers were presented, one in each topic, and discussed in working groups. Final recommendations were approved through consensus in the concluding session. The four areas of cooperation are as follows:

1. Sharing of Resources

The following three specific areas were identified in respect of sharing of resources:

Sharing of Learning Materials

The learning materials may include print, audio-visual and electronic materials, textbooks, training manuals, curricula etc. Buying or borrowing materials from another institutions may sometimes be more economical in terms of time, effort and costs than developing the same programs a new. Such a mechanism would enable participating members to complement each other's efforts and benefit mutually.

Sharing of Expertise

South Asian nations have succeeded in producing high level manpower in many specialized fields. However they are not evenly distributed in the Region. The expertise may be viewed as a common resource and sharing of them would pave way for the provision of a wider variety of programs and courses. It would enable member states to learn from each other's experiences as for example in curriculum development, material development, training and research.

Sharing of Resources Related to Communication Technologies

There is a big gap in the level of development in the area of information technology in SAARC countries. Since information technologies are being used widely in open and distance learning systems, a sharing of IT-facilities would enable those nations who are at a relatively low level of development in this area.

2. Joint Development of Programs/Courses

There may be many programs/courses that are of common relevance to all the member states. The uneven distribution of the available expertise, resource capacity

and capabilities among the member states places serious limitations on individual development of programs and courses, thereby denying equal access to all sphere of knowledge. Pooling of the resources for development of programs/courses jointly can help to overcome the limitations posed by individual efforts and derive maximum benefit from the already available resources.

3. Sharing Information Technology in Delivering Programs

The application of rapidly growing information technologies (IT) in distance education is growing day by day. Two aspects of IT in distance education were considered: Hardware and Software. The hardware part consists of the Internet, Telecommunication Links, Local Area Networks, Computers, TV/Satellite Communications, Video-production etc. and the software part consist of Web-pages, Management Information Systems, Courseware etc. A mechanism is needed to be developed to share them for the mutual benefit of the member states.

4. Accreditation and Validation

Accreditation refers to giving a formal acceptance and approval to the standard, level and content of a course or program offered by an institution. If an institution is accredited by concerned bodies and the periods of study and examination of a particular program is recognized by another institution as equivalent to its own, then the amount of such study may be accumulated as credits. These credits may be transferred to the second institution and then the balance amount of credits required may be earned in the second institution in order to award a particular certificate, diploma or degree by the second institution. In order to deal with the problem of accreditation, validation and transfer of credits in institutions of the SAARC countries, there is a need to establish an Accreditation and Validation Body in regional level.

Implementation Strategy

The Standing Committee of SAARC at its 26th session endorsed the recommendations of the Colombo meeting for the establishment of SACODiL and directed the subcommittee to work keeping in mind a possible time frame of the year 2000 for operationalising SACODiL. Accordingly, the subcommittee met at the SAARC Secretariat on 28 – 29 August 2000 to finalise the proposal to be submitted to the Steering Committee.

The meeting of the Steering Committee of SACODiL was subsequently held at the SAARC Secretariat Kathmandu on 28-29 August 2000. The report of the subcommittee was considered and a final shape was given to it after some modifications. Thus a document titled "A Proposal for the Establishment of SAARC Consortium of Open and Distance Learning (SACODiL)" was submitted to the SAARC Secretariat for further actions.

The proposal submitted by the Steering Committee recommends that the following steps be taken to operationalise SACODiL:

1. The current Steering Committee continues in its present form to facilitate cooperation and collaboration in the area of open and distance learning among the member countries, keeping in view the directive of SAARC Standing Committee that the SACODiL be operationalised by the year 2000. The Director, Human Resources Development at the SAARC Secretariat be recognized as a Coordinating Officer till the approval of step 2.
2. SACODiL have a Board of Governors which will have responsibility for determining the principles, policies and priorities to guide the activities. Each member country will nominate one member to the Board. The members of the board would be either the Vice Chancellors of national open universities or Heads of major open and distance learning institutions or Heads of educational bodies as identified by the member states. The secretary general of SAARC or his/her nominee will also be a member of the Board. The Chairperson of the Board will be selected from among its members for two years, in rotation.

The Chairperson will be the Executive Head of SACODiL for two years and he/she will nominate a Secretary from his/her own organization to provide the necessary secretarial assistance. The cost of maintaining the secretariat will be borne by the concerned institution/organization.

A National Coordination Centre should be established in each institution/organization of the member state to which the member of the Board belongs.

3. SACODiL will have its own Secretariat in Kathmandu headed by an Executive Director. There will be a network of National Coordination Centres as the focal points in each country. It will have a Board of Governors each member of which is nominated by each country as in step 2. The Executive Director will be the Chief Executive Officer of SACODiL and will be responsible to the Board of Governors for the administration and operation of SACODiL, for the implementation of its policies and programs and for its financial management.

The number of staff needed in step 3 and the Budget estimate for five years are also included in the Proposal.

Present Status

The proposal was considered at the Standing Committee of SAARC in the context of the 11th summit held in Kathmandu from 4-6 January, 2002. The Standing Committee made the following recommendations:

The Standing Committee noted the proposal for establishment and operationalisation of SACODiL. The Committee emphasized that in view of the major financial implication for the member states, the second meeting of Vice-Chancellors/Heads of Concerned Educational Institutions review the proposal for its cost effective implementation.

The Council of Ministers endorsed the recommendations of the Standing Committee to convene the second meeting of Vice-Chancellors /Heads of concerned institutions to review the proposal for establishment and operationalisation of SACODiL.

It is hoped that the proposed meeting will be held soon to consider further actions.

Investment and Achievement in Primary Education

Dr. Tirth Raj Khaniya*

Background

My involvement in two major activities in education has led me to look into why even after making enormous efforts and investment in primary education in Nepal, it has not been possible to enhance the learning achievement of the students to the desired level. The first activity was my involvement in Basic and Primary Education Project (BPEP) as project director from 1992 to 1994 which was initiated both with the involvement of His Majesty's Government of Nepal and International funding agencies like the World Bank, DANIDA, UNICEF and JICA in order to bring about changes in the Nepalese primary education system. The BPEP which was implemented from 1992 to 1998 is said to have expended altogether 216.84 million US \$ (BPEP 1999) for the reform of primary education. This sector has been receiving external funds to continue the reform programs initiated before.

There have been remarkable improvements in reforming primary curriculum, introducing new textbooks, assessment system, recruiting teachers, establishing new schools, increasing participation of girls, providing short-term training for teachers, providing supports to teachers through a resource centre system, etc. There has also been improvement in the physical conditions of schools. However, there has been a concern among the professionals, government officials and donors about the delivery of quality education. It is the growing feeling that much remains to be done to provide quality education to all people. For that purpose, the Government has initiated new Programs under the auspicious of Department of Education to provide much reformed education in the coming years which will involve a huge amount of money. For a country like Nepal, given its socio-economic situation, the amount of money utilised in the reform of primary education is, of course, enormous.

As usual, the regular supervision mission and evaluation of the project is still going on as a routine work. Reports on the project's success are being prepared. General accounting of the disbursement is also taking place. Future plans based on the past performances are also developed. Nevertheless, performance auditing of the project is not taking place. Mere auditing the financial part of the development work does not give the real picture of the program. For getting the actual situation of the development projects it is necessary to carry out performance audit of the development activities. Absence of performance audit is not confined to BPEP, it is the case with all development works in education which have received external supports.

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Furthermore, more projects in education are being initiated without learning from the past. It appears that the success of the Ministry and the Country Resident Offices of the International Agencies are seen in light of the establishment of the new projects rather than on the successful implementation of those projects. The reason is that there is frequent changes in the management personnel who do not think that they are accountable for the tasks they initiated. They are not prepared to answer what happened and what could not happen during their time. They know that by the time the project is evaluated they would have taken another responsibility and the one who would enjoy the privilege of being there would just take an excuse for being new in the institution. This is how many of our development projects have suffered a lot mainly because there is no audit of performance. Furthermore, nobody believes that selection of a head of any institution is based on his/her professional qualification and skills in managing any institution. In absence of this, no one would take responsibility for the enhancement of the achievement levels of the learners. The pain that the initiator takes is not shared by those who later take responsibility for managing a program.

To make it more explicit, take an example of Higher Secondary Education Board. It is possible to compare how it was managed until some years ago and how it is being managed now. It is also possible to examine the institution's status in mobilising external funds. Three years ago, the Board received about 3.5 crore NRs' grant fund under the World Bank's scheme to develop future plans for 10+2 system including the design of a large scale project to be supported by the World Bank solely for Higher Secondary Education. Initially the project was for a year. When there was no successful implementation of the project, it was given an extension for another one year which is due to expire in September 2002. A large sum of the money is still unspent which is about to be taken back by the provider. There is no sign of taking any interest in using that money for the development of HSEB. Nobody takes an account of what would have been the future of HSEB if the money was expended according to the plan and what would be the future of HSEB when no future plan is developed. This is an institution where on the one hand the Government finds it difficult to increase even a small amount of money in the yearly budget allocation and on the other hand a huge amount of grant fund is very close to be taken back by the provider simply for not utilising it by the institution. The reason for this is that as there was a change in the Management leadership, the priority of the management was shifted to demonstrate a drama. It also lacked professional leadership. The development of the institution became less important for those who are presently responsible for leading its management. As the result of such inability to utilise the available fund, the institution may be jeopardised and it may invite chaos in the institutional system. Therefore, it is a high time that all the concerned people and authorities including the ministry of education be alert, and develop a proper plan and design practised programs as demanded by the situation.

Carrying out national assessment studies of primary school children was another activity I was involved in BPEP. The studies were a kind of evaluation of the extent to which the changes brought about in primary education were effective in improving the learning achievement of the students. For this purpose, national assessment studies were carried out in 1997, 1999 and 2001 gathering information about the achievement of the students from grades 3 and 5 in my leadership. The 1997 and 1999 studies were carried out to set benchmarks for the achievement of grades 3 and 5 students. The idea was that after setting the benchmark information about the performance levels of the students, it would be possible to measure the progress that the system has made since then.

There is a world-wide struggle for enhancing learning achievement of students. The World Conference on education for All in 1990 put emphasis on universal access to primary education. However, assessing the performance of different countries in 2000, the Dakar World Conference on Education For All shifted its emphasis from access to learning achievement (UNESCO, 2000). The worry was that children were found to have learnt not even a fraction of what they were supposed to learn after going to school for years. It was, therefore, realised that mere access to education would make little sense unless learning achievement was improved.

There has been a growing debate on what enhances learning achievement. For a long time, it used to be accepted that the school factor was the most important factor for learning skills and abilities. It was in that belief that several countries utilised internal and external funds to strengthen the school system of education. Nepal was also influenced by such ideas. Consequently, before and after the 1990's popular movement, the democratic government received adequate funds for educational development in primary education in particular and educational development in general. But the sole belief in school factor was broken down when Benjamin Bloom's Stability and Change in Human Characteristics in 1964 and Coleman et al's Equality of Educational Opportunity in 1966 were published. These publications led the general people to believe that for students' learning the school factor was not very important. What was even more important was the home factor (e.g. social structure, income, of parents, exposure to books, need for achievement, etc.) Gaining insights from International experiences, different countries started assessing their learning situations to identify the factors that play important roles in contributing to learning achievement.

In order to understand the progress in learning achievement, national assessment is emerging as a competent way. It examines the status of performance of students as well as how a system of education is functioning to lead students to achieve the goals set for them. A national assessment is defined as "Systematic, regular measures of learning achievement in a country that are designed to assist policy making" (Lockheed and Murphy 1996). National assessment is useful for policy-making decisions especially when decisions are to be made in relation to the optimum

utilisation of resources. In a country like Nepal where resources are scarce, it is always very useful to make decisions on where and how the limited resources should be utilised so that maximum benefits can be achieved. Countries like Chile, Egypt, Thailand and Colombia and some states in US have carried out national assessments to examine the actual health of the system of education (Murphy et.al. 1996).

It can be argued that the interventions in BPEP should be good enough to ensure effective delivery of quality primary education which eventually should have enhanced the learning achievement of our students. However, examining the achievement levels of our students, it was revealed that there was no substantial progress in their learning achievement. This is a challenging situation for both the government and donors. In this situation, one would argue whether or not we should continue making enormous investment in the reform of primary education when there is lack of evidence for the improvement in the learning achievement of the students. Studies of such a scale would also buzz an alarm for all those who are involved in the whole process of primary education development to review the adequacy of what has already been done. Perhaps it would be necessary to review especially the concentration made only on school factor when there is sufficient research evidence for the fact that home factor can play even more important role in enhancing the achievement levels of the students.

It is necessary to look into why the reform mechanism in primary education did not work. What is necessary to understand is whether there was something wrong with the design of the reform programs or there were problems in the implementation of those programs. In the process of finding reasonable explanations for these issues it is possible to get a new way out which could be more useful for reforming our present system of primary education. It could also be useful for designing projects in the future.

In this context, a brief presentation of the National Assessment of Grade 5 Students which was carried out in 1999 would be useful.

The Objectives

The study "National Assessment of Grade 5 Students" was carried out with the following objectives:

- Collect baseline information about the performance of grade 5 students in Nepali, mathematics and social studies,
- Establish national and regional levels of performance of grade 5 students in the above subjects,
- Determine the factors contributing to students' achievement, and

Theoretical Framework of the Study

The study adopted a framework congruent with a national assessment in terms of approach. By definition, a national assessment is carried out to examine the health of the system of education. The rationale is that this type of assessment should assess the quality of achievement of students based on the national curriculum covering the whole country. It is argued that a national assessment is useful for providing information to the policy makers so that they can make decisions on how the scarce resources of the country can be best utilised for better delivery of quality education. Furthermore, it is also useful for monitoring the system, helping teachers to gear their efforts towards making the classroom practices more learning-oriented, making teachers accountable for their jobs, making parents, teachers, administrators, policy makers, textbook writers etc. aware of the situation, and presenting the realistic standard of student achievement.

The study adopted criterion-referenced testing in terms of approach and performance-based tasks in terms of types of test items. The explanation is that the tests for the present study were designed to determine whether or not an individual student had learned specific skills and abilities as envisaged by the system of education. The skills and abilities incorporated by the national curriculum and the learning outcomes determined for grade 5 students were the criteria against which the performances of the students were compared with. So far as the type of test items is concerned, attempts were made to design tests that require the students to actually perform with knowledge, rather than merely recalling and recognising knowledge. From this point of view the tests were considered to be performance-based tasks.

Methodology

The study followed Ross (1997) for designing the national sample for data collection. The sampling approach based on Ross (1977) allows selecting at least 20 students from each centre of test administration. For this purpose the whole country was divided into 16 clusters for administering the instruments based on 5 development regions and 3 ecological belts, and the Kathmandu Valley as a separate cluster.

Two kinds of instruments were used for data collection; achievement tests in Nepali. Mathematics and Social Studies based on the learning outcomes and curriculum determined for grade 5 and questionnaires and school survey form involving several factors which possibly contribute to student achievement. Experienced subject specialists, testing experts, educationists and working teachers were involved in selecting contents for the tests, and developing test items from the whole universe of the learning outcomes. Rigorous exercises were carried out to ensure the adequate representation of the whole set of skills and abilities which the grade 5 students were expected to have learned. Questionnaires and school survey forms were also developed with the assistance of experts.

The instruments were administered to a representative sample of grade 5 students covering the whole country. The study involved the structure of the Ministry of Education to a reasonable extent. The secretary of education and higher level authorities were involved in approving the proposal and reviewing the final report at the centre, and district education officers and school supervisors were involved during the administration of the instruments. The purpose of doing that was to transfer skills and knowledge for institutional growth.

Altogether 3510 students from 20 districts (143 schools) representing 15 clusters took the tests. A number of 566 students, 533 parents and 408 subject teachers were interviewed. The answer sheets and the questionnaires were scored, and the data were processed using a SPSS statistical package. A total of 242 students from private schools in the Kathmandu cluster also took the tests but their performances were not included in the main body of the analysis.

Findings of the Study

The findings of the study are presented in two ways. What kind of improvement was achieved in creating the learning situation for the students by expending funds received from the external and internal resources will be discussed first. Then the status of the learning achievement of the students will be discussed. The idea is to examine why there was improvement in creating the learning situation but not in leading the students to enhance their learning achievement.

The Learning Situation

To have an understanding of the situation in which the teaching and learning of primary education was taking place, a summary of the information about the external factors involved in learning collected through questionnaires and school survey forms were found to be as follows:

The School Factor

Almost 50 percent of the sample schools were exclusively the primary schools. The rest were attached to either secondary or higher secondary schools. The number of days schools were open was less than the expected and cannot be considered to be adequate. There was no basic problem of space in primary schools. Most of the schools had, at least, pukka walls and roof. However, it also became apparent that the classroom situation was not conducive to learning as there were no adequate instructional materials, desks and benches. The prescribed textbooks and relevant materials like curriculum and the teacher's guide were available in most of the schools (86%).

The Parents Factor

It was revealed that most fathers were literate (mostly able to read and write) and a majority of mothers were illiterate. The majority was from agriculture background. As it was expected, most parents aspired for their children to go on to higher education. It was also revealed that not many parents felt comfortable to visit schools unless they were required to attend particular events. They themselves were not motivated to visit schools and make queries about the learning of their children.

The Student Factor

1864 girls and 1646 boys participated in the study. Most of them (two third) were from the rural areas. Almost two-third of the students had Nepali as their mother tongue. One-fourth of them had pre-primary education background. Almost all students had the prescribed textbooks with them. Students reported that they studied at home for 3 hours everyday. On an average, they did not have to walk for more than 15 minutes to get to their schools. A majority of them had to work at home.

The Teacher Factor

It was revealed that all the teachers teaching at primary level had, at least, the SLC level qualification. A majority of them had only SLC, and one third of the teachers had Intermediate level, and some of the teachers had even a Bachelor degree. Almost a half of the teachers had no training at all. Among the trained teachers, a majority of them had only 330 hours training. In classroom practice, their classroom performances were not supervised by the supervisors and resource persons in a significant way and no suggestions were given to them for further improvement.

Statistical Findings

The overall performance of students at national level was found to be as follows:

Overall Achievement of Students

Level of Analysis: National						
Subject	No. of Cases	Mean Score	S. D.	Maximum	Minimum	BLC
Mathematics	3510	27.25	17.08	90.00	0.00	36.60
Nepali	3510	51.46	15.85	88.00	1.00	90.00
Social Studies	3510	41.79	15.23	82.00	0.00	78.10

The performances of students were analysed also at regional and ecological levels, gender-wise and component-wise etc. On the whole, the performance of the western development region was found to be reasonably good, and the performance was not as expected in mathematics. The Terai region could not do well in Nepali but did better than other regions in mathematics. The Kathmandu cluster appeared to have done the best in comparison to other clusters. There was not much difference in the performance of students from rural and urban locations. It could be because, as it was observed, the schools selected for the data collection happened to be not far from the

urban areas. Gender-wise, the boys did better than the girls in mathematics but the girls did other way round in Nepali. Component-wise, mostly the students were able to do those items which required low-order skills and could do well which required higher order skills.

The same data were processed to look into the performance of the BPEP and non-BPEP districts. Though the results were not conclusive rather they were tentative, because the study was not designed specially to look into the difference, the non-BPEP districts were found to have done better than the BPEP districts. Further investigation is needed to draw definite conclusions regarding this issue.

As expected, students from private schools performed better than the students from public schools in all the subjects. Nevertheless, the performance of private schools, if seen in isolation, cannot be considered to be reasonably good. The competence level of the students of the private school was not to the satisfactory level.

Qualitative Analysis: Performance Category

The performance of the students was discussed also in qualitative terms.

Nepali

Students achieving up to 30% marks appeared to have achieved partial success in listening, reading and writing skills as envisaged by the curriculum. Related to these skills, they have got, to a reasonable extent, some mastery over functional grammar such as gender, number, honorific, preposition, etc.

In addition to the basic elements of functional grammar like gender, number, honorific, use of prepositions, to a satisfactory level, the students having achieved scores within the range of 31-50% were found to have acquired abilities to understand texts that can be answered in 4-5 words. They can describe any scene exposed earlier or a picture in 4-5 sentences forming a paragraph. They can read (loud and silent) simple texts. They also seemed to have learned vocabulary, word-meaning simple sentence construction, and word recognition to a desirable level.

In addition to the basic elements of functional grammar such as preposition, gender, number, and honorific, the students scoring within the score range of 51-75% appeared to have achieved expected level of success in the basic skills of language--listening, reading and writing. Examining those skills, it appears that they have achieved some mastery over listening comprehension, reading comprehension, paragraph writing, and basic structure of application writing. They also can construct short-sentence, correct incorrect sentences, make appropriate use of punctuation marks, identify words, and process meaning of words.

In addition, to have achieved the above skills and abilities in basic language skills and functional grammar, the students within the score range of 75% and above

appeared to have achieved reading and listening comprehension, paragraph writing, familiarity with letter writing for domestic and application purposes to a greater extent. Related to these texts, they have achieved reasonable mastery over functional grammar- gender, number, honorific, preposition, construction of short but correct independent sentences, appropriate use of punctuation marks, word construction, correction, vocabulary, etc.

Mathematics

The students' abilities in mathematics test under the four categories varied considerably. Students achieving up to 30% were able to write the greatest number comprising three digits, read bills, write the least number comprising three digits, write numbers up to eight digits in words, and estimate cube by observation, find out the difference between two numbers.

Students achieving scores within the range of 31-50% were able to calculate square root by factorization, find out cube and square of a given number and calculate the difference between them, write numbers up to eight digits, simplify numerical problems involving four mathematical operations, solve multiplication of metric system, find out the co-ordinate of the given point in a graph, classify triangles by observation and classify triangles on the basis of their sides.

Students achieving scores within the range of 51% -75% were able to substitute the value in the linear form algebraic expression, solve linear form equation, convert fraction into percentage, solve the problem of multiplication of decimal, measure the angles of the quadrilateral, convert word-problems of metric system of multiplication into mathematical form and solve them, convert word-problems of surface area into mathematical form and solve them, convert the fraction into the lowest term and convert word-problems into mathematical form and solve them by Unitary Method. The students scoring 76% and above were capable of solving problems competently in all the aspects of Arithmetic, Algebra and Geometry. These students had acquired applied knowledge in almost any component given in the learning outcomes. However, they were found incapable to find out the perimeter of the rectangle by using formula and solve word problems under addition, subtraction and multiplication of fraction.

Social Studies

There were only eight learning outcomes determined in a broad way in Social Studies. The performance of students under different performance categories were found as follows:

The students who scored up to 30% seemed to have some knowledge and skills of the various aspects related to myself, my family and neighbourhood, geographical study, civic awareness, social norms and values, social service and social

malpractice, geographical study and international understanding, peace and co-operation. They appeared to have very limited knowledge and skills in the specific areas of social studies

The students scoring within the range of 31-50% appeared to have understanding of their responsibility in society, familiarity with their religion and social customs, positive concept of the respect for elders, parents and teachers, the value of various languages including national language, the importance of social organisations and social welfare, the role of individuals and community in the society, of our historical kings, historical persons and their contribution, the geographical belts and northern and southern points of Nepal.

The students who scored between 51 - 75% appeared to have learned, in addition to the above students, the specific skills and abilities as their responsibilities in family, help their family members in the areas they can contribute, know the structure, ratio and function of the earth and value of water resources of Nepal, identify the northern and southern parts of Nepal and also plot map locating geographical belts.

The students who scored 76 and above appeared to have learned most of the skills and abilities envisaged by the curriculum.

Factors Contributing to Student Achievement

The factors like regularity in attendance, the days for school operation, no repetition of grade, use of additional learning materials, and availability of electricity at home were found to have positively contributed to student achievement. Other factors like class in operation, availability of all textbooks, expenditure per student, percentage of female teachers in Grade 5 were also found to have positive contributions to learning achievement.

Conclusions

It was found that the achievement status of the grade 5 students was much below the expected level. The main score of 27.25 in Nepali, 51.46 in Mathematics, and 41.79 in Social Studies cannot be accepted as satisfactory. It should therefore be accepted that despite enormous investment in primary education, there is a sign of progress in strengthening the infrastructure of educational facilities but not in the learning achievement of the students. It is necessary to learn from our past experience and the research studies carried out on different occasions so that our future initiatives make significant contributions to the enhancement of the learning achievement of our students. It should be noted that we have been investing money on the school factor. What is emerging as important factor for enhancing learning achievement to-day is the home factor. Perhaps our future initiatives should accept it as an essential component to be included.

Based on the above analysis, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. Appropriate classroom practices for learning are not taking place in primary education. The efforts made so far in improving educational delivery have reached, to a reasonable extent, the proximity of the classroom but they have not been fully utilised in classroom practices. Learning at desirable level is yet to happen.
2. The minimum level of expectations of the system of education determined under 30% cut-off is not enough for developing in them the necessary skills and abilities. International effective schools research suggest that the higher the expectations the greater the achievement. Even in this study, students achieving 50% score demonstrated that they had achieved the basic level of competence. There should be higher expectations of the system than is currently the case.
4. A sound formative evaluation system is necessary for helping students to learn more effectively. This system also helps teachers to trace out the weaknesses of the students and then provide remedial lessons. Introduction of continuous assessment system in a competent manner can be a way of achieving this.
5. Mere expansion of and access to education does not serve much if it is not accompanied by quality improvement.
6. The existing academic level of primary school teachers (SLC) has not been adequate for them to acquire the required competence level for providing quality education to the students. The contents of the courses that offered for Grade 5 students could be too difficult to handle for those teachers who have studied only up to SLC.
7. It is teachers who can make classrooms and schools effective. For that purpose, they need to be equipped with knowledge of the subject matter and pedagogic skills through a comprehensive teacher- training program. A majority of teachers was found to be untrained and even if some were trained but had a short period of training. It can be concluded that the teachers did not have sufficient knowledge and skills to perform the given task.
8. Reinforcing the factors that contribute to learning achievement leads to the success of the system.
9. Regular monitoring of teachers to make them accountable to their job will be contributory to raising educational quality. For that purpose, exploit the resource centres to their full extent under decentralised management. Lessons for management of schools could also be learnt from those private schools which demonstrate high level of performance.

10. Effective classroom practices are necessary for learning to take place. The supply of educational materials and development of physical facilities of schools are important for learning but leading those materials and facilities towards making classroom operation effective is even more important.
11. Mathematics is one of the most important subjects offered at primary level of education. This is also one of the three Rs which is considered to be the basics in primary education. The level of achievement of Grade 5 students in Mathematics, as was revealed by the present study, should be taken as a major concern by the country. A country cannot and should not ignore this fact. Unless special efforts are made towards this direction the situation cannot be improved.
12. Primary schools are functioning differently in varying situations. The situation cannot be improved only through the inputs provided under national programs. Local needs are becoming more prevalent.

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The Governance of Public Education in Nepal: Issues and Challenge

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Background

Educational reform has remained high on the list of the Government's priorities in recent years, especially after the restoration of democracy in 1990. The decade saw numerous commissions and committees, several plans and programs, and a couple of externally aided education projects for educational reform. This trend of forming more committees, producing more reports and preparing new projects continued to the end of last decade. The Government appears to be serious about improving education. Educational reform is now seen as part of a larger agenda of poverty alleviation and nation building.

The results of all these reform measures are disappointing, despite the fact that there has been no lack of effort. The country is now left with failing public schooling system, broken promises of quality education and empty dreams of school reform. Both achievement studies and results of public examinations are repeatedly showing poor performance of students. In the face of disappointing academic performance of children, the public has questioned not only the accountability of educational institutions but also the ability of educational planners, policy-makers, administrators and specialists, who are taking charge of managing education reform in Nepal. Several factors may explain the continued poor performance of the public education system, but one explanation relates to the existing practice of organization and governance of public education. The crisis that the public education system is experiencing is not simply an issue of declining test scores of Nepalese children, but one of management and governance. The purpose of the paper is to discuss the organizational and management issues that confront the public education system. The argument has been that public schools and institutions created to govern them, as they are organized and managed, are not capable of producing any visible outcomes. I would argue that more resources, more teacher training, more textbooks, or more revisions in education regulations will not bring about changes in the performance of public education. I will conclude by saying that nothing will repay national efforts in education more than building up appropriate organizational and management structures and practices at the institutional level.

The Management and Administration of Education in Nepal

Education management in Nepal, like many other developing countries, follows a pyramid mode, in which key policies, programs and logistics are formulated at the central level, organized into a set of councils, departments, divisions, and centres

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(Department of Education, Higher Secondary Council, Technical and Vocational Education Council, Non-formal Council, Secondary Education Development Centre, Curriculum Development Centre, Distance Education Centre, Non-formal Education Centre, National Centre for Educational Development, Planning Division, Educational Administration Division). The Ministry of Education and Sports (MOES) has the mandate for policy making. The DOE works through a network of 5 Regional Education Directorates (REDs) and 75 District Education Offices (DEOs) that are responsible for ensuring that central policies and programs communicated and implemented in the schools. Individual education institutions are managed by heads of institutions (e. g., head teachers, principals, or campus chiefs). The District Education Committees (DECs) and School Management Committees (SMCs) provide forums to local bodies, parents and others interested in education to be involved in educational decision-making.

Education is perhaps the largest public sector employer and absorbs a good size of government resources (around 15% of the total annual budget). The unprecedented expansion of the schooling system has resulted in the growth of a heavy bureaucracy, rise of new institutions, creation of new layers of administration, and compartmentalization.

Where does our Education System stand in terms of Indicators of Effective Management?

Throughout the educational reform literature produced during the last decade one will find the rhetoric of quality education. Almost every plan or commission report stresses that the level and effectiveness of inputs must be increased and the quality of teaching must be improved so as to increase the level of student learning. From this literature, we perhaps know where we should be heading. But, knowing where we are heading is one thing, knowing how to get there is another matter altogether. Every one knows the remedies needed to cure the illnesses of public schooling: more teacher training, more revision of textbooks, appointment of more supervisors and new brand of educational personnel like the Resource Persons or Master Teachers, more amendments in education regulations, etc. What is neglected is the fact that establishing managerial and institutional strength throughout the education system is essential to the success of these efforts. The simple fact is effective schools require effective school management.

For effective school management, it might seem relevant to focus on internal management and management in the outer environment which normally impinges on the school system. Adverse forces affecting the school system, unless averted with due measures, are most likely to jeopardize the internal environment of the schools.

David Chapman (1998) proposes a set of indicators of effective education management (Figure 1). The list is not comprehensive, however, it presents a sound

picture of what effective management looks like. Using the Chapman framework of effective management, one may examine the performance of educational management at all levels: the ministry, the region or the district and the school. On almost every count, the system of education management has a poor profile. One does not have to be a rocket scientist to understand the fact that neither level of educational management has delivered what it is supposed to deliver.

Figure 1: Indicators of Effective Management of an Education System

Indicators of effective system level management (ministry level)

Textbooks are produced in sufficient numbers and distributed to schools on time
Instructional supplies are delivered to schools on time
Supply of qualified teachers meets demand
Teachers are appropriately assigned and deployed to schools
Teachers salaries are paid on time
Schools have copies of the curriculum
Ministry knows location of schools throughout the country
Schools are appropriately located across the country
National plan is available which provides vision and focus for educational activities

Indicators of effective intermediate level management (regional and district levels)

Teachers are appropriately assigned/deployed to schools
School inspection occurs on appropriate and regular basis
Teachers receive instructional supervision
Questions from head teachers and teachers receive a timely response
Ministry information flows to schools in a timely way
School information is conveyed to ministry in a timely way
Staff development activities for school personnel are well designed and implemented

Indicators of effective school level management

Instructional supplies are ordered on time
Teachers come to school on time
Teacher absenteeism is low
School facilities are in good repair
Teachers have copies of the curriculum (and textbooks)
Teachers receive instructional supervision
School has a functioning PTA or School Management Committee or a Site Council
Parents know how their children are progressing in their studies

All indicators listed above suggest that today's schools are not qualitatively a better place in which to be, and better places of learning than they were twenty years ago. For the most part, the processes and methods of instruction in the public school classrooms of today are no different from what they used to be in the 1960's and 1970's, although thousands of teachers attend in-service and pre-service teacher training courses every year. Studies have reported a number of times that:(a) teachers

are appointed on the strength of their political affiliations rather than transparent, professional criteria; (b) unscheduled school closures, administration, and teacher and student absenteeism cause a lot of disruption in public school; (c) teachers are heavily involved in active politics; (d) teaching profession attracts only mediocre due to low rates of pay, low prestige, poor working conditions, lack of career opportunities, lack of training, and lack of monitoring and evaluation; (e) school conditions are often very difficult and are not conducive to learning; (f) schools seriously lack instructional resources to facilitate teaching-learning; (g) school heads are too weak and too incompetent to manage and lead the institution; (h) parents and local communities are too powerless to exert any pressure on teachers and schools; (i) schools are seldom visited by district level administrators and supervisors; and (j) school administrators and teachers are not accountable for providing effective education to students.

When schools do not look like schools, what else parents could choose to do? No wonder the public, especially the emerging middle class and the upper class elite has lost faith in the publicly managed institutions. The ones who do not trust the public system of education are the public school teachers themselves and those who are taking charge of public policy and school reform. Others are also equally affected. In recent years, we have witnessed a sort of mad race among parents to find places for their children in five star English boarding schools. One big push for privatization grows out of the increasing gap between what parents want and what government-aided schools can deliver. It should be noted that if the public loses its confidence in the school's capacity to produce desired results, chances are that the public school system as a whole might lose the required political support, and funding also might shrink swiftly.

How do Existing Organization and Management Approaches Contribute to Poor Performance of the Education System?

Conventional explanations of poor performance of our education system focus on inadequate resources in educational institutions. It has been the contention of this paper that continued poor performance of our educational institutions cannot be addressed through a 'top down' and 'more of the same' approach to educational reform. The bureaucratic, social and political context in which our education system operates is itself a fundamental barrier to developing and sustaining educational reform. Research has long shown that educational improvement thrives in a climate that guarantees flexibility, autonomy, extensive teacher input and commitment, parental involvement and local ownership at the site level. Existing approaches to school organization and governance tend to put an end to these essential conditions that are needed to develop and sustain effective institutions.

Educational management in Nepal is centralized, and public institutions are controlled by bureaucratic authority and administration. This means that the MOES

will take the overall responsibility of formulating plans and programs, allocating resources, and making all important decisions affecting a school and that these centrally formulated plans and programs will be implemented by the Ministry's regional and district level agents. This also means that management of schools will be taken out of the hands of local people, parents and teachers, and centred with the district and ministry. The responsibility for the success of the school is taken away from teachers, parents and head teachers. The school is seen as a distant government institution and teachers are seen as the employees of the distant employer, i.e., the MOES. In public system, typically, school administrators and teachers are accountable not to parents and students but to central and district level authorities. At times, school administrators and teachers seek protection from political parties.

Most recent literature on educational reform suggests that the individual school should become the basic unit of educational change. It should be recognized that learning process is essentially school-based and that there can be multiple ways of promoting learning in schools. One single reform package or innovation will not respond to the needs of all schools in the nation. Because local actions have a significant impact on children's learning, teachers, parents and local school professionals must begin to take responsibility for designing and implementing the school reform strategies for their schools within the overall context of national framework. Schools must have the ability and the autonomy to design and implement their own school improvement programs. The primary responsibility to develop a stimulating, supportive and creative environment needed to maximize student achievement should be left at the building level. If the change should occur at the site level for effective school reform, the school should have the primary responsibility to bring together a staff of professionals who could use their knowledge and experience to follow the best practices appropriate to their students to meet national goals. This implies that the selection of teachers and staff, teacher development strategies, curriculum materials and allocation of resources should be done at the site level in response to local needs and conditions.

The centralized, bureaucratic approach to educational management generally serves to undermine the school personnel's sense of authority over their own program. Bureaucratic control and interventions do not allow the professionals to exercise freedom to discharge their responsibilities optimally and effectively. Implicit in the notion of autonomy is the fact that professionals should be trusted and not constrained by any means while performing the roles in their professional jurisdiction. The process involved in the operation of bureaucratic organizations is often coercion, command, control and regulation. Professionals are likely to lose their efficiency in a bureaucratically-constrained organization where liberty to exercise professionalism is limited. As a matter of fact, mechanistic bureaucracy and professional freedom are incompatible.

Flexibility and autonomy in decision-making have been identified as correlates of school effectiveness. The authority of head teachers, school management committee members and parents is very limited in school level decision-making. A number of decisions, which are critically important for schools to function as autonomous and professional organizations and for teachers to act as independent professionals, rest on the central or district level, rather than on the school level (Figure 2). School head teachers are largely excluded from making decisions that affect their ability to improve student achievement. Curricula and other learning materials are developed centrally, and the diverse capacities and interests of schools are often ignored. Teacher personnel management (appointment, deployment, reward or punishment, evaluation and promotion) is based on the centrally framed guideline, leaving little choice for head teachers, parents and SMCs. Because personnel decisions have been taken away from the hands of head teachers, it undermines their ability to build and maintain an effective school environment. The dearth of authority at the school level is most prevalent in public schools rather than in the private schools. One head teacher puts the plight of a public secondary school in the following way:

'The head teacher cannot do anything to reward or punish teachers as his hands are tied. If the head teachers in public schools are given the authority of rewarding or punishing teachers like in private schools, the situation would be different' (Spotlight, July 9-15, 1999, p. 18).

Figure 2: Key Areas of Decision-making

Salaries and incentives

Setting salaries

Establishing incentives for teachers, students and administrative staff

Personnel decisions

Hiring and firing teachers

Hiring and firing the head teachers

Hiring and firing administrative personnel

Taking disciplinary action against non-performing teachers

Pedagogy

Determining class size

Designing the curriculum

Selecting textbooks

Defining educational plans and programs

Pedagogical supervision

Evaluating teachers

Training teachers

Maintenance and infrastructure

Maintaining the schools

Developing infrastructure projects

Administration

Setting goals for the school
Planning and preparing the school budget
Determining school hours
Setting the school calendar
Providing textbooks
Distributing textbooks
Accrediting new schools
Relations with teacher unions
Informing the community about school activities

Fullan (1982), after reviewing the school reform literature, concluded that educational reforms live or die by the success of their implementation at the school level. The effective schools and school improvement movements have consistently shown that in-school contextual factors are critical for effective student learning. Heneveld and Craig (1996), following a review of these two types of research studies, identified eighteen key factors that influence student outcomes. They have grouped the eighteen factors into four categories: supporting inputs from outside the school, enabling conditions, school climate and teaching learning process inside the school (Figure 3). Heneveld and Craig argue that all of these factors interact with each other and are themselves influenced by the context surrounding the school. It is their interactions and integration amongst them in a school that determines school's quality. A close look reveals that all these factors that determine a school's effectiveness are largely missing in our public schools.

Figure 3: Factors that Determine School Effectiveness

Supporting inputs	Enabling conditions	School climate	Teaching/learning process
1. Strong parent and community support 2. Effective support from the education system 3. Adequate material support 3.1 Frequent and appropriate teacher development activities 3.2 Sufficient textbooks and other materials 3.3 Adequate facilities	1. Effective leadership 2. A capable of teaching force 3. Flexibility and autonomy 4. High time in school	1. High expectations of students 2. Positive teacher attitudes 3. Order and discipline 4. Organized curriculum 5. Rewards and incentives	1. High learning time 2. Variety in teaching strategies 3. Frequent homework 4. Frequent student assessment and feedback

Conclusions

The paper has argued that the continued poor performance of the Nepalese public education system originates not from the lack of resources but from the systemic barriers that emanate from the existing structures and practices of educational organization and management. Responding to these challenges will require a fundamental restructuring of educational governance, especially of the way how schools are organized and managed and the way roles and responsibilities of head teachers, parents, school management committees and teachers are defined. It is high time to seek a departure from the existing centre or district-based model of educational management to that of a school-based model of management. This is not to suggest that the Ministry will have no role in a devolved system of educational management. To actualize the notion of school-based management, the government will have to remain very much in the driver's seat. But, the role of the government will change from that of a provider and manager to that of a facilitator and regulator.

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Evaluation System in Primary Education of Nepal: A Historical Perspectives

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Background

Evaluation plays a very significant role in improving education system. It is a means used not only for measuring the quality of education but also for making wise educational decisions. At the instructional level, evaluation identifies the strong and weak aspects of instructional activities and helps in making objective decisions. Evaluation, for example, recognises early enough when a pupil is endangered to fail and help to control pupil fail. Hence, the term evaluation covers a wide range of decision-making activities in education. But the term is synonymously used for examination in Nepal.

Examination, which is one of the several means of evaluation, is widely used means for the evaluation of students' learning in Nepal. Other means of evaluation are rarely used in schools and in higher education. Thus, our teaching at all levels of education is examination oriented. In schools, students are evaluated through terminal, half-yearly and annual examinations. Even in Kindergarten, children get used to examinations, something we won't find anywhere else in the world. These types of examinations have not only encouraged rote memorisation on the part of students but also have caused a high educational wastage in Nepal. This paper is a brief historical sketch of the efforts made towards the improvement of evaluation system in primary education of Nepal.

Evaluation System Before 1971

The Provision

Various suggestions and efforts were made in improving the system of evaluating the pupils' progress since 1940. The Education Ordinance published in 1940, with a view to make examination system more systematic and dependable was remarkable step of evaluation. It set the following regulations for the examination:

- a. Cumulative record of each student be kept and parents be briefed about it twice a year if possible;
- b. Assessment to be made twice a year;

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- c. Pupil failing for three consecutive years in the same grade to be dropped from school;
- d. Question papers and answer sheets of the yearly examination be kept intact until the next examination period; and
- e. Parents to be informed about the performance in the examination of their children.

Actual Practices

This ordinance, in essence, influenced the examination pattern for a long time. The pattern of examination, well up to 1971, consisted half-yearly and annual examination for all grades. Students were promoted or detained on the basis of performance in the final examination held near the termination of each academic year (NEC, 1985:40). However, during 1950s and 1960s two national level education commissions provided various suggestions in improving the evaluation system.

The Nepal National Education Planning Commission (NNEPC) formed in 1954, observed the prevailing school wasting human energy and values having many failures and dropouts. The reason, according to the commission, was undue emphasis given to the final examination even at the primary level. Thus, it recommended to make the evaluation as comprehensive as possible as to achieve objectives of education. The commission suggested to use observation, self-rating, performance and other devices of evaluation frequently with a view to help the pupils to improve. It stated:

“Evaluation must be continuous and record 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 traditional “final examination” as the teacher knows in advance whether the child has progressed with the average of his group” (NNEPC, 1956:103).

It has further suggested to issue a certificate indicating completion and in general the quality of work, and a recommendation regarding future schooling plan as determined by his strengths and weaknesses. Similarly, the All-Round National Education Committee (ARNEC) of 1961 recommended to make examination oral and action-oriented. On the basis of evaluation of knowledge, skill, and attitude on specific aspect, pupil is subjected to be promoted. But these suggestions could not come into actual practice until 1970. By and large, the progress of the pupil was determined by annual examination held at the end of each academic year. Hence, the National Education System Plan (NESP) for 1971-1976 commented “... the present examination system ... has encouraged a tendency of learning by rote ... (it) has not been able to make the true assessment of the capabilities of the students” (1971:5). It was only after the adoption of NESP in 1971 that a comprehensive evaluation system was put into effect.

Evaluation System During 1971-1991

The Provision

The NESP (1971) targeted to take the following steps to improve the evaluation (examination) system:

a. Provision for Internal Assessment

For continuous and comprehensive assessment, a new scheme of evaluation was implemented (See Table 1).

Table 1: Evaluation Scheme for Each Primary Grade and Subject

Means of evaluation	Frequency	Full Marks (%)
Quarterly Test	3	30
Observation of skills, attitude and class participation	Continuous	20
Final Comprehensive Test	1	50
Total		100

b. Provision of Recording System for Students' Progress

It was made compulsory to maintain a progress record of each student according to the above-mentioned scheme. Teachers were supposed to attach a copy of progress record while publishing the examination results. For convenience and proper use of internal assessment, Ministry of Education, Examination Sub-Section published internal assessment directive booklet for the use of teachers and the schools. This booklet included information about different means and uses of internal assessment and the types of forms each teacher and school was supposed to maintain about students' progress.

c. Provision of External Examination at the End of Each Level

At the end of primary education students were to be promoted on the basis of the examinations conducted by a team of district school inspectorate officials. Twenty-five percent weightage was also given to each grade progress of the first three grades in the level-wise examination.

d. Improvement of the Nature of Questions and Methods of Scoring

The plan stressed on devising scientific questions for providing objective grounds for assessing the achievement of students. The plan stated "Standardised tests will be developed for subjects that are amenable to such a procedure"(NESP, 1971:41).

Actual Practices

Right after the implementation of NESP efforts were made to execute the new evaluation scheme in the schools. But the use of internal assessment and comprehensive evaluation of students' progress could not take roots in the education

system. "During the early 1970s, primary school teachers developed and administered quarterly tests, and included participation in classroom activities, homework and performance in unit tests in evaluating pupil's progress. However, this practice was discontinued after few years" (BPE Master Plan, 1991:267-268). One main reason was that the teachers could not realise the feasibility and utility of internal assessment. Other major reasons were the lack of training and professional support to teachers, and inadequate fund to support evaluation and assessment activities.

Similarly, efforts made towards improving the nature of questions and methods of scoring as well as developing standardised test could not materialised during 1971-1991. As primary teachers had not received any training in the setting, marking and moderating of exam paper, they did not pay any attention to the reliability and content validity of the examination they prepared (BPE Master Plan 1991:268). As a result, the achievement levels of students in different subjects were not a true indication of their level of knowledge.

The system of district level examination at the end of the primary cycle continued during this period, but the proposed system of adding marks to each grade to the level wise examination did not continue. The practice of using results of examination in providing feedback for the teachers and the curriculum/textbook developers was almost non-existent.

Evaluation System Since 1992

The Provision

Considering the deficiencies in the prevailing student evaluation practices, the Primary Education Curriculum (PEC, 1992) proposed a continuous evaluation scheme similar to that proposed in the NESP. The PEC (1992) has proposed formal and informal evaluation system. It has also given stress on decentralising the student evaluation program and in communicating the progress made by students to teachers, guardians and school administration. In order to maintain level-wise qualitative, district level examination at the end of primary cycle is to be continued. The evaluation scheme as proposed by PEC (1992) is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Evaluation Scheme for Each Primary Grade and Subject

Means of evaluation	Frequency	Weightage in percentage
First Quarterly Test	1	10
Second Quarterly Test	1	30
Observations of skills and attitude	Continuous	No
Unit Test	At the end of each unit	No
Final Examination	1	60
Total		100

The PEC also mentioned the type of student evaluation report. According to the report each subject teacher has to prepare the standard of questions including promotion criteria. According to the proposed scheme, each subject teacher has to submit a student evaluation (progress) in a given format to the head teacher within two weeks time after each terminal test and final examination. In addition to this, a teacher has to submit a written report consisting of the following things:

- Students' attendance
- Students' achievement
- Reasons for high/low pass percentage
- Teachers' view on improving or strengthening the situation
- Things which the head teacher/school administration has to help or do (PEC, Part II 1992: 17)

Regarding the quality and standard of questions, the PEC stresses on making them reliable and valid. Question paper of each subject must be set in accordance with the learning outcomes and cover them equally (PEC 1992 II: 18). Furthermore, PEC II 1992 states that a test must consist of 30 % easy, 50 % medium and the remaining 20 % difficult items. The PEC II 1992 also stresses on the use of short answer type questions for grade 1 to 3 and long as well as short answer type questions for the remaining two grades - 4 and 5.

For promotion, students have to secure at least 32% marks in internal evaluation and the final examination in each subject independently. Students who fail in one or two subjects in grades 1-3 are to be given opportunity of chance examination before the new session starts. In the Education Regulation (1992) it was mentioned that the students can also be promoted on the basis of recommendations of the concerned teacher.

Actual Practices

In spite of several recommendations and provisions made for the improvement of evaluation procedure since long there has been no substantial change observed in actual practice. Evaluation has not been taken as a continuous and inseparable instructional process in teaching and learning. Evaluation of students' learning is limited to terminal, half-yearly and yearly examinations. Improvement in evaluation system has not been effective. No progress is seen towards test standardisation, preparation of model questions and so on (HLNEC, 1998:181). In a latest review, the following facts were observed:

- The primary schools (private and public) have been conducting two quarterly tests and final examination to assess the students for the whole academic year. Teachers in general have not maintained any record of informal evaluation nor have they given any weightage for it. Some private schools, however, are conducting monthly and unit tests but no weightage has been given to the scores of these tests.

- The weightage assigned for the quarterly tests and the final examination is not uniformly followed in schools of non-BPEP districts. Some schools have assigned 80% weightage to the final examination and only 20% to both the first and second quarterly tests, whereas others have given 20%-25% weightage to each of the quarterly tests and only 50%-60% for the final examination.
- The examination conducted in primary schools is neither helping the students to learn nor helping the teachers to improve teaching. Rather, it is encouraging the students to memorise the contents in the textbooks. Again, the announcement of examination and preparation leave for the examination alert students and threaten them to memorise the lessons taught in the class.
- The test items used in the question papers are mostly low in quality in terms of the reliability and validity. The questions are set on the conventional mode that encourages the students to recall the information from the text. Teachers do not include all the necessary learning outcomes of the concerned subject in the test. They also do not use marking schemes in scoring the answer copies of the students.
- All districts are conducting external examination at the end of grade five*.
- Head teachers and teachers have not felt the need to follow the direction given in the curriculum and the education regulation. It is observed that the school level teachers and head teachers have not understood the seriousness of the need to improve student evaluation system. (BPE Master Plan 1997: 322-324)

* District level examination at the end of grade 5 is no more in practice since 2001. Each school is given the authority to conduct final evaluation at the end of grade 5.

Besides, test results are used just to pass or fail the students. They are not used for improvement of instructional process. In public primary schools, teachers as well as the head teachers do not share the evaluation results with students, teachers and parents. Such lack of regular monitoring, evaluation and feedback system has resulted under-achievement and high failure rate of students at primary level. The "grade repetition" factor was found to have a negative effect on learning achievement (EDSC, 2001:94). Therefore, with a view to making primary education for all and qualitative, the Ninth Plan (1997-2002) stated the policy of implementing continuous evaluation system and liberal promotion policy to upgrade students from class 1 to 3 on experimental basis. Accordingly, the country is piloting Continuous Assessment System (CAS) in grades 1 and 2 in five Compulsory Primary Education Districts since 1999. This piloting is going to be extended in grade 3 in the coming academic year 2002-2003. Students' workbooks based on prescribed curriculum are developed and distributed to the districts for bridging gap between curriculum and textbooks.

Teachers are also given short-term training on conduction of regular evaluation under CAS. Portfolio for each subject has been developed on three-point scale in order to identify areas of competencies achieved by each student and to treat accordingly. However, monitoring and evaluation of the effectiveness of CAS and liberal promotion policy is yet to be improved on the recommendation of evaluation study.

Problems and Issues

The above-discussed situation clearly indicates that there is a big gap between the provisions made for the evaluation of students' learning and actual practices. It has now raised several problems and issues.

- a. There is no clear guidance for the adoption of a comprehensive evaluation system that encompasses knowledge, skills and attitudes to be acquired by the students during and at the termination state of primary education. As a consequence, student evaluation is merely confined to paper-pencil annual examination to determine whether to promote or detain a student. The prevalent examination system does not evaluate the performance of students on objectives of affective domain (BPE Master Plan 1997:326). Furthermore, teachers are rarely convinced and adequately prepared for the preparation and use of different tools of evaluation needed for continuous and comprehensive evaluation. There has been further concern about the standards of primary education as the authority to conduct final evaluation at the end of grade 5 is given to school.
- b. The total absence of sharing the results of evaluation with students, parents and other teachers as well as using it in improving instruction at the school level and in refining curriculum/textbooks and other materials at the national level has created a great loss and wastage in education.
- c. The test items used for the primary level tests are of low quality in terms of the reliability and validity. Different schools are conducting terminal examinations in their own ways. Similarly, there are no standards set for scoring answer books. The lack of standardised test has hindered the inter-school and inter-district comparison of achievement levels, and has also rendered it difficult to determine the true progress made towards achievement levels of students at primary level. (BPE Master Plan, 1991:269).
- d. Though there has been more than two years of CAS implementation in grades 1 and 2 of five districts, the effectiveness of this system has not yet been studied.

Summary and Conclusions

More than six decades several provisions and practices for the improvement of evaluation system at primary level in Nepal were made. But we have not been able to make transition from a state of absolute absence of evaluation to a simple and

systematic evaluation of pupils' progress. New evaluation systems are introduced without considering the school resources and adequate teacher preparation and their full support. Sometimes evaluation criteria are changed without considering its far-reaching negative effects. Therefore, a gradual and integrated approach in evaluation system is required in order to enhance learning atmosphere, to monitor pupil progress, and to raise achievement level of primary students.

The plan for assessment must embrace a whole range of ways in which children undertake their learning. This requires continuous assessment of students by teachers throughout the school year. Therefore the current practice of allocating marks to quarterly and final examinations must be changed. Evaluation of students' performance must be based on unit tests, home works, group works, project works, attendance, observation, quarterly-tests and final examination. There should be adequate teacher preparation in order to accomplish these tasks properly. This can be done only if primary school teachers are provided recurrent professional support services to enable them adopt appropriate evaluation methods in continuously assessing pupil progress in the classroom. Teacher preparation should include not only planning and writing the tests but also the things like: how to test the children tackle practical activities and problem solving, how to test communication skills, including speaking and listening, how to test group activities, and how to conduct systematic observation. It is also quite appropriate that the teacher who has seen the students in action all year should be able to add his/her judgements to the results of the students external assessment test. There is also a need for integrating continuous assessment and school evaluation program within teacher training program.

If we are to maintain standards, the provision of national curriculum document alone is not sufficient. Among other things there should be an external test devised and set for use in all primary schools all over Nepal. Development and use of standardized achievement tests can be an appropriate measure for this. Such provisions may help us not only in maintaining standards but also in reducing sloppy and lackadaisical attitude to learning in school. Furthermore, the use of standardized tests can help to make inter-school, inter-district, and inter-region comparisons of achievement levels. Therefore, there is a high need for developing several sets of standardized achievement tests for the primary level.

One of the major problems of the present evaluation system is that there is no communication between school and parents. There should be, therefore, a mandatory provision of sharing of information between schools and parents about their children's progress. On the other hand, parents should also be concerned about the progress of their children at school. Parents should try in finding out how their children are progressing at school. They need to response the reports and results of tests of their children. They need to look children's workbook to find teachers' comments. They need to go into school and ask the class teacher about their

children's progress. They need sometimes to ask the children about their progress and the school.

There is an immediate need of an effectiveness study of both newly introduced CAS and liberal promotion policy in grades 1 and 2 so that improvements could be made on time.

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School Funding Modalities in Nepal

Dr. Shiva Raj Lohani*

Introduction

School education in Nepal is divided into primary (grades 1-5), lower secondary (grades 6-8), secondary (grades 9-10) and higher secondary (grades 11-12), and proficiency certificate level under universities. From the standpoint of financing, schools in Nepal can be grouped into three categories: (a) government-aided schools (GASs), (b) schools run in facilities of GASs with community support, (c) private secondary schools opened and operated with non-profit motive, and (d) private secondary schools opened with profit motive. Under the present financing policy of the government, government aided schools get Grants-in-Aid (GIA) from the government to meet 100% salary of approved teacher-posts and partial operating cost of schools. The community-supported schools, mostly the proposed schools waiting to get government financial support, have also received GIA to meet salary of one or two teaching positions. The private schools are financed from student fees. The higher secondary schools (grades 11-12) are yet not part of the school education system and are governed under Higher Secondary Education Board (HSEB). Some of the community supported higher secondary schools have also received GIA to meet salary of one or two teacher positions. The DOE/MOES statistics shows data under two categories namely government aided schools (category a) and private schools (category b, c and d). The Education Act Seventh Amendment (2001) has envisaged two types of schools, namely community schools (that are eligible for GIA) and corporate schools (which are private: profit making as well as non-profit making). This paper presents discussions on funding modalities of community schools.

Government Funding Modalities

Currently government provides support to community schools from its regular budget through GIA and development budget through School Improvement Plans (SIPs).

Teacher Post Based GIA

The present GIA system covers mainly the teachers'salary. Based on approved teacher quota, Ministry of Education and Sports provides grants to schools through District Education Office (DEO). DEO distributes grants to schools in consultation with District Education Committee (DEC) chaired by Chairperson of District Development Committee. This system is simple from administrative points of view,

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but is not effective to achieve equity and efficiency goals of government financing. The Basic and Primary Education Master Plan (1997, p245) noted that the current GIA system:

- Makes teachers feel that they are the employees of the government rather than the staff of the school they serve
- Neglects achievement and accountability aspects
- Makes virtually no allocation for quality components
- Encourages reporting of higher enrollment figures by schools through the inclusion of under aged /over aged children to get additional teacher posts
- Ignores actual number of teachers in the schools for allocating budgets
- Ignores the role of locally elected bodies in channeling fund to schools
- Treats all students on equal footing regardless of economic status
- Puts schools under severe financial constraints to meet operational expenses

Block Grant Based GIA to Local Authorities

Public Expenditure Review Commission (PERC) recommended an alternate GIA system, which provides block grant to locally elected bodies namely Village Development Committee (VDC), Municipality and District Development Committee (DDC). Although this recommendation is in the spirit of Local Governance Act, it would create more problems than solving present challenges. As most of the teachers are recruited centrally and GIA basically consists of teachers' salary, teacher management will be a Herculean task for locally elected bodies. In the absence of operational administrative system at the VDC level, financial management of the block grant fund including distribution of grants to schools, keeping accounts, reporting to district and central level agencies will be a great challenge in operationalizing this new system. Government piloted some elements of this option in selected VDCs and the experience of piloting is not that encouraging. These arguments suggest that this option is not feasible during short run and medium term.

In this context, Mid-term Expenditure Framework (MTEF, 2002) submitted in the Nepal Development Forum, 2002 suggested empowering the local bodies and moving slowly towards decentralization. To mobilize local people in education development, Education Act Seventh Amendment has introduced the concept of Village Education Committee (VEC), which is chaired by VDC chairperson. VEC will monitor the schools regularly within the VDC, identify local resources and mobilize them for the development of schools.

Formula Based Block Grant to Schools

The Education Act Seventh Amendment intends to introduce block grant policy gradually for funding community schools by replacing the present teacher post based GIA system. Under the proposed system, lump sum grants will be provided to

schools directly based on objective school funding formula, which takes account of unit cost per student and socio-economic status of the community served by the school. The school funding formula should establish capping on salaries and instructional materials within the block grant.

The proposed system allows to link funding with school performance such as student achievement, equity and efficiency. Schools will be allowed to mobilize additional resources from local governments, communities, philanthropic organizations, fees from parents with due consultation with and authorization from SMCs. Since cost-sharing approach has been adopted at all levels after primary education, the block grant amount should make provision to ensure that those who cannot pay are supported and those who can pay are charged fees as decided by the SMCs.

Development Funding

Basic and Primary Education program (BPEP II) has initiated the bottom-up process, in which each school prepares a School Improvement Plan (SIP) through micro-planning exercise. SIP includes an action plan for the physical and instructional improvements of the school. Guidelines have been developed for SIPs and to operationalise the bottom-up planning process and a set of eligible expenditures have been identified. Three kinds of funding mechanism have been tried as follows:

- **Modality A:** Each school having SMC is eligible to receive Rs 2000 to meet the expenses of teaching learning material developments and other improvement activities. For this, schools are required to submit a plan for school improvement indicating the existence of SMC in the school.
- **Modality B:** Under this modality, a school can get up to Rs 11,000 as matching grant to implement its school maintenance and rehabilitation plan,
- **Modality C:** An eligible school can get Rs 15,000 to finance its SIP for increasing enrollment of school going age group especially from the backward community and raising instructional quality of the school. A school, which has girls GER and NER less than 100% and 60% respectively, is eligible for this fund. Under this modality, based on the evaluation of SIPs schools are provided funds to finance activities identified by them.

SIP process is currently under trial and BPEP II is gathering experience in this exercise. SIP funds are channeled through DEOs directly to schools that meet the requirement for the fund release.

BPEP also has a plan to fund Village Education Plans (VEPs) prepared by VECs. VEPs activities may include enrollment drives, participation in micro-planning and school mapping exercise, school maintenance, school supervision, establishment and operation of NFE and ECD centres, monitoring of teacher and student attendance,

mobilization of local resources, review and follow-up of annual programs and creation of supportive atmosphere for the implementation of the BPE activities and programs.

Secondary Education Development Program under preparation is also planning to support Community School Improvement Planning (CSIP) exercise. Lessons learned from the SIP exercise under BPEP would help to build CSIP funding mechanisms for SEDP.

Community Funding

The Education Act Seventh Amendment introduced the concept of community schools. A school, which is owned and managed by the community generating resources with minimum support of government and with maximum support from voluntary organizations and user fees can be defined as a community school. The Act has reinstated the roles and responsibilities of the community in the management of community schools. Parents' representation in SMC has been emphasized. The role of government is to provide technical support and necessary resources to schools based on objective norms and criteria. This provision would promote community partnership, ownership and increased community financing for school education. In order to promote the concept of community financing, the following action from the government are recommended:

- Establish a set of strategies including: (i) ensure stability in the policy, (ii) assure that government support will continue, (iii) continue providing teachers, and materials, (iv) provide matching grants so that community will make efforts on their part, (v) provide tax incentives,
- Provide information and guidance especially on pedagogical aspects of schooling, accounting and budgeting procedures and organizational and professional techniques,
- Establish a well-defined regulatory framework necessary to institute a school-based management, guaranteeing greater autonomy, authority and responsibility to individual community schools. The elements of the framework may include (i) fix objective criteria for registration of school, (ii) regulate teacher qualification and salaries through teacher and head teacher licensing, (iii) ensure that schools do not discriminate against marginal groups, (iv) develop mechanism to enforce national curriculum with flexibility in medium of instruction and optional subjects, (nationally defined curriculum, but local choice for materials and technical support based on needs), and (iv) fix building designs, minimum school size, and fee ceilings.

Conclusions

This paper has identified problems and prospects of alternate school funding modalities in the context of the Education Act Seventh Amendment and the experience gained from BPEP II implementation. It should be noted that reforms in education financing is a gradual process requiring adjustments in both funding criteria and procedures. For example, it is not possible to include salary of currently permanent teachers in the block grant as they have been hired centrally with given terms and conditions. However, with the attrition of teachers due to various reasons, SMCs can be authorized to recruit teachers in the vacant positions from among candidates possessing teaching license and they can be paid from salaries included in the block grant. Similarly, the implementation of a block grant system linking financing with performance requires a strong inspection and monitoring system, which currently does not exist. Hence, the main criteria for assessing the commitment of the government towards reforms in education financing should be the formulation and adoption of a time bound well-defined reform plan by the government.

Dual Audience Interactive Radio Instruction As An Approach To Teacher Training

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Background

Learning is central to educational development of a person. Teaching should therefore emphasis on facilitation of learning. In the past oral exchange of information, or to provide chances of practising the knowledge and the skills acquired from teacher constituted core of teaching and learning. The contexts have now changed much. Today, educational technology permits alternative mode of learning. Students now have better choices. Nevertheless, the role of teacher remains important. Students need teacher for guidance through curriculum and learning activities and for setting and achieving the goals suitable to their age, aptitude and contexts. So the best approach to provide effective environment for learning is to enhance the capacity of the teachers with educational technology.

Today, educational technology is increasingly being used in self-learning mode and distance learning mode. These modes have proven to be effective and efficient for teacher training as well as for model guided learning for students. In this line the Distance Education Centre, Ministry of Education and Sports has launched a program called *Dual Audience Interactive Radio Instruction* (DA-IRI) with the support of UNICEF, Nepal. The main objective of the program is to train the teachers in their regular classrooms using pre-recorded audio-cassettes.

DA-IRI Teacher Training consists of a series of 50 audio-cassettes (25 English lessons for fifth graders and 25 in Mathematics lessons for third grade). The program provides recurrent teacher training in new teaching methods for English and Math teaching. The pilot study also includes two introductory cassettes designed for use during the regular class, and guide teachers and students as they try out new teaching strategies. The programe promotes new teaching strategies such as student-to-student interaction, use of teaching materials, and linking content to real life situation.

The approach taken in this training is to walk the teachers and students through pre-designed interactive classroom activities. For this, the recordings consist of students as well as teachers specific instructions for activities based on the curriculum objectives and contents. The process addresses two audiences -- student and teachers, learning instruction to the students and teaching instruction to the teachers, thus the name Dual Audience Interactive Radio Instruction. The program is designed for radio broadcasting to cover wider number of the teachers, hence the name Radio Instruction. On the average the recorded IRI program duration is about 30 minutes.

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The program was piloted in fifty schools, 10 schools each in 5 districts Ilam Nuwakot, Kapikwastu, Dang, and Dadeldhura. The pilot schools were paired with matching non- pilot schools for the purpose of impact assessments. This pilot was conducted with the help of a team of consisting of field formative evaluators, DEC personnel, teachers and the experts. The school supervisors from the office of District Education Office (DEO) were designated as the formative evaluators. Formative evaluators were engaged to facilitate use of the program in the classroom as well as identify problems and issues and make suggestions for improvement. A study was conducted in 2001 to assess the effectiveness of the piloting. This article is based on the study outcomes.

The main objective of this article is to reflect on the potential of DA-IRI method as an approach to teacher training, **recurrent training in particular**. The article is focuses on the following aspects:

1. Nature of IRI program and its impact on classroom.
2. Impact of IRI program on student learning and achievement.
3. Transfer of teaching skills from IRI to non-IRI classes.
4. Views of head teachers, teachers, formative evaluators and DEOs regarding IRI approach and method.

Nature Of IRI Program And Its Impact On Classroom

DA-IRI is an approach to teacher training. Like in any other teacher training approach it has potential for incorporating interesting and useful features. The experiences of the piloting showed that this approach has better prospects in the following aspects.

Modelling Good Teaching Practice: The IRI program has been designed to provide model classroom activities. The program walks the students and the teachers through interesting activities helping the teachers to have comprehensive experience of a model classroom. It emphasised on helping teachers and students to acquire the skills necessary for a good class through rigors. Because of the rigors it was also anticipated that it would develop desirable classroom habits among the teachers and students. The emphasis has been on the student-centred classroom activities.

The IRI programs engaged teachers and students in entertaining activities: how to ask appropriate and stimulating questions, how to develop and use instructional materials which can be locally constructed. The program demonstrated both to the teachers and students the importance of listening, pausing for framing appropriate answer and providing time for the response. It helped teachers to realise that students should be provided adequate time to answer and to provide immediate reinforcement. Time management is another important aspect of modelling good teaching practice that this approach has addressed.

Involving Students for Joyful Learning : Making classroom interesting and joyful is another focus of the DA-IRI program. For this the IRI program format has been designed to provide opportunities for singing along with the audio play, listening story and responding to the question related to the story, and participating in guided activities. This approach provided the students ample opportunity to engage in joyful learning. The teachers, students and head teachers highly appreciated this approach. Almost all teachers and students of the IRI schools identified the use of **songs, stories, games, role play, activities, group work**, IRI program as joyful learning. This has attributed to high participation of the students, and their increased motivation for active learning.

Another important and useful strategy that has been demonstrated in the program, as indicated by some of the teachers, is questioning skills. Teachers have found it very useful to spread questions throughout a lesson, providing adequate time for the students to answer the question, reframing the question when needed and providing feedback to the students. Frequent questioning practice was found to be highly motivating to the students.

Providing Opportunity for Learning Interaction Skills: IRI program provides an opportunity for various forms of interactions such as **radio-teacher, radio-teacher-student, radio-student, teacher-student, and student-student** (peer, group). Such multiple interaction opportunities are instrumental in developing students' interactive skill, concentration and keenness.

Joyful, child-centred activity in one hand and immediate responses required to answer the radio teacher seems to have increased concentration and keenness in listening on the part of students. Also the interactive activities have inspired the students to imitate and playfully pronounce words in a rhythmic way (pen/fen) thus helping develop their English speaking.

Encouraging Use of Instructional Materials: The DA-IRI program has been developed to incorporate simple instructional materials that can be made locally. Both the teacher and students are required to collect/develop instructional materials to be used during classroom activities. For example, stones, grains, and other locally available materials have been used for teaching basic mathematical concepts. Word card, pictures, number card, geometrical shapes are to be found hanging on the walls of IRI schools for handy use.

The important aspect of collection and use of material relate to motivation of children to connect their study to their home, environment and play. It has been a very successful aspect. Often, students took initiatives to bring materials in the class thereby providing impetus to teacher action for the use of instructional materials.

Making Learning More Relevant To The Students: IRI program has been found to illustrate how to develop concept in the children by relating learning to the lives of

the students. Mathematical concepts are based upon the everyday problem that students are likely to encounter. Identifying particular condition, naming objects, setting based upon the given clue is also found to increase imaginative and creative aspects of the students. Similarly, English language is related to normal and frequent usage expected.

Prompting Healthy Competition: As sensed by the field researchers and as expressed by the teachers, the IRI program is helpful in setting productive competition in the classroom. When students are selected for modeling, working in a pair or group or when they are asked to collect teaching/learning aid, students are found to compete with each other. Such a productive competition is found to be helpful to motivate students and enhance their learning. Students were also found keenly observing what classmates are doing and whether or not they are correctly following the instructions provided.

Impact Of IRI Program On Student Learning And Achievement

As observed by the teachers, formative researchers, head teachers and the students there are distinct features in IRI program that are advantageous. In the IRI class there was higher students' motivation; more opportunity for students' involvement; joyful classroom activities; clear-cut instruction for collection and use of instructional materials and follow-up activities. IRI class helped the students and the teachers in following ways:

- Increased students' concentration on lesson.
- Enhanced students' listening and response capacity.
- Changed Teachers' role from lecturing to facilitating.
- Enhanced students' motivation.
- Made learning enjoyable with interesting classroom activities such as story telling, singing, and games.
- Helped teachers to experience providing clear direction to follow in the IRI classes.
- Helped teachers and students conscious about time limits.
- Increased in students' attendance.
- Promoted planning and preparing materials for the classes in accordance with the audio instruction.

Impact On Student Learning And Achievement: The study assessed achievements score of 282 students (136 from pilot schools and 146 from non-pilot schools) in various areas of knowledge and skill related grade three mathematics. Similarly, 230 students of Grade Five (118 from pilot schools and 112 from non-pilot schools) were selected for the achievement test. Various skill areas like writing, reading, listening, and speaking in English and numeric and work problem were analysed in mathematics.

The average achievement levels of the students of the pilot schools in both subjects were found higher than those of the non-pilot schools as the following table shows.

Table 1: Student's Achievement in Pilot and Non-pilot Schools

Areas	FM	Program	N	%	Mean
Written	81	Pilot	118	52.01	42.13
		Non - Pilot	122	47.14	38.19
Oral test for speaking in English	8	Pilot	99	68.87	5.51
		Non- Pilot	93	51.25	4.10
Listening test English through radio	15	Pilot	64	84.53	12.68
		Non -Pilot	48	67.26	10.09
Mathematics	86	Pilot	136	39.65	34.10
		Non- Pilot	146	29.20	25.12

N= Number of students; SD= Standard Deviation; FM = Full Marks

Transfer Of Teaching Skills From IRI To Non IRI Classes

It was clearly observed during the study that many of the skills learned by the teachers from IRI sessions were also found used in non-IRI class. The following are some of the important aspects of the skills transferred:

Use Of Play-Way Method: Songs, story, games were usually found to have been used in non-IRI classes by the participating teachers. Engaging students in activities, asking students to play role models, engaging students in physical activities were easily adopted by the teachers in their non-IRI classes.

Use Of Teaching Materials Developed In IRI Program: Teachers and students constructed/collected a number of useful teaching learning-materials like number card, word card, geometric shapes, counting materials, and in few cases blocks, locally made weighing machine as well. These teaching-learning materials were also used rigorously in non-IRI classes. Also, teachers developed such instructional materials for other classes as well.

Student Centred Learning Activities :IRI classes are modelled to provide students-centred teaching-learning program unlike the traditional classroom teaching-learning which is often dominated by teacher's lecture. Although teacher lecturing is almost

normal (habitual) mode of teacher activities in the classroom requiring extra effort on the part of teacher to practice alternative mode, the IRI teachers nevertheless made consistent efforts to use activity based classroom practice. The IRI participating teachers found the skill of operating student centred activities useful and effective and therefore made efforts to employ in other non-IRI classes as well.

IRI participating teachers were found spending more time in students' involvement in activities. Approximately half of classroom time was spent in students involvement in activities in Mathematics and about 38% of the time in English classes. Students spent their time in class work activities in using instructional materials, class discussion, answering question and so on.

Motivation For Informal Learning: IRI program, particularly specifically English subject, demonstrated that listening and practice are important to speak English better. This realisation motivated the teachers and the students to listen to the news in English and English songs. Some of the students were found to have improved their spoken English by practising rhyme in playful manner.

Student-Student Teaching / Learning (Peer): Student-student interaction is another aspect built in the IRI program which the participating teachers found useful and therefore made efforts to employ in non-IRI classes as well. Student paring for number card activities has become interesting classroom practice in mathematics class of the IRI schools.

Taking Classroom Activities Beyond School :Students of IRI school, it was found that they would play the games learnt in IRI programs such as command and action game, touching nose, eyes, ears of English subject program and making various shapes by walking and identifying the shape. They enjoyed playing such games at their homes as well.

Views of Personnel Involved in DA-IRI

IRI program has shown its positive impact upon the teaching behaviour of the teacher and greater involvement of the students in various sorts of classroom activities. As the format of IRI program emphasises the student activity and involvement, naturally teachers have an ample opportunity to learn child-centred techniques through practice as well. Stakeholders realised the higher value of IRI program for better learning of the students and for enabling teacher to use better teaching techniques.

Head teachers of participating schools, participating teachers and formative evaluators considered IRI program effective and impressive. Teachers found IRI approach helpful in making teaching easy because of

- Fewer lectures and more activities.
- Games, songs and stories increase students' motivation and concentration.

- Well articulated model for classroom activities.
- Clear guidance and instructions: activities guided by simple audio instructions that the students could easily follow.
- Students' motivation for active participation thereby enhancing the attendance.

According to the teachers, lack of clarity in some of the audio-tapes because of the speaker voice and sometimes because of the poor quality of the tape were problems in the class. Similarly, irregularity in pause time, inadequate time to interact and time for activities are other concerns of the teachers. Time provided for the teachers and students to carry out activity or to answer questions is found to be insufficient in a number of cases. Teachers as well as students complained about time off experiences while they are still half way to answering a question or doing activity or even when the teacher is still writing on the blackboard. It is particularly challenging when there is a need to introduce new song and innovative activities in an interactive way in 25 minutes time. It is more difficult when it involves lengthy questions or complicated words.

Formative evaluators and the head teachers are of the view that IRI programs are interesting change to the traditional methods, it is helpful to monitor fulfilment of the curriculum objectives. They felt that this method made both the teachers and students active in the classroom and that it helped to make teaching learning enjoyable with **stories, songs and games**.

All the teacher, formative evaluators and the head teachers expressed their reservations regarding the continuity of the program. Their concerns relate to availability of the equipment to the schools, and the fund for their maintenance and operation. They hoped for follow-up program to come.

The IRI program is curriculum-based. It does not deal with the textbook so that the program does not cover all the lessons of the textbook. So it is found that teachers and students are familiar only with the IRI lessons. As most of the teachers are not familiar with the curriculum or they are not used to with the use of curriculum it would be better to make the program textbook-based.

Beyond Pilot

Obviously, DA-IRI program has proved its potentiality as an effective approach to providing teacher training. It could be used as a **regular teacher training method (fixed program based training as well as short term recurrent training)**. This approach is desirable because it is simple, easy to handle, could be used to cover large scale training as a radio broadcast program and it could be cost effective.

However, there is need to further develop the technique, materials and the approach to make it more effective and free of problems. Some of the needs include

- Making the program textbook as well as curriculum-based instead of making it exclusively based. The program/script should be textbook-based so that teachers could make preparation according to the lessons of the textbook.
- There is also a need for revision of teachers' guidebook that cover materials required for the particular program so that the teacher would be able to arrange those materials in advance.
- Care should be taken that the instruction in IRI program should be given in simple Nepali language even for conducting English subject. The script of the IRI program should fit for everyone. Simple language and vocabulary should be used so that everybody can follow the program. The vocabulary should not belong to a particular community. There should be use of short and simple sentences in the program. This will help both the teacher and children to understand and grasp the program easily.
- The program developers should be trained on both pedagogic as well as technical aspects in the development of such programs.

Overall, IRI program could be used as an effective approach to recurrent teacher training. This training could also be used effectively for supplementing/ reinforcing other types of training. For example, it could be in-built with Whole School Approach to teacher training. This program had also being tested through radio broadcast in the same 5 pilot districts having covered larger number (700) schools. Because the test was satisfactory it has already been decided that this mode of training will be adopted as a part of overall teacher training scheme in BPEP.

Professional Development of Instructors

Dr. Agni Prasad Kafle *

Teaching is a very complex profession. It is a science because instructors need to know the subject content as technical competencies. It is an art as well because instructors must transfer their technical competencies through an artistic process of teaching methodology. Strong professional competencies and abilities are essential to becoming a good instructor. According to Travers and Rebores (1990) "superior intelligence, compassion, humor, respect for children [learner], and patience are necessary ingredients for good teachers" (p. 1). In order to remain an effective instructor throughout life two things are important: first, the instructor must remain scholarly by continuous learning or reading and keeping abreast of the latest information in the profession; second, the instructor must seek opportunities to work with trainees and the community. Willingness to work with communities, school clubs, professionals, and related peers can develop interpersonal competencies and genuine desire to become a teacher (Travers & Rover, 1990; Tyner, 1996).

Main Goals of Professional Development of Instructors

While reviewing the global literature, Austin (1986) listed four goals of professional development for beginning teachers: (a) improve teaching performance of beginning teachers, (b) increase retention of promising teachers, (c) promote professional and personal growth of teachers, and (d) satisfy the certification requirements. Hatcher (1995) advocated that the work ethic is more important to be successful in the job. Hatcher stated that "more people fail at or lose their jobs because of personal qualities or inappropriate attitudes than insufficient knowledge or skills" (p. 1). Cole (1991) emphasized two psychological aspects of the professional development of teachers. The first aspect is that teachers can learn or develop better when they work together as equals, support each other by sharing ideas, and support each other better by giving and receiving feedback. The second psychological aspect is socialization of teachers. In order to make an affinity with the school community, teachers must be able to socialize with students, fellow instructors, parents, administrators, support staff, senior teachers, and professional associations. These aspects are important when entering into a new profession of teaching.

Professional development of vocational teachers is intended to make them competent and knowledgeable (Heath-Camp & Camp, 1992); to bring changes in knowledge, beliefs, and instructional practices; and to develop new insight in their own teaching practice (Crawford, 1997). Professional development is a lifelong process for teachers. Finch (1999) stated that "teachers are taught and coached from start to finish" (p. 5). According to Camp and Heath Camp (1992), the goal of an induction

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program in the professional development of beginning vocational teachers is to provide a guidance and mechanism for a smooth transition in the teaching profession. The researchers mentioned eleven major components in the professional development of the vocational teachers. Those eleven components are: (a) provide administrative support, (b) provide orientation on relevant topics, (c) provide a research-based handbook, (d) provide a structured mentoring program, (e) form a peer support group, (f) involve teachers in in-service workshops, (g) provide coaching and get reflection from teachers, (h) provide an individualized professional plan, (i) provide provisional and emergency certification courses, (j) establish and operate a professional development centre, and (k) appoint a professional development coordinator to carry on teacher development program. Proposing a professional development model for vocational teachers, Camp and Heath-Camp (1992) suggested that the professional development program can be designed in a complete system which involves all the educational authorities, professional teachers, and teacher training institutions.

Problems in Professional Development of Instructors

Basically, the content, teaching methodologies, and facilities are the main three elements of the teaching profession (Wright & Custer 1998). The problem begins when teachers start feeling weak, inadequate, and inconfident in all or one of these teaching elements. Engvall (1997) looked at teachers' problems from a socio-economic point of view. He mentioned that teachers are among persons of little importance, low paid, and having a tradition of group dignity. Bernier and McClland (1989) looked at the teaching profession from an administrative and legal process of professional standards. They mentioned that three legal processes, (a) accreditation of preparatory programs, (b) licensing of professional personnel, and (c) standards of practice are essential to become a professional. In the case of Nepal all these processes are in the immature stage, and neither national standards nor a teaching license is effective yet. Camp and Heath-Camp (1992) performed an intensive study on the problems of vocational beginning teachers at various stages of both Non-Teacher Education Certified (NTEC) and Teacher Education Certified (TEC) groups across the United States. The researchers identified a total of 1,777 problems of beginning first year vocational teachers. When comparing the problems of TEC and NTEC teachers, NTEC teachers reported a total of 1,100, and TEC teachers reported 677 problems. All these problems were categorized into eight major headings: (a) teacher's internal feelings, (b) pedagogy, (c) curriculum, (d) program, (e) students, (f) peers, (g) system, and (h) community. According to the study, the biggest or most important problems were interactions between teachers and students and between teachers and decision makers of the education system.

Indicating the scenario of poor communities, Travore and Rover (1990) mentioned that there are several challenges for even good teachers, while poor and malnourished learners come from the homes which do not value the respect for

teacher and formal education. Paulo Freire (1994) saw a big gap between the teacher and the student in the traditional type of rote memory teaching and schooling system—what he called “banking type of education”. Some of his sharp comments about the education system, teachers, and teaching are: “the teacher teaches and the students are taught; the teacher knows everything and students know nothing; the teacher confuses the authority, with his or her professional authority, which she or he sets in opposition to the freedom of the students; the teacher is the Subject of the learning process, while the pupils are the mere Objects”(p. 54).

Professional Teaching Standards

The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS, 1996) emphasized five propositions for professional standards of the general education teachers in America:

In proposition 1, NBPTS mentioned that teachers are committed to the learning of students. Skilled teachers (a) can give individual attention to each and every student; (b) can read the interest, abilities, and prior knowledge of the student; (c) can listen to the students, observe performance, and behavior of the students. Accomplished teachers avoid favoritism. Teachers' overall mission is to develop the students' self concept, character aspirations and civic virtue

(<http://www.nbpts.org/nbpts/standards/prop-1.html> 5/26/99).

Proposition 2, as defined by NBPTS emphasized on teachers' expertise on subject-matters, factual information, and applicability of subject on various situations. Professional teachers, therefore, keep abreast of the latest development of curriculum, and literature of the subjects they teach

(<http://www.nbpts.org/nbpts/standards/prop-2.html> 5/26/99)

Under proposition 3, NBPTS certified teachers are responsible for managing and monitoring their students' learning. Professional teachers should be able to use time, multiple-methods, and multiple-media effectively and efficiently to meet their teaching goals. In the mean while, trained professional teachers consider students' individual learning style, learning pace, and mental abilities. Learning can be painful. Learning can be a fun. What makes difference is the knowledge, art, and the teaching ability of the teacher. (<http://www.nbpts.org/nbpts/standards/prop-3.html> 5/26/99).

NBPTS Proposition 4 mentioned that accomplished teachers think systematically and learn from experience. Professional teachers are models of educated people and have virtues like curiosity, honesty, tolerance, fairness, creativity, risk-taking, and problem solving. They are engaged in life-long learning which they want to inculcate in their students as well. Professionally alert teachers always strive for deep knowledge, sharp judgement new findings and theories.

(<http://www.nbpts.org/nbpts/standards/prop-4.html> 5/26/99)

Proposition 5 considered teachers as members of the learning communities. Professional teachers like to work collaboratively with other professionals on instructional policy, curriculum development and staff development. They appropriately utilize school and community resources for the benefit of their future generation. Such teachers find ways to work collaboratively, and creatively with parents and local communities (<http://www.nbpts.org/nbpts/standards/prop-5.html>, 5/26/99).

Regarding vocational education standards, the NBPTS, as cited in Lynch (1997), proposed the following 13 points that can create an ideal learning environment:

1. Accomplished vocational teachers must have knowledge of students and human development to meet the needs of the students.
2. Accomplished vocational teachers must have knowledge of subject matter of core general subjects and technical subjects and abilities in setting instructional objectives, delivering instruction, and facilitating students learning.
3. Accomplished vocational teachers create a positive learning environment based on democratic values and love for learning so that students gain confidence, skill, and develop leadership abilities at the work place.
4. Accomplished vocational teachers must respect diversity in order to provide equal treatment, fairness, and quality learning for all students.
5. Accomplished vocational teachers always keep abreast of advanced knowledge of vocational subjects that enhances performance based student learning and abilities for productivity and service.
6. Accomplished vocational teachers use many assessment tools in order to monitor students learning abilities and assist them in better learning.
7. Accomplished vocational teachers help students have workplace readiness by providing employability skills and work place culture.
8. Accomplished vocational teachers encourage students in maintaining and balancing multiple life-roles by understanding competing demand and responsibility in the world of the work.
9. Accomplished vocational teachers foster social development in students by providing social abilities such as self-awareness, confidence, leadership, civic values and ethics.
10. Professional development cannot be confined within the school only. It also has some vital role beyond the school as outreach programs.
11. For outreach, Lynch (1997) further noted that accomplished vocational teachers use a reflective approach throughout their lives by analyzing their own effectiveness and quality.
12. Collaborative partnerships of vocational teachers with colleagues, community, business and industries may help students to learn from a school-to-work transition.
13. Accomplished vocational teachers make contributions to colleagues and their professional community for institutional and personal development.

Finally the standard of NBPTS for vocational teachers was family and community partnerships that involve both to achieve the educational goals of students.

The Holmes Group, which consisted of university deans and a number of chief members from major research institutions, believed that the following four points would improve the teacher education system in the United States: (a) an intellectually sound program, (b) awareness and reward system for teacher knowledge, skill, and disposition, (c) an appropriate criteria for teaching profession, and (d) the working environment that benefits the professionals (Holmes Group, 1986).

Similarly the National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (1996) recommended five major areas of reform in teacher education: (a) being serious about standards, (b) reinventing professional development of teachers, (c) fixing the recruitment criteria and selecting qualified teachers, (d) rewarding teacher for knowledge and skills, and (e) schools should be created for the success of teachers and students.

Professional Teaching Skills and Competencies

Lynch (1997) suggested that carefully and comprehensively defined national standards, skills, and competencies help teachers maintain their professionalism and also help the system to assess teachers' professional knowledge and skills. In Lynch's comparative study, teachers can be prepared for Prosser's essentialism or Dewey's progressivism or Steffe and Gale's constructivism. Prosser's essentialism focuses on teachers' occupational skills and the latest technical expertise. Dewey's progressivism focuses on teachers' abilities in identifying students' interests, innate abilities, natural curiosity, and motivation. According to this principle, the teacher must be versatile to solve the problems. In constructivism, the teacher is prepared for knowledge of the subject matter, teacher's beliefs, and teaching and learning. In addition, teachers are prepared as facilitators and as models for diagnostic teaching (Lynch, 1997).

Teacher competencies as defined by the Department of Education of Virginia (1996) "is an instructional method that enables students to master the knowledge, skill, and behaviors (competencies) required of people who fill specific jobs or life roles. The instructional content of CBE [Competency Based Education] is based on the duties and tasks performed by competent workers, citizens, and family members" (p. 37). In competency based method of teaching, the instructor must follow given standards and inform his or her trainees in advance how they will be evaluated on their performance on each duty and task (Department of Education Virginia, 1996).

Olson (1994), with support of the College of Education Professional Development and Research Committee at the University of Akron, studied competencies of two-year college technical instructors and technical trainers. According to Olson, most

common and most important competencies were: “(a) knowledge of subject matter, (b) ability to solve problems, (c) effective communication skills, (d) discussion and group facilitation skills, (e) ability to write effectively, (f) ability to set priorities and use time effectively and (g) knowledge of adult learning theory” (p. 75).

Teacher Competencies in Nepal

No research has been found valid and up to date with professional standards and competencies of teachers in general in Nepal. However, John Collum (1994) has made a first attempt to prepare a competency list for technical education and vocational trainers in Nepal. After the establishment of TITI in 1991, the trainers, advisors and leaders of TITI have developed more than 140 Skill-cards on teaching competencies. Although those cards are of high quality, the importance, the applicability range, and priority in school-based instructor training is still to be analyzed and determined. Those 140 competencies are related to instructional skills, teaching methodology skills, instructional management skills, school management skills, occupation related technology skills, safety precaution skills, and Audio Visual Aids (AVA) material preparation skills. A clear and concise Skill Card, Research File, Diskettes, and CDs have been prepared for each skill/competency. All those cards and research files are documented in archives systematically. Although all competencies look attractive, the importance and priorities of competencies in relation to instructors professional training are still to be decided. All the competencies are listed alphabetically irrespective of importance, priority and need (<http://south-asia.com/TITI, 7/15/1999>).

Issues in Teacher Education in Nepal

Preparation of general education teachers and vocational teachers in Nepal started with the beginning of Aadhar Shiksha (Basic Education) in 1947, which was based on Gandhian philosophy. In 1947, the Basic Teacher Training Centre provided one-year and two-year courses including vocational subjects for teachers in disciplines such as agriculture and spinning at a primary level. For middle school, teachers were trained in basic crafts: agriculture, spinning, weaving, metal crafts, and wood works, including language (Nepali and Hindi or Sanskrit or English), mathematics, social sciences, general science, drawing, health education, religious education, and general knowledge. Higher basic schools had more choices in general subjects but the vocational subjects offered were the same as in middle schools. Social customs, like the caste system, influenced people's attitude towards education. Students had a low respect for vocational education. The implementation of vocational education was poor. As a result, vocational education lost its popularity and the Basic Teacher Training Centre was eventually closed in 1953 (Aryal, 1970; Sharma, 1980; Wood, 1965).

Based on the recommendation of the National Education Planning Commission (MOE, 1956), a considerable number of normal schools were established in different

parts of the country for the training of the primary education teachers and a College of Education was established in Kathmandu for the preparation of secondary education teachers. Both pre-service and in-service teacher training programs were running smoothly side by side. In the 1960s and 70s the education system expanded rapidly due to two reasons: first, Rana autocratic rule was thrown away in 1950 after the end of British colonization in India and second, a social awareness for mass education was brought by the newly established multi-party democratic movement of the 1950s and 60s. One-party political system called the Panchayat System replaced the multiparty political system in 1960. People's love for education continued and the number of schools increased dramatically. Although the demand for trained teachers could not be fulfilled by these teacher training centres, the value and popularity of teacher training was growing in the 1960s and 70s. Virtually all teacher training programs were supported by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). Many multipurpose high school principals, teacher educators, and Ministry of Education officials were sent to study in the United States. This opportunity brought educational, cultural, and managerial exposure to those personnel, and most of them have been providing leadership in the educational programs of Nepal ever since (Chitrakar, 1995).

In 1971, the National Education System Plan made one year teacher training mandatory for teachers. However, in 1980, the government, in the seventh amendment of the Education Act [By-Law] announced, "teacher training would no longer be mandatory to tenure in teaching" (Chitrakar, 1995, p. 15). Chitrakar commented that:

The existence of the Institute of Education (formerly the College of Education) became more insignificant . . . pre-service teacher education remained unnoticed and the trend of hiring teachers in the schools without formal training remained common The consequence is seriously damaging. In my experience, children in many rural primary schools did not make any sense of schooling . . . As a result, chaotic education atmosphere has been reproduced one generation after another. (Chitrakar, 1995, p.15).

After that the value of the teaching profession degraded day by day. Consequently, efficiency and effectiveness of the teaching and learning process was affected severely in schools. Panday (1999) commented that poor efficiency of political leaders in the last few decades was more responsible for the downfall of education along with the overall development of Nepal. Regarding the teaching profession in Nepal, Panday further expressed, "The larger scene, however, is one where incompetence is inbred in an environment where teaching is no longer an honorable profession . . . " (p.17). The following questions can be raised on ongoing problems in educating teachers and organizing teaching as a profession.

- Should the goals and content of teacher education be determined by the needs of the global labor market?

- Should national licensing and certification be implemented?
- Should tests required for national licensing and certification determine the content of teacher education programs and courses?
- Should career ladders for teachers be based on levels of certification?
- Should teachers be trained?
- Should teachers unions enhance professional development of teachers?
- Should teaching profession be separated from politics?

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Enhancing Quality Education Through School Supervision: A Model for Discussion

A.B. Bhandari*

Introduction

A principal factor that affects the student achievement is the quality of teaching. Teaching quality depends upon the kind of teachers having adequate academic preparation, pedagogical skills, professional commitment, significant teacher attrition rate and motivation.

In most developing countries, perspective teachers have lower academic background and poor academic accomplishment. Anecdotal records collected in various studies revealed that perspective teachers had academic qualification as low as nine years of schooling and they were perceived as low performers with their peers having obtained average score between 41 and 60 (as cited in Lockheed et.al, 1991). Pedagogical skills, is also felt to be dominated by general academic education. A study on analysis of teacher training curriculum of three countries; Haiti, Nepal and Yemen reported that percentage allocated for pedagogical training were 23, 8, and 4 respectively (Lockheed et. al, 1991).

Teacher absenteeism is another major factor which contributes to cause low quality of education. Baker (1988) has concluded that there is high absenteeism among teachers in Mexico, New Guinea, and Sri Lanka, and it is especially acute in rural areas. The valid argument about the teacher absenteeism is that it has negative effect on student regularity which inspires to occur similar behaviors among students. In Nepal, teacher absenteeism has been voiced by parents in different context of communities which can be heard in various educational forum. Kafle (2001) has stated that teacher absenteeism in Bardia district is a serious problem which has severely affected school performance resulting into a low achievement level of the students.

Teacher attrition rate, if reduced to a significant percentage, a number of benefits can be experienced. First, economic and social returns increases. Second, additional education inputs to new teachers decreases. Finally, production capacity is assumed higher than new teachers leading to high internal efficiency of education system. Gatwa (1986) has derived a conclusion that a nominal attrition rate of 3 percent would triple the number of teachers who need to be trained just to maintain the current number of teachers. Attrition rate of Nepalese teachers is estimated to be more than 5 percent and the rate is expected to be mounted even higher due to emerging inconvenience context of a country.

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Motivated teachers can yield high productivity. In contrary, poor motivation has positively correlated with teacher absenteeism, indifferent classroom practices and early departure from the profession leading to the negative impact on teacher's ability to teach.

Discussions made above are the factors which have strong causal relationship with poor quality of teaching. Those aforementioned factors can be removed with implementation of appropriate supervisory system, is a central point of this discussion paper. This paper has started with historical perspectives and moved to underpinning theoretical assumptions, briefly discusses Asian experiences and finally suggests a model for school supervision in Nepal for wider academic discussion.

Historical Perspectives

School supervision system in Nepal can be traced back to 1951. In 1951 the autocratic hereditary Rana Government was abolished with the popular movement of the people. Before 1951, Rana regime was not in favor of providing access to education for people, consequently, school inspectors were involved in controlling and discouraging over the growth of schools.

The political and social events of 1951 directed to the expansion of education which resulted into establishment of Directorate of General Education with the division of school inspector in 1953. Seventy five posts of sub-inspectors were created to assist block development officer of village development project in the area of primary education as an employee of education ministry and lower-secondary and secondary schools were under jurisdiction of Zonal Education Office in 1960.

By the decision of Government in 17 October, 1970, Zonal Education Offices were abolished and the position of 29 district education inspectors were upgraded with authority of administrating both primary and secondary schools. Right before implementation of New Education System Plan (NESP) there were 29 district education offices to supervise schools at their respective districts. Supervision system envisioned within framework of NESP has been considered a pioneer work which tried to create an educational mechanism to help in continuous improvement of instructional program. NESP stated supervision as follows.

Educational reforms are largely dependent upon a well organized supervision system. The supervisors and inspectors shall visit the schools from time-to-time, evaluate their working and offer advice and incentives to the school teachers to their jobs more effectively in order to insure proper and effective enforcement of national education program in the schools (NESP. P.49)

Following NESP, supervision section in the Ministry and the post of primary and secondary school supervisors in district education offices were created. Objectives of school supervision enlisted were (i) inspection of physical facilities and classroom

teaching of teachers (ii) organize in-service training (iii) work towards the gradual improvement of instructional standard.(iNESP, p.50).

Creation of specialist section in Regional Educational Directorate (RED) and shifting supervision unit from Ministry to Curriculum Development Centre were two major works done on the recommendations of mid-term and full-term evaluation of NESP, respectively.

With implementation of Seti Education for Rural Development Project (SERDP) in 1980 to Basic and Primary Education program (BPEPII) in 1999, Resource Centre (RC) came into existence with the aim of supporting in teacher development and monitoring system at primary sub-sector. However, RC in SERDP, was a concept instead of building, a centre school (host school) as a whole had to mobilize its human and physical resources to cater for the needs of satellite schools and RC under SERDP was focused much on non-formal education as it attempted to deliver the kind of education and skills that the people in the rural areas need to survive (Khaniya, 1997). In contradiction of SERDP Model, Primary Education Project (PEP) initiated in 1985. RC activities were entrusted to individual RP rather than institution as whole in professional support, monitoring the system and delivery of the materials leading to losing ownership of central school in project related activities.

Basic and Primary Education Project (BPEP I) launched in early 1990, made no significant departure in the concept and implementation of supervisory activity except the expansion of project, from 6 to 40 districts. However, both school supervisors and RPs of a district were involved in RC activities, eventually, lower-secondary and secondary schools remained unattended by school supervisors.

Basic and Primary Education Program (BPEP II) executed in 1999 with basket funding modality is being operated in all 75 districts which also includes RC as a venue for professional support, monitoring the system and delivery of materials within the framework of Department of Education (DOE). RPs and school supervisors of a district have role-conflict to some extent because of unclear guidance of DOE. At first, school supervisors were instructed to take responsibility of supervising lower secondary and secondary schools whereas RPs were asked to supervise the primary schools within cluster of Resource Centre but no instruction was provided for supervising attached primary sections of lower-secondary and secondary schools. Recently, a circular issued by DOE states both RPs and SSs be assigned for RC activities but still remains unaddressed for supervising lower-secondary and secondary schools. Thus, school supervision in Nepal has been remained to be confused with clarity of the concept and understanding purpose from its existence.

Theoretical Assumptions

School supervision is a notion evolved from the idea of controlling to supporting school education system. Basically, whatever the idea it is, supervision goes around enhancing teacher's performance and school performance which may include both administrative inspection and instructional support and is to be carried out by an individual or a team. Instructing, Mentoring and Coaching are three terms within the framework of supervision frequently used in education to identify the educational status, regarding teacher development and school performance.

Supervision, as a form of instructing (teaching to teach), is to be followed teaching or pedagogic process (Stone, 1984). According to him preparation period, observation period, after observation period, re-plan and re-instruction period are the steps to be followed in the process of supervision. Mentoring, is a school-based activity under taken by a senior teacher (academic and experienced) to provide some support and guidance for junior teachers (Mc Intyre and Hager, 1994), is also popularly known as in-school supervision. Regarding coaching, Schon (as cited in Stones, 1984) argues that teaching is learnable, coachable but not teachable because it contains a large element of artistry such as architecture, psychotherapy, management, engineering etc.

In addition to above terminology within the framework of supervision another terminology used is "clinical supervision" which was originally devised in the context of the USA in order to move away from hierarchical (inspection to supervision) and to be systematic and developmental rather than judgmental. The process followed in clinical supervision as discussed by Smith are pre-observation meeting (expectations, procedure and focus), observation and post observation (debriefing and discussion). The general conclusions derived from literature studies on the relationship between teacher learning and school setting by educational researchers are listed below.

- In-school supervision-heads of schools play a pivotal role in teacher development (Liethwood et. al, 1994, Farah 1996).
- External-supervision-teachers need support as well as pressure from colleagues and managers (Fullan, 1993, Hargeaver, 1992).
- In-school / external supervision-internal as well as external criteria and mechanisms for monitoring progress are necessary for teacher (Hopkins et. al, 1997).
- Individual / team supervision-if teaching is viewed as individual enterprise then source of authority for supervision comes from bureaucratic, psychological and technical-rational process and if it is viewed collective practice then sources of

authority to supervise would be professional and moral applications (Sergiovanni, 1992).

- Inter-school supervision – the creation of special cadre of supervisory teachers who would combine 'situational contexted' supervision in neighboring schools with regular teachings in their school, albeit with reduced load (Waite, 1995).

Asian Experience

Recently, International Institute for Education Planning (IIEP, Paris) has published two volumes on supervision and support services in Asia. Volume 1 consists of comparative analysis of five countries- Bangladesh, The State of Uttar Pradesh (India), Republic of Korea, Nepal and Sri Lanka whereas volume II has presented national diagnosis of aforementioned countries. This section deals with major thrust of those two volumes regarding school supervision practices in order to develop a vision to be made on school supervision for enhancing quality education in our emerging context.

Structure of Supervision: The structure of supervision is viewed relatively complex in all countries. Individual supervision has taken place in all countries and basic education sub-sector has been considered major area to be supervised. However, the countries like Korea and Sri Lanka have made a provision of team supervision along with individual supervision. In Korea, a team of two supervisors has responsibility of supervising basic level education which all are based on one level i.e. city level for urban areas and country level for rural areas. In Sri Lanka a team of 10-12 persons, is formed by all level of organizations with differences in intensivity of supervision, to provide professional support to the teachers in addition to administrative inspection.

All education officers in Bangladesh assigned in the field offices to central level institutions require to supervise schools every month ranging 5-20 schools to be visited. The State of Uttar Pradesh does not seem very different from what Bangladesh is supposed to perform supervisory activities, at least in the paper. School supervision works are located at district level in Nepal which needs to be performed by resource persons and school supervisors. However, District Education Officers and Regional Education Directors are also expected to supervise schools at their respective areas. but no such tasks performed, is experienced.

Supervisory Functions: Visiting schools under their Jurisdiction for pedagogic or administrative purpose has been considered as a core task of supervisors in almost all countries. Zonal Education Office of Sri Lanka has adopted the system of organizing at least two team supervision visits per week to cover 100-150 schools per year in addition to 3 days per week visits by Master teachers. In Bangladesh, 15-20 schools in every month are expected to be inspected by ATEOs whereas Deputy Education Officers in Uttar Pradesh need to spend 150 days per year on school visits however, they can delegate this duty to their subordinates.

Second core task of supervision is reporting because school visits eventually leads to producing reports. Sri Lanka supervising system demands to produce three copies for school, higher authority and own office. In Bangladesh each category supervisions need to submit reports to their immediate supervisors and these reports are collected by Directorate of Primary Education through which a consolidated report needs to be presented in the monthly meeting of the Primary and Mass Education Division (PMED) of Department of Education.

Other tasks of supervisor are support-related works like in-service training, lesson demonstration, collection of statistical data and information and school-community relationship and financial management. Equally important task is the control over or participation in the financial management of the schools, which is an explicit responsibilities of supervisors in Bangladesh, Korea, Nepal and Uttar Pradesh (IIEP volume 1, p. 28).

School / Supervisor Ratio: Low school / supervisor ratio definitely can play effective role for influencing of functions school system. But , it is too difficult to say that what ratio would be reasonable and worthy because it depends upon the types of responsibilities, transportation network mechanism and logistic support made available for supervisors. The table presented below is borrowed from IIEP Vol II p.38, which compares school supervisor ratio across surveyed countries.

Table 1: School Supervisor Ratio Across Surveyed Countries

Countries	Supervision by	School ratio	Teacher ratio
Bangladesh	ATEOs	18.6	80
Korea	Junior supervisor and supervisor	3.2	63
Nepal	Supervisor	32.9	173
	Supervisor + resource persons	16.3	85
Sri Lanka	SLEA officers	10.6	193
	Master teachers	44.0	796
Uttar Pradesh	ABSA (all posts)	67.9	188
	ABBA (occupied posts)	83.2	231

Note: For Bangladesh, Korea and Uttar Pradesh only primary schools are taken into account, in Nepal and Sri Lanka both primary and secondary schools are considered. Information given on supervisors + resource persons' of Nepal represents 40 districts of BPEP- I system.

Recruitment: Recruitment of a school supervisor has been a critical issue in several countries. There is always debate about the criteria to be adopted for selection of supervisors regarding the consideration of type of academic preparation and type of experiences required for.

Bangladesh was a single country which has made provision of 2nd class master as basic academic background for entering supervisory force while college graduate was considered to be basic qualification in all rest of surveyed countries. In Korea

and Sri Lanka experience in education / teaching was added to basic qualification to become a supervisor. However, in Sri Lanka, candidates having university degree and 22-26 age level had no restriction to sit in competitive examination of supervisors with condition of acquiring experience after recruitment. Except Korea, all countries had adopted the system of internal promotion for fulfilling supervisor posts varying in the percentage to be promoted. Sri Lanka and Uttar Pradesh have practice of recruiting teacher cadre for supervisors of education cadre. For instance, in Sri Lanka 30% seats are promoted for those who have 3 years of experience as a principal and in Uttar Pradesh 10% seats are fulfilled by promoting head teacher cadre with 10 years of experience.

Training: Korea and Sri Lanka were viewed as having the system of induction training. In Sri Lanka, SLEAs officers were given 6-12 months residential training before entering into education administrative service and Master teachers were forced to attend 10 days residential training as Master trainers. Korea has developed 60 hour and 30 hour training for supervisor and junior supervisor respectively even though supervisors don't require to take these training courses. Even having said so, a survey conducted in 1990 reported that all of them had received some hours of training and one third had received more than 100 hours training in an average year.

Career development: Career development indicates the scope to make up the career ladder. Career development system within supervision framework surveyed in above countries were viewed that every country has adopted some kind of promotion system for those who enter into education cadre varying probability of being promoted. But those who enter into supervising system from teaching force had to rely on teaching cadre, specially Master teachers of Sri Lanka and resource teachers of Nepal.

In Bangladesh for ATEOs there is 20 percent probability being promoted to upper stage in contrary to TEOs having provision of 80 percent to be filled from internal competition. In Sri Lanka officers at III require 10 years of experience before being promoted to next level and promotion for class I is even harder as they have to wait for a very long time. Career development in Uttar Pradesh is disappointing where they have to wait 18-20 years or more for promotion and large number of supervisors retire from the post of first appointment.

In Korea, junior school supervisor and vice-principal are considered to be horizontal status. Junior supervisor need to have 17 years of teaching experience and 2 years of supervision for being promoted to school supervisor and they need to have 22 years of experience to become principal.

Workload: Most of the supervisors reported that their main task was classroom supervision, but that is not happening. Perceptions collected from the personnel

involved in supervisory activity regarding high weightage given for the type of activities were interesting. According to them, 56.2% time, was spent on school inspection (not specified the areas covered) in Bangladesh, 54.5% was reported to be administrative / office work for Korea, 44.3% for SLEAs officer and 39.7% for Master teachers in Sri Lanka were recorded as class supervision and supervising physical infrastructure activity was considered to be 30.3% in Uttar Pradesh.

Similarly, low weightage involved activity was also reported differently in the surveyed countries. Analysis of the data indicated that activities like in-service training in Bangladesh, report writing in Korea, other in Sri Lanka and plan preparation in Uttar Pradesh were weightaged as 12.8%, 4.7%, 6.6% (for SLEAs) and 3.1% (for Master teachers) and 1.8% of their workload respectively.

A Proposed Model

A case study on school visit is illustrated below, which may match with the activities of Nepalese supervisor during school visit. Studying this typical school visit might help in having appropriate blend of supervisory system in a country.

Case study: Pakistan

This case study is based on feeling expressed by a secondary school teacher having 13 years of teaching experience regarding typical school visit.

"Typically, the supervisor arrives five minutes before school starts and as soon as the bell rings, he gets hold of the register (where teachers sign in every morning to record their presence). He then has 'explanation call' of all the teachers who are late. They beg and plead, and the lady teachers especially, they cry, and tell him that that was the only day they were late. The bus tire got punctured, or their child was sick. One excuse after another."

Asked if the supervisor visited the classrooms, the teacher said:

"Yes, he goes into the classes sometimes. He will ask for the class in which his own subject is being taught. For example, a supervisor with a background as an Urdu teacher, will go into an Urdu class and ask the students to explain the meaning of a verse. Even if the students know, they and the teacher are all so nervous, they forget. Then he asks the teacher, "How long have you been teaching?" she will say 'Ten years, sir', and replies, 'How come the students don't even know this? What rubbish have you been teaching them for so long?' All this in front of the students! Sometimes he also goes through a few copybooks. All he wants to see is the teacher's signature on the copybook, to make sure she checks it. He doesn't know or care what is written in there..."

The teacher was asked what happened after the visit. He replied:

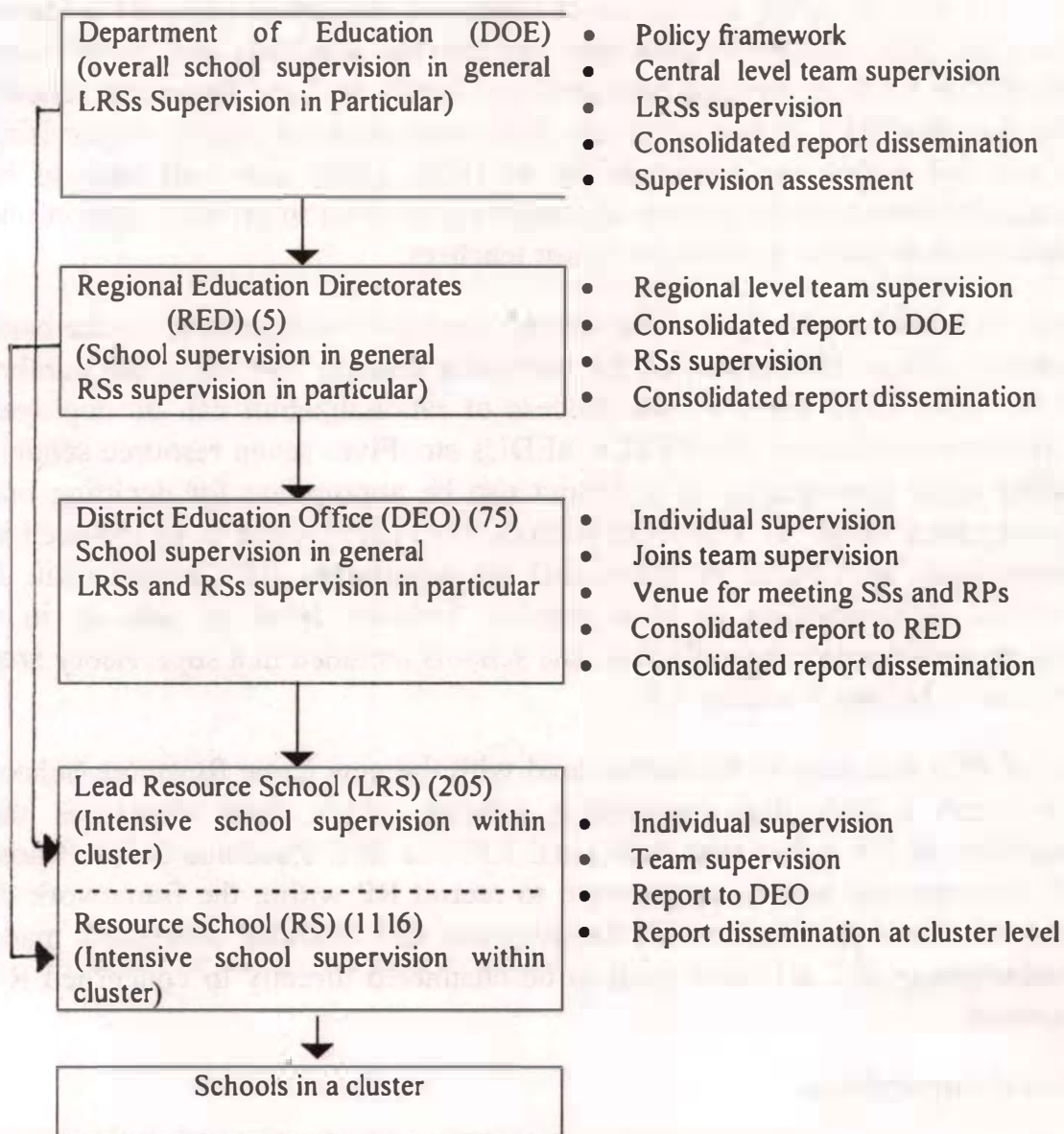
"Nothing happens afterwards. For that, {the supervisor} would have to enter it into the 'service book', which is the official record of a teacher's career. Nobody does that. They don't want to hurt the teacher's chances of promotion. Who knows how many children he or she is bringing up on that salary?"

Source: Ali, M.A. (2000, IIEP).

The model illustrated below describes briefly the level of supervision to be made for the type of schools to be supervised in the responsibility of institutions under DOE

system. DOE at the centre is expected to undertake overall responsibility of school supervision. This proposed model argues to adopt both individual supervision and team supervision in the responsibility of institutions, which includes major components of both administrative inspection and instructional supervision depending upon the level of supervision is to be made.

Conceptual Framework



The Conceptual Framework has suggested to have four-tiers of supervision system- Central level, Regional level, District level and Resource School level. Central level supervision has stressed to perform supervisory activity at Lead Resource School through team supervision and regional level supervision also includes team supervision as a focal point. District level and RS level supervision are expected to be performed by individual supervisor and RP in their respective supervisory area.

However, central school of a cluster needs to organize a team supervision in a respective RS level in addition to individual supervision. The structural and cultural adjustment to be made and dilemma to be likely encountered in each level of supervision are pointed out. Before this, assumptions made in imagining this type of supervisory system are listed below.

- ADB technical team has already submitted Secondary Education Development Plan to MOES which has suggested to establish 200 lead resource centres from among 1331 RCs of BPEP system for professional support to other RCs. Based on this plan, 205 resource centres who can provide academic and professional support for the teachers' development need to identify as Lead Resource Schools (LRSs) from best RCs representing one from each electoral region. Supervising LRSs will fall within the responsibility of DOE. LRSs also will have to be encouraged to introduce the system of mentoring in order to provide support and guidance for their junior teachers by senior teachers.
- The post of school supervisors of the district need to be rationalized on the basis of resource schools determined for the particular district. Surplus in the number of school supervisors made by the process of rationalization can be deployed them in needy institutions like PTTCs, SEDUs etc. Five- seven resource schools depending upon demography of a district can be appropriate for deciding one supervisory area. However, two more schools from each cluster to be included in one supervisory area could be reasonable for monitoring RP's school visit. A proportional representation in total number between level of schools in a supervisory area needs to be reflected. The schools included in a supervisory area do not need to be supervised by RP.
- Notion of RCs will have to be restructured with the new name Resource School (RS) in such a way that supervising schools within their cluster is the responsibility of RS rather than individual RP. For this, Resource School (host school) management will be empowered to recruit RP within the framework of recruitment policy provided by the Government and financial provisions made for conduction of RC activities need to be channeled directly to concerned RS management.

Central Level Supervision

DOE has to be given overall responsibility of supervising schools. For this, it needs to have a steering committee representing various national technical institutions and teacher's union for approval of standard criteria, measures and mechanism in assessing the performance of various schools. Once the common criteria and performance indicators have been selected and information system have been set up, DOE needs to develop a roster of potential supervisors from a person having 10 years or more teaching experience plus belonging teacher education service with

class I or II. Following functions have been suggested to be performed by central level supervision.

- Finalization of guidelines, performance indicators, and format for supervising and reporting subject to be circulated to all institutions who hold supervisory activities of school level.
- Constitution of supervisory team consisting 3-5 specialists and 1-2 other experts of department system based on number of schools to be supervised, as planned. This type of supervision will include explicitly, the components of instructional supervision like instructional strategies, curriculum implementation, lesson demonstration, facilitation of action research, and need-assessment for intervention. However, ratio of administrative inspection and instructional supervision ratio is suggested to be 25:75.
- Collection of reports from central level supervisory team and RED office in order to develop consolidated supervisory report leading to dissemination into national seminar.
- Conduction of supervision assessment based on supervision reports and field visit.

DOE is also suggested to use SLC result in identifying subject areas where national achievement seems poorly performed, if subject areas are to be prioritized. Duration of visit is suggested to be 25 working days (one month for one team.). A short orientation program for supervisory team is also desirable.

Regional Level Supervision

This level of supervision is similar in nature having difference in the level of schools to be supervised. RED being responsible for implementation of educational program in region should be made responsible in organizing team supervision based on the supervision policy framework made available by DOE. A roster of specialists needs to be formed in a region for supervisory activity to be carried out. The supervisory team is expected to demonstrate good teaching, establish mentoring relationship and share information and experiences with the teachers of supervised schools. The duration of such visit is suggested to be 15 working days and number of teams should be based on the number of schools to be supervised, as planned. RED need to prepare consolidated report based on reports collected from supervisory teams. A ratio of administration inspection and instructional supervision is suggested to be 50:50.

Resource School Level Supervision

Centre school of the cluster needs to be empowered with the mandate of supervising school within cluster. RP recruited from RS management should be assigned in monitoring the system information as desired by EMIS system of DOE and resource school as a whole should be made responsible for sharing information and delivery of materials within own cluster. RS should also be instructed to organize team supervision within cluster with their human resources and other experts within a cluster. The duration of such team visit is suggested to be 7 working days and number of schools to be supervised will be determined by the resources they have or based on approved plan. RS level supervision needs to include both inspection and supervision with the ratio of 75:25 having provision of both individual and team basis supervision. RS needs to prepare report based on collected reports from individual RP and team leading to submission to DEO. RS also should be instructed to disseminate yearly report stating strengths and weakness in RS level seminar. RS level supervision also needs to focus on joint planning, class observation and inspection of physical facilities and recording/ reporting system.

Possible Issues and Solutions

Numerous issues may immerge in the debate forum in adopting aforementioned supervisory system. First, additional resources would require to implement envisioned measures. The principal fact is that quality costs much. However, budget allocated for monitoring activities in central level institutions are reported to be under-utilized and budget estimation under travelling cost are also not consumed as estimated. So, realizing the need of supervisory activity as an effective tool that contributes into student achievement is a major concern. Reallocation of budget head carefully and centralization of monitoring budget in DOE might be possible solution for resources needed in this concern.

Second, utilization of teaching force for supervisory activity may hamper school teaching, can also be raised as an issue. But, a good plan, trying to identify potential teachers from retired and dropped teaching group might be fruitful. Creation of teacher posts in a pool to be financed by project related components can also promote this concept. According to education regulation, schools can enjoy two months long holidays either in summer or in winter depending upon demography of a country. So utilization of teaching force, who are enjoying long vacation into those areas where schools need to open, for supervisory activity, could be reasonable idea for less hampering in teaching.

Third, out sourcing for supervision tasks breaks the capacity development of bureaucratic supervisors, has also some logic behind it. Experience learned from Sri Lanka. Bangladesh and Korea might be instrumental to revise entry requirements for supervisor in a long-run by making provision of recruiting supervisors from various

sources with the system of competitive examination. Another best idea is the approval and implementation of HRD plan presented on the mid-term review meeting held on March 2002. The plan talks much about a continuous coherent staff development program combining quality induction training with regular in-service opportunities in order to enhance capacity of RPs and school supervisors.

Finally, part-time supervisors loyal to one school may not keen to support in other schools if they see them as competitors (Ali, 2000). But supervision activity conducted in the responsibility of institution rather than individual basis promotes the idea of belongingness and sense of guardianship perceiving it 'support' rather than 'control. Balancing between teaching and supervision with overall goal targeting all round development of a child, if internalized, within actors of education, is an urgent need of a country that needs to be materialized in every area of education.

Conclusions

Academic preparation, pedagogical skills, professional commitment and psycho-socio related factors (motivation, regularity, and attrition) have positive correlation with quality of teaching. Supervision system of Nepal has revealed either role conflict between school supervisors and resource persons, or undefined role between the institutions under MOES system. However, DOE initiated team supervision for 20 districts in this fiscal year can be regarded as encouraging step towards the growth of instructional supervision even though it was started without academic preparation.

Overall development of a child through high student achievement is a ultimate goal of education which requires professional development of a teacher and high performance of a school. Institutional supervision with involvement of an individual and a team in the form of external-supervision, inter-school supervision and in-school supervision can enhance quality education.

Since this is a discussion paper in nature which demands inputs, comments and suggestions from concerned personalities and institutions in order to develop and implement appropriate blend of school supervision system in a country. The model suggested above can be an area of research study to identify the need of a country and to explore possibilities of adoption. However, actors of education field can express their experiences how this model can contribute to promote student achievement in a real sense. Moreover, developmental partners (donor community) can show their interest in piloting this much talked modality to provide feedback to the Government leading to further implementation.

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Early Childhood Development for Improving Internal Efficiency of Primary Education

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Effective Early Childhood Development programs not only contribute to the all-round development of children during the early childhood period but also can have significant impact on children's enrollment and retention in primary schools and on improving the efficiency of primary education. Common sense as well as an increasing number of studies suggest that children who develop well are more productive in later life. Fostering healthy child development results in fewer requirements for remedial programs, high retention, low dropout and high promotion rates.

There are compelling reasons for having positive effects of early childhood development on children's attainment and internal efficiency in primary education. Many early childhood development specialists however argue that early separation of parents and child, and formal and inappropriate educational experiences and harmful peer pressures could be irreversibly detrimental for the child's development (Moore, R.S., & Moore, D.N., 1990). It is, therefore, important that the program be well designed and effectively implemented.

This paper deals with an analysis of the qualities of a well designed and effective early childhood development program, a critical assessment on how early childhood development can improve efficiency in primary education and present some examples of early childhood development programs having positive impact on improving efficiency of primary education. At the end, a conclusion of the paper is presented.

Qualities of a Well Designed and Effective Early Childhood Development Program

A poorly designed early childhood development program can be detrimental and harmful to young children in their proper growth and development. There are good examples of ways to improve care and enhance early childhood development in a variety of settings. These include programs of home-based support and education of parents or other immediate care-givers, child-centred programs of community development built around integrated attention to the child, and centre-based programs of many kinds. It is important that any form of early childhood development program should have important qualities. In order to design and implement quality early childhood development program it is important that the program has the following basic components:

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Child-centred and Gender-sensitive

In order to make the program child-centred and gender-sensitive the program should focus on interactive activities and encourage the child to actively learn and practice new behaviors. Interaction and actions are important for child's learning. Development and learning occur continuously as a result of interactions, with people and objects, in the environment. Children are active participants in their own development and learning. Learning involves the child's own construction of knowledge through exploration, interaction with materials, and imitation of role models. It is important to emphasize on individual and small group activities with much movement and physical activity with minimal sedentary activity, and encourage the child's autonomy, responsibility, exploration, and problem-solving.

The care and all other activities of the program should be appropriate to a child's stage of development. It is essential to recognize that there are age-appropriate foods and age-appropriate care. The program should consider the individual needs and interest of the children and extend services accordingly. The caregivers should therefore be warm and attentive to the child's needs and pay attention to all the children without any discrimination. In the enrollment and in carrying out indoor and outdoor activities there should not be any discrimination between girl and boy child.

Holistic Development of Children

Cognitive, social, cultural, physical and emotional dimensions of a child are interwoven. The child's whole context, the physical surroundings, the emotional context, relationships with others, and the immediate needs at any moment affect a child's development. It is universally recognized that young children cannot be educated without concern for health, safety, and physical care. A child development program should therefore emphasize on fulfilling both physical and psychosocial needs of a child. One of the basic principles of child development is that the child's development cannot be compartmentalized into health, nutrition, education, social and emotional variables. All of these are interwoven in a child's life and develop simultaneously. Progress in one area affects progress in others. Similarly, when something goes wrong in any one of those areas, it has an impact on all the other areas.

Converge Health, Nutrition, Early Stimulation, Water and Sanitation Services

The multidimensional nature of child development calls for a convergent program that includes health, nutrition, early stimulation, water and sanitation services. It is important to recognize that the needs of the young child are interdependent and therefore any measure for the development of the child must be based on the holistic approach and implemented within the frame of an integrated structure. The integrated approach can be useful in many ways. It can give equal emphasis to the

psychosocial and physical needs of the children. It can minimize the cost of the program by preventing the duplication of work and by increasing the efficiency of the functionaries. To provide integrated services, an institutional integration of various organizations responsible for delivering services related to health, nutrition and education of the child should be initiated.

Involve Parents and Community People in the Program

The child's own home, the neighborhood and social networks have a powerful influence on the child's well being. Child development is fostered if the family's and community's knowledge, culture and cultural patterns are respected. Children learn through interaction with people, places and things. The parents and community people need to be encouraged to participate in child development program activities. The program developing the family and community need to be taken as an integral part of ECD program in order to foster child development and ensure sustainability of child development programs.

Recognize that Children's Needs are Different from Adults

Children at early childhood stage have developmental needs and capacities that differ from the needs and interest of the adults. Children's attention span at this stage is considerably low as compared to that of the adults. Each child at this stage learns in his or her own ways and develops at his or her own pace.

How does Early Childhood Development Improve Efficiency of Primary Education?

There are a number of compelling reasons that support improving internal efficiency of primary education. However, as discussed earlier, it is important that an ECD program should be effective. The major factors responsible for improving the efficiency of primary education are discussed here.

Child-related Factors

An effective ECD program develops a series of necessary qualities for the children that help them to enroll in primary education and improve their performance. The ECD graduates tend to have the following qualities:

Ability to be away from the parents and family members

Proneness to attending the school/centre

- Ability to communicate with outsiders
- Ability to introduce oneself
- Interest in singing, dancing and playing individually and in groups
- Independence in taking care of basic physical needs and personal health habits such as using toilet, putting on and taking off clothes and shoes, washing hands, eating, taking care of personal belongings, etc.

- Using pen, pencil, writing pad, books, etc.
- Ability to color, paint and draw
- Ability to read and write some alphabets and numbers

All these qualities are directly relevant to a child for his/her well adjustment and better performance in primary school. The health and nutrition related services at the ECD centre make a child physically fit—free from any physical deformity and ailment. Early stimulation activities undertaken in the ECD centre make a child psycho-socially competent to enter primary school. The foundation laid during the early childhood years largely determines the achievement of children in primary schools and later life. Children's habit of attending the centre, active participation in learning activities, ability to adjust in group, reading and writing competencies are the major factors that positively affect the efficiency of primary education.

Family/Parent-related Factors

A well-designed ECD program not only targets to develop the children but also supports the parents and family members in increasing the level of their awareness about child development and increases their participation. As a result of it, the parents and child care-givers at home become aware of the various needs of children and they develop a habit of taking care of children and continue to provide necessary supports for children's education at primary level. Such a behavior not only increases the enrollment rate of children in primary education but also positively supports in improving their internal efficiency.

School-related Factors

The availability of ECD program in the community directly helps in reducing the under-aged children from Grade 1 in primary schools whereas non-existence of ECD services in the community is likely to increase the number of under-aged children in Grade 1 in primary schools. The early childhood development program under the Basic and Primary Education Project was initially started to serve the purpose of making separate under aged children who came to primary schools along with their elder brothers and sisters or who happened to get enrolled in Grade 1 under the assumption that this grade is the customary entry point to formal schooling. It was expected that the provision of Shishu Kaksha would both directly help in the teaching and learning activities at the primary grade by removing the under-aged children, and that it would prepare the under-aged children for joining Grade 1.

Some of the examples of ECD programs having positive effect on improving internal efficiency in primary education are presented below:

Some Examples of Improving Internal Efficiency in Primary Education as the Result of Early Childhood Development

Internal efficiency is measured in terms of indicators such as promotion, repetition, dropout and the retention rates. Various kinds of early interventions can improve the preparedness of children for school, in terms of their physical growth, mental capacities, and social adjustment. These pre-school gains can lead, in turn, to increased enrollment in school, and to improved progress and performance in school. At the international level this is evident from a review by Myers (1995) of nineteen longitudinal studies, all carried out in countries of the Majority World and all of which compared children who had participated in various kinds of pre-school interventions with children from similar settings who had no intervention. In that review.

Ten of the fourteen studies that reported effects on repetition showed there was less repetition and better progress through school for children who had participated in an early childhood program. Of the four that showed no effect, one was carried out in a system with automatic promotion so no difference would be expected.

One of the internationally acclaimed ECD programs of India known as Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) Program, which is providing ECD services to more than 20 million children a year in India has demonstrated positive impact on primary education. The National Institute of Public Co-operation and Child Development (NIPCCD) conducted a major national study of this program in 1992. Kaul (1993) reports that about 300 studies of this program have been conducted either by NGOs or by the Universities.

On the basis of the findings of the various studies conducted so far by different organizations and individuals, NIPCCD (1992) concludes:

In primary schools, children from ICDS areas were having better competencies in language, cognition, conceptual development and behavior parameters than their counterparts in non-ICDS areas. Improvement in enrollment and scholastic performance further indicated a positive impact of pre-school education component of ICDS. (p. 5)

Of all the children (6-14 years) currently in primary school, 85 percent in ICDS and 15 percent in non-ICDS areas were with pre-school experience. This point towards better school enrollment in ICDS areas than in non-ICDS areas and the role-played by pre-school education in retention at school.

Disaggregation of information about children in the age group 5-14 years, both in ICDS and non-ICDS areas, indicated that 89 percent children with pre-school education experience were found to be continuing their education in primary education as compared to 52 to 60 percent without pre-school education in both

ICDS and non-ICDS areas. Lesser percentage of children with pre-school education was found in the never enrolled category, both in ICDS and non-ICDS samples. The findings clearly indicated the positive role played by pre-school education in promoting enrollment in elementary school, reduction in dropout rate and greater retention in primary schools.

In Nepal also most of the ECD programs have been successful in making positive effect on children's lives-especially in improving the children's general behaviors and achievement in primary schools. The studies conducted so far and the information and data available reveal the following facts with respect to the effects of ECD on children and efficiency in primary education:

The most popular early childhood development programs of the Production Credit for Rural Women (PCRW) and Small Farmers Development Projects in the 1980s revealed positive effects of the program on children. The evaluation study of Child Care Centres of PCRW conducted in 1989 revealed that children who joined primary school after attending Child Care Centres performed better in primary schools (Centre for Women and Development and UNICEF, 1989). Similarly, the Small Farmers Development Project of Agriculture Development Bank found the children enrolled in the Child Care Centres were also found more disciplined and physically and mentally better prepared to enter formal schooling (SFDP/ADB, 1995).

The Centre for Educational Research Innovation and Development (CERID) had conducted two studies that assessed the impact of early childhood development program of the Department of Education, Ministry of Education and Sports on children's performance in Primary Schools. The first study was conducted in 1997 and the other in 1998. The first study found that the children with ECD backgrounds have demonstrated the following behaviors in Grade One:

- Children became familiar with the school environment well before joining the formal school.
- Children were attending the school regularly.
- Children actively participated in classroom teaching-learning and extra-curricular activities.
- Children felt at ease with teachers.
- Children were less hesitant and were rarely frightened.

Another study conducted by CERID in 1998 found that in primary schools, the promotion and retention rates of the children with ECD backgrounds were significantly better than those among the children without any ECD background. The proportion of children retained in the schools was significantly higher among the children with ECD backgrounds. These children performed better than the children without ECD backgrounds in terms of promotion as well. The statistics show that among the children enrolled in Grade 1 with ECD background 57 percent of them

were promoted to Grade 2 in the following year. However, of the children enrolled in Grade 1 without ECD background only 41.2 percent of them were promoted to Grade 2. Similarly, the dropout rates for children with ECD background was 24 percent and for children without ECD background was 28 percent.

In another study conducted by CERID entitled In Search of Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD) Indicators: A Contribution to the EFA Year 2000 Assessment (A Country Case Study) the primary school teachers who have children with ECD exposure were asked to state if they found any difference between the children with ECD exposure and the other children who had not been to any ECD program. In this study all the teachers interviewed mentioned that the children with ECD exposure were better in terms of adjustment in the schools and their participation in teaching-learning activities. They mentioned that these children were more confident, actively participated in classroom, learned to read and write faster than the other children, and actively participated in playing, singing and dancing activities without hesitation. The teachers also mentioned that the children with ECD exposure could make friends easily, became involved in group-activities and were punctual and regular in attending school. All these characteristics tend to improve the internal efficiency of primary education.

Conclusions

On the basis of the information available in country and abroad it is evident that a well designed and effectively implemented ECD program can improve the internal efficiency of primary education.

In Nepal, there is a need to conduct a comprehensive and longitudinal study of the impact of various ECD programs being run by government agencies, national and international organizations, and private organizations. There is a lack of information regarding the effects of ECD programs being implemented by various INGOs, NGOs and private organizations on children's performance in primary schools. The organizations implementing ECD programs should be encouraged to maintain a record of children's enrollment to formal schools after graduation from ECD centres. Similarly, the primary schools need to be encouraged to keep a cohort flow record of the children with ECD background and also maintain a record of promotion, dropout and repetition rates by disaggregating the children with and without ECD backgrounds.

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Issues on Language Policies and Practices in Nepalese Schools

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Introduction

There are contrasting views on educational language policy. Single language policy and dual/multi language policies contrast each other. The argument behind single language policy for multilingual country seems to be weak in relation to the children's cognitive development and linguistic human rights. Opposing cultural and linguistic homogenization, various socio-cultural psychologists and socio-linguists have expressed their views with their support of the cultural and linguistic diversities. One of the bases of cultural and linguistic diversity is bilingual/multilingual education policy, which is also a basis of linguistic and cultural human rights.

Nepal is a multicultural, multiethnic and multilingual country. There are more than 60 ethnic groups having their own native languages in the country (CBS, 1991). Besides, there are a number of dialects within different native languages. 'Nepali' is only the official language. There are two different practices in terms of medium of instructions in schools. About two thirds of schools (mostly public schools) are using Nepali as the medium of instruction whereas the others (mostly private schools) are using English for the same purpose. But genetically, none of the Nepalese students speak English as their mother tongue. Issues of linguistic human rights and cultural identities are simultaneously emerging. In this respect the paper will respond the following questions:

- To what extent are the child's language and cognitive development related?
- Do the present language policies and practices of Nepal reflect the linguistic human rights?

There are different theoretical bases in relation with the language and child's cognitive development. Roughly speaking, we can classify these theories into two broad categories: the cognitive conception of language and the communicative conception of language (Carruthers and Boucher, 1998). The former views the language, as a crucial part of human cognition whereas the latter views language as a medium of expression of human belief and thought. However, my presentation will be based on the cognitive concept of language, especially Vygotskian perspective.

In the beginning of the paper, the main purpose and related problems along with theoretical bases of the paper have been presented with some introductory background. The paper describes the relation between language and cognition with the basis of Vygotskian cognitive concept of language. In this paper meaning of linguistic human rights along with different UN declarations have been discussed.

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The Nepalese case of linguistic human rights also included in the paper. Final space of the paper is allocated to the conclusions of the presentation.

Language and Cognition

There is a dichotomy in relation between language and cognition. We can roughly group different views about the relation between language and cognition into two opposing categories. The first view believes that language has an important role to the cognitive development. That is, one of the basic means of human cognition and thought is language. This is what we call cognitive concept of language. It has the view that human thinking is in natural language and its sentences are the vehicles of thought (Carruthers and Boucher, 1998).

The second view about the relation between the language and thought is communicative concept, which is basically different from cognitive concept in terms of role of language to develop cognition and thought. This concept has the view that the language is a means of communicating thought. Therefore, such communicative concept of language has a view that language is nothing more than additional but subordinates aspect of peoples' belief and thought (Carruthers and Boucher, 1998).

In this paper I am not going to debate or argue either of these concepts. However, my presentation is based on Vygotskian cognitive concept of language. The cognitive concept of language does not deny the role of language as a means of communication, but it emphasises on the function of language to develop cognition. According to Carruthers and Boucher, cognitive concept of language means that language constitutes the thought rather than it is required for or is a necessary condition of thought. So, the requirement of language for cognition is included within the constitution.

Vygotsky's theory of cognitive development is based on the assumption that "speech plays an essential role in the organization of higher psychological functions" (Vygotsky, 1978:23). The higher psychological functions as described by Vygotsky are the cognitive activity of the child. It is the mediated activity and is usually performed by the use of signs and tools. So, the higher psychological function or higher behavior refers to the activity that is performed through the combinations of signs and tools (Vygotsky, 1978). Vygotsky argues that one of the main tools and sign for mediated activity is speech, which develops the child's complex psychological function with the help of language.

Relation between language and cognitive development can be viewed with the help of an example. When a child tries to solve a problem, she speaks herself and identifies the processes and steps for the solution. At the same time, if she could not solve the problem, she will appeal with the adult or friend. In this way, child's problem solving activities are first directly related to her internal speech and then the external or social speech. This example shows the role of internal as well as external

speech to the cognitive development of child. K.Bulher's idea about the role of language to the cognitive development also supports this relation. He states:

The achievements of the chimpanzee are quite independent of language and in the case of man even in late life, technical thinking or thinking in terms of tools, is far less closely bound up with language and concepts than other forms of thinking. (Quoted in Vygotsky, 1978:21)

The above example and Bulher's idea support the conclusion made by Vygotsky as "children solve practical tasks with the help of their speech, as well as their eyes and hands " (1978:20). Language has cognitive as well as communicative functions and both of these functions of language are taken as the bases of higher cognitive activities. This argument also supports the Vygotsky's statement:

Language enables children to provide for auxiliary tools in the solution of different tasks, to overcome impulsive action, to plan a solution to a problem prior to its execution, and to master their own behavior. Sign and words serve children first and foremost as a means of social contact with other people. (1978:28)

While talking about the relation between thought and language, Vygotsky's writing explains that language is a determining factor of thought in which language is a linguistic tool of thought as well as the social-cultural background of child. In other words, "the child's intellectual growth is contingent on his mastery of the social means of thought, that is, language." (Vygotsky, 1962:51)

Piaget and Vygotsky have some common views about the language and thought. For example, both of them argue that thought and languages have different origins and initially follow independent roads of development. At about the age of two years, these roads intersect. When the thought becomes verbal and speech rational, thought and speech become overlapped. At this stage children are able to discover the symbolic function of language (Byrnes & Gelman, 1991). Interaction between thought and speech produce verbal thought, which is a tool of higher mental processes or cognitive development.

The main difference between the Piagetian and Vygotskian cognitive concept of language is in the social system, and their use of language and cognitive development. According to Piaget, speech gradually socializes as child develops. He assumes that egocentric speech precedes socialized speech. But Vygotsky assumes that the egocentric speech is always socialized. He argues, "The earliest speech of the child is therefore essentially social" (Vygotsky, 1962). For Piaget, language is a necessary but not sufficient condition for construction of logical operations.

There are some contrasting as well as overlapping parts of Vygotskian and Piagetian views. However, Piaget has emphases on the language for cognitive development. Considering the role of language for the development of cognitive power, the inner

and outer speech of a child is obviously taken as his/her first language, that is, the mother tongue. In this regard, the first language of a child has a dominant role for the cognitive development of the child. Various writings and research findings conclude that second language proficiency is a function of first language proficiency (Holmarsdottir, 2001; Appeal and Muysken, 1987). Skutnabb-Kangas and Toukomma (1976) identify the needs of conceptual-linguistic knowledge for the academic language skills, which are also related to the Vygotsky's idea about scientific language. However, the every day language that involves surface fluency is not sufficient for scientific concepts. In other words, teaching through child's first language facilitates child's cognitive development and second language development. Holmarsdottir also concludes, "children not taught in their native language lack conceptual knowledge needed to better develop their language skills in their native tongue and in a second language" (2001:31).

There is a close relationship between language, culture and cognition as in socio-cultural based theories of cognitive development (Diaz, Moll and Mehan, 1980; Scribner and Cole, 1981; Luria, 1982; Vygotsky, 1962, 1978; Wertsch, 1985). In this regard, the question raised by Henry Trueba (1991) "How do we create a culturally appropriate learning environment in order to maximize cognitive development of children?" is an important pedagogical issue. He opines that recognition of mother tongue and home-school culture is an important aspect in acquisition of literacy in a second language. When we turn to the Nepalese case, there is lack of research on relation between language and cognition of the children. In other way, some studies, show that teaching of primary school students having other than Nepali as the mother tongue is one of the major problems and causes for their low participation, low retention and low achievement (CERID, 1997; MOE, 1997).

Linguistic Human Rights

It is difficult to identify universally accepted meaning and definition of linguistic human rights. For example, linguistic human rights for linguistic minority group may differ from the meaning for linguistic majority group. It is necessary to search the meaning of linguistic human rights, which are equally applicable to both majority and minority groups. When we think of linguistic human rights, they generally link with the rights to the linguistic minority groups. Let me start with the Skutnabb-Kangas' (2000) definition of linguistic human rights. She differentiates necessary and enrichment-oriented linguistic human rights. Right to identify with; maintain and develop one's mother tongue (s); access to an official language; maintain relationship between the other tongue(s) and dominant language and access to language related formal primary education are necessary individual linguistic human rights. Rights for minorities and indigenous people to survive as a distinct groups with their own languages and culture are the necessary collective linguistic human rights. The right to learn foreign languages in school is enrichment-oriented linguistic human rights. Basically, necessary linguistic human rights are related to the basic needs and

prerequisite for survival. Enrichment oriented rights are for good life and above the basic needs.

On the one hand, linguistic majorities have been enjoying linguistic human rights. They are getting their education through their mother tongues, and in most cases their language is an official language. In the same way, they have also identified with their mother tongues and this identification is accepted by every one including school and other authorities. On the other hand, the situations generally reverse in case of linguistic minorities. In these situations, linguistic majority communities are normally not aware of linguistic human rights.

Educational language has an instrumental as well as ideological role (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000). As an instrument, language is a medium and as an ideological message, it is cultural content. In this respect, mother tongue has an instrumental as well as cultural significance. But to ensure equal participation on social and political lives, minority people have to learn dominant language and culture. In this regard, Skutnabb-Kangas' proposal for individual linguistic human rights in education is more comprehensive. Her proposal is that the linguistic human rights should guarantee the relation to the mother tongue, official language and drawing profit from education.

There are several declarations including different UN declarations in relation to various types of human rights. There is not any UN declaration that directly deals with the linguistic human rights. In the UN declarations, there are different types of non-discrimination prescription oriented declarations, in which none of them has adequate provision to support for the minority languages. For example, the following UN declarations, in which language related rights, have been mentioned as a non-discrimination prescription. Article 2 of the Universal Declaration of Human rights declares:

Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status.

It does not state linguistic rights but it stands with implicit non-discrimination prescription. In article 26, right to the education has been mentioned, but it is silent on educational language. In article 2.2 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, language has been mentioned with race, colour, sex, religion, etc. as an implicit non-discrimination prescription. But in the education-related article 13, the language rights have not been mentioned. There are not any educational clauses in International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. The article 27 has spelt out the rights of linguistic minority as non-discrimination purpose. The UN Convention on the Right of the Child states some of the non-discrimination and tolerance prescription on culture, language and identity, for example, articles 8,28,29,30. But there is not any explicit statement.

While analyzing above-mentioned UN declarations, the articles related to language are presented with the general implicit non-discrimination prescription. There is absence of explicit statements on linguistic rights. However, these declarations provide some basis for the states. In this regard, Skutnabb-Kangas' conclusions cover the positions of above-mentioned UN declarations. She maintains "the education clauses are no stronger than covert assimilation-oriented toleration of minority mother tongues"(Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000, 1994).

The UN Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities has declared some of the minority rights including linguistic rights. For example, the articles 1,2 and 4.4 express linguistic minority rights only with implicit non-discrimination prescription. But the article 4.3 has spelt out some of the linguistic rights for minorities. It mentions, "States should take appropriate measures so that, wherever possible, persons belonging to minorities have adequate opportunities to learn their mother tongue or to have instruction in their mother tongue."

This article represents, to some extent, basic linguistic human rights. However, it covers only elementary levels but does not cover all of the necessary linguistic human rights. So, it does not indicate the enrichment-oriented linguistic human rights. At the same time, it raises different questions, which need to be clarified while developing state policy on this matter. Some of such questions are, 'What are the appropriate measures?' 'Does it make any sense with the conditions wherever possible?' 'What do we mean by adequate opportunities?' 'Does it not create confusions with mother tongue medium instructions and teaching mother tongue as a subject?'

On the one hand, UN declarations seem to be non-promotional, and on the other hand, it is only a recommendation, in which states do not need to comply with. The UN Draft Universal Declaration on Indigenous Rights is a step forward proposal for linguistic human rights in comparison with the UN declarations. It states in relation to the right of indigenous people as, indigenous people have,

- The right to develop and promote their own languages, including an own literacy language, and to use them for administrative, juridical, cultural and other purposes.
- The right to all forms of education, including in particular the right of children to have access to education in their own languages, and to establish, structure, conduct and control their own educational systems and institutions.

This draft represents the overt maintenance-oriented promotion of minority mother tongues.

There are a number of commissions, associations, human right groups who are interested in human rights. Some of them have declared their agenda with opposing human rights violations as well as linguistic violations in different parts of the world.

But it is difficult to ensure every one's linguistic rights without a consolidated universal declaration of linguistic human rights. At the same time, it is important to formulate language policy with consideration of linguistic human rights in relation to their own social and linguistic specialties of individual state.

The Nepalese Case

I have already mentioned that Nepal has implemented one language instruction policy and a foreign language as a compulsory subject from grade four. There is also an increasing tendency, especially in private schools, of using English language as the medium of instructions. There is also a provision for teaching mother tongue as an optional subject right from grade one with the management of school/community. In December 2001- the Curriculum Council of Nepal (the apex body to decide school level curriculum) has decided to teach English as a compulsory subject from grade one, but it has not been implemented yet. In these situations, general review of major policy document and sources or bases of policy will be presented with the comparison of the present practice. At the same time, language policy and practices will be analyzed with respect to linguistic human rights perspectives.

In the early 40's, teaching primary grades were in Vernacular and the trend was continued up to 1971. The National Education System Plan (1971-76) replaced it with teaching through Nepali language policy and teaching English as a subject from grade four onward (but the provision is teaching one of the five UN languages) (Koirala, et al, 1992). After 1990, politicians and various ethnic groups raised the issues of language. Even the different human rights groups raised the issues of language with human rights perspectives. At the same time, discussions on language related pedagogical issues were conducted. The Constitution of Nepal (1990) has made a provision for teaching through mother tongue but it is not mentioned as the job of the state/government. It is included as the fundamental rights of the community in which they have the rights to open and manage education through their mother tongue. In the article (18) of the Constitution these rights have been included. As the cultural and educational rights it states:

Each community residing within the kingdom of Nepal shall have right to preserve and promote its language, script and culture. Each community shall have the right to operate schools up to the primary level in its own mother tongue for imparting education to its children.

These provisions of Constitution have ensured that there are not any legal barriers for the community to preserve their language and culture as well as imparting primary education through their mother tongues. Though it is not obligatory for the state. The article (6) declares that Nepali is the language of the nation and the official language, whereas all languages spoken as the mother tongue are taken as the national languages. In spite of the concept of national languages their status and recognition have not been mentioned in the Constitution. However, in the article 25

(2) of the section, the directive principles of the state include the social objectives of the state. The objective is to eliminate all types of economic and social inequalities and to establish harmony with castes, tribes, religions, languages, races and communities. Similarly, article 26 (2) has mentioned the state policy for maintaining the cultural diversity and strengthening national unity “by promoting healthy and cordial social relations amongst the various religions, castes, tribes, communities and linguistic groups, and by helping the promotion of their languages, literatures, scripts, arts and culture.”

These Constitutional provisions on directive principles and policies of the state are not obligatory to the state but it is the priority for state policies. This implies that the state needs to intervene to maintain cultural and linguistic diversity. So we have to overview government’s language policies and practices to identify Nepalese situation in terms of the promotion of different languages and linguistic diversity. That is to say, Nepalese constitution has given a room for linguistic human rights and promotion of different languages (mother tongue) but the sufficiency and appropriateness have to be identified through the analysis of policies and practices on languages.

However, the Nepali language, which has been declared as the medium of instruction in the existing education code-1971 (revised) and education regulation-1996 (revised), contradicts with the constitutional spirit on language issues. In the same way, the curricular provision of teaching mother tongue only as an optional subject in primary grades does not ensure the right to get primary education in mother tongue. If we analyze the language policies and practices of Nepal in terms of linguistic human right perspectives, we find that it does not fulfil the necessary conditions of linguistic human rights. For instance, present policies and practices force to use Nepali as the medium of instructions. Despite the policy support, another noticeable practice is an increasing tendency of using English as the medium of instructions in schools, especially in private schools.

The Ninth Five-year planing document (1998) states that initial work for providing primary education in different national language will be done. But the implementing strategy for this policy has not been developed, even though this is the last year of the plan.

A study report on bilingual education prepared by CHIRAG has recommended for the provision of using local languages to teach courses other than language. There is a reservation in this report to implement this provision. The reservation is that it should be applied in the situations of total domination of a language. (CHIRAG, 2001) But this reservation raises some questions. For example, ‘Which language can be used in the mixed language situation?’ ‘Does it ensure the rights of the each minority language group?’ This reservation does not match with another conclusion made by this report. The conclusion is “learning academic language is much easier in

the familiar language. It is much difficult to learn the other courses through that new language”(CHIRAG, 2001). However, this study of CHIRAG has contributed through analysis of classroom practices and learning difficulties of non-Nepali mother tongue students. Furthermore, it suggests different pedagogical measures including teacher preparation and to overcome the learning difficulties arise from language factor. On the other hand, when we discuss the linguistic human rights of the non -Nepali mother tongue students and their identity with language, such pedagogical answers with language switching (shifting) model of bilingual education seem to be insufficient for the children whose mother tongues are other than Nepali.

Despite these constitutional provisions and planning documents, there are lack of supporting policies and Programs for teaching through mother tongue. Furthermore, the classroom practices have not been changed and the contradictions with policy sources, policy documents and practices have resulted that there is no change in practice. Therefore, the medium of instruction is still a major cause of low participation/ enrollment, low retention and low achievements of the students for non-Nepali mother tongue students (CHIRAG, 2001; Ministry of education, 1997: CERID, 1997; EDSC, 1997). In such situations, language policies and practices need to be revised through relevant studies. Furthermore, appropriate bilingual education has to plan on the basis of needs. It is necessary to reflect children's cognitive development, individual linguistic human rights and cultural/linguistic diversity on the language policies and practices of the state.

Conclusions

Issue related to the medium of instructions is not a single dimensional. The appropriateness of medium of instructions has a great role for children's cognitive development, linguistic human rights and identity formation. There are strong supports for the policy of teaching through mother tongue especially in early grades. The present practices of various states are not seen so encouraging for different linguistic minority groups. The Nepalese policies and practices in this regard compel to use single language, Nepali, as the medium of instructions.

Nepalese language policy is trapped with different notions. On the one hand, notion of national unity through linguistic uniformity, one language policy of Panchayat regime, assimilating tendency with Nepali language and domination of Nepali mother tongue community in different aspects of political as well as social lives have influenced the language policy of Nepal. On the other hand, it is influenced by the rise of multiplicity along with the multiparty system, linguistic human rights movements and educational and theoretical movements for better construction of knowledge and cognition and identity consciousness of different language groups.

Nepalese language policies and practices seem to be weak in terms of individual linguistic human rights. The language policies and practices for Nepal may not be

carried directly with any theoretical model though it is a good base for the starting of discussions. Therefore, the policy has to be developed according to the needs of the community considering theoretical model as the base of identifying the needs.

Finally, to facilitate children's cognitive development, and to ensure linguistic human rights, mother tongue plays crucial role. While formulating and practicing the language policy, we have to think a bilingual education model for the purposes of identification, function and competency. However, realising the diversified situations of Nepalese society, a single model of bilingual education may not work efficiently. For this, different strategies and Programs have to be developed through relevant studies.

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Introduction

In Nepal quality education has become a popular slogan in the context of school education from the last few decades. It is widely known that one of the main aspects of quality education is teacher education. But despite the efforts made by the Ministry of Education and Sports to increase the percentage of trained teachers in the school system, the number of trained teachers has remained relatively low. The latest statistics (1999) indicate that there are 44.5%, 32.6% and 50.6 % trained teachers in primary, lower-secondary and secondary level of school education respectively. In spite of the priority placed by the government in the training of primary teachers, the percentage of trained teachers has not increased so far. Moreover, the quantity of trained teachers produced by the various teacher education system has not been able to cope with the recruitment of the untrained teachers in the system as well.

Historical Perspectives

Since the dawn of democracy in 1951, the teacher education system was initiated in the country. In 1949, the first teacher education institution was established. However, it was discontinued within a short period (in 1953). The College of Education, as the first degree granting college was established in 1956 upon the recommendation made by the Nepal National Education Planning Commission (NNEPC, 1954).

National Education System Plan (NESP.1971-76) has very much emphasized the importance of the teacher education and has made compulsory for the recruitment and promotion of the teachers. It became a popular program because it was made not only mandatory but also consolidated the teacher education system in the country. Furthermore, it took all possible measures to make school teaching an attractive profession. It went to the extent of building a career ladder as a built-in component of training (pre-service and in-service). Unfortunately, the mid-term evaluation report of NESP made the teacher education system more complicated and an academic disaster by proposing the policy of providing minimum training to many instead of full training to the few.

In the mean time, College of Education was renamed as Institute of Education. now called Faculty of Education and was upgraded to umbrella institute in order to co-ordinate all the training institutions. Various types of teacher education programs were conducted for primary, lower-secondary and secondary teachers by the Institute of Education during the period of 70s and 80s. Furthermore, primary teachers were grouped into two types – SLC passed and SLC not passed and the teacher education

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program was made "A" level and "B" level respectively. Numerous structures of 'B' level training was conducted. Some of the examples were campus-based B-level training program, Remote Area Teacher Training, Equal Access of Girls to Education, Distance Learning Program, On-the-Spot Primary Teacher Training Program, Radio Education Teacher Training Program etc. According to the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Higher Education 1983, the degree-oriented programs are conducted by the Faculty of Education. TU and short duration in-service training programs were the responsibility of the institutions of the Ministry of Education and Sports.

Present Status

Teacher education is categorized into two program: non-credit program and degree-oriented program. With realization of a central level teacher education centre, National Centre for Educational Development (NCED) was established in 1992, as an educational manpower-training wing of the Ministry. Under this centre nine Primary Teacher Training Centres were established throughout the country to provide in-service training to primary level teachers. However, NCED provides various types of short-term training to educational personnel as well. Similarly, Secondary Education Development Centre (SEDEC) was created in 1997 to carryout responsibilities of non-credit teacher education for lower-secondary and secondary level teachers.

The Faculties of Education of four various universities (Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu University, Mahendra Sanskrit University and Purvanchal University) are providing teacher education programs of different levels (B.Ed., M.Ed., Ph.D etc.) Moreover, the Higher Secondary Education Board is conducting proficiency certificate level (I.Ed.) through its 10+2 schools. All these institutions are functioning in order to fulfil the immediate need of both supplying the trained teachers and clearing the backlog of untrained teachers who are already in the teaching job.

The National Centre for Educational Development is made an apex body of non-credit teacher education including certification and recurrent training for primary level teachers. The total in-service training program is divided into four packages. NCED has developed curricula having each of 2.5 months (330 hours) as the mandate is given. According to the policy, first and fourth packages are considered to be face-to-face mode. These two packages are conducted through nine PTTCs under the direct supervision of NCED. Second and third packages are conducted through resource centres in distance mode under the guidance of the Distance Education Centre (DEC) which was established in 1994 (previously Radio Education Teacher Training Project).

Distance Education Centre conducts its teacher education program through radio broadcast, printed materials (self-instructional and radio lesson summary) and contact sessions in concerned resource centres of the districts.

The current structure of teacher education curriculum developed by the NCED for primary level teachers are as follows:

First 2.5 Month (1st Package)

Education Foundations I	45
Nepali Teaching	90
Mathematics Teaching	90
Social Studies Teaching	60
Practice Teaching	35
Examination	10
Total: 330 Hours	

Second 2.5 Month (2nd Package)

Education Foundations II	45
English Teaching	90
Environmental Science	90
Physical Education	30
Creative and Expressive Arts	30
Practice Teaching	35
Examination	10
Total: 330 Hours	

Third 2.5 Month (3rd Package)

Primary Education and Community Development	90
Nepali Teaching	35
Mathematics Teaching	35
Social Studies Teaching	35
Practice Teaching	35
Examination (Electives-choose one)	10
Classroom Organization or Non-Formal Education or Home Science	90
Total: 330 Hours	

Fourth 2.5 Month (4th Package)

Child Development, Curriculum and Learning Theory	90
English Teaching	35
Environmental Science	35
Physical Education	17.5
Creative and Expressive Arts	17.5
Practice Teaching	35
Examination (Electives-choose one)	10
Evaluation Techniques or Teaching / Learning Materials or Physical Education	90
Total: 330 Hours	

Evaluation in both modes (face-to-face and distance mode) have same procedure i.e., 40% internal evaluation and 60% external evaluation (paper-pencil test). Pass mark is determined to be 50% in internal and 40% in external for each subject independently.

Teacher education for lower-secondary and secondary level teachers was one of the main component of the Secondary Education Development Centre (SEDEC). It conducts the teacher education program through 25 Secondary Education Development Units (SEDUs). In the beginning it conducted 10 months (2 months residential and 3 months internship in participant teachers' school in each time i.e., 2 + 3 and 2 + 3) in three subjects such as English, mathematics and science.

But in 1996 this program was discontinued on the recommendation of loan revision mission because of high unit cost and only 15,000 teachers could be trained during the project period (METCON, 2001). After discontinuation of 10 months teacher education program. SEDEC developed 2.5-month basic teacher education for lower-secondary and secondary teachers in 6 core subjects. Two and half month program is divided into one month residential and one and half month school-based practice teaching.

Issues and Challenges

The teacher education system in Nepal is guided by the need of clearing the backlog of the untrained teachers. Moreover, the unchecked entry of untrained teachers in the teaching force is creating another problem. In fact, the essence of teacher education program is "quality" and in its absence, teacher education becomes not only a financial waste but also a source of overall deterioration in education system. Due to the expansion of schools and increment of number of students year by year on one side the question of coverage of teacher remains as a striking issue but on the other side the challenge lies in making the teacher education more responsive, effective and efficient in so far as its quality is concerned. Hence, the concerned personnel have to think how to bring quantitative expansion and qualitative growth of total teacher education system side by side.

Some of the major issues and challenges in the current scenario of the teacher education are as follows:

- a. The primary level teacher education program has been made as 10 months. The piecemeal approach of teacher education i.e. one package at a time, is taking a lot of time. Upto now only 46 percent of the primary teachers on the job have 1st package (face-to-face) training out of 4 packages. With the current capacity of NCED (to train 4,725 teachers per year through 9 PTTCs, it will take 12 years to provide training on first package only without recruiting the new untrained teachers and not violating the rules and regulations once set for teacher education. In fact, the issue is the lack of consistent adherence to the policy. However, recently a new curriculum for primary teacher education has developed in three phases namely-first, face-to-face, second, distance mode and third, internship which can be considered as an innovative step. In other words they are designed as Basic Training (330 hours), Content and Professional studies (660 hours) and Practical Applications (330 hours). The new curriculum has been developed on the basis of the teachers' competency-needs.
- b. Distance Education Centre conducts second and third packages in distance mode and has a capacity of 10,000-teacher education per package per year. But it has to wait for conducting continuous training because of

comparatively low capacity of NCED teacher training program. That is the second and third packages completers have to wait for fourth package (face-to-face conducted by NCED). Furthermore, there is a lack of provisions to ensure that all teachers get all the four packages in a planned period of time in the current teacher education program. At the same time, there is no continuity of the training provisions of a same teacher for all four packages because different teachers are selected at different times. Due to this situation from 1993 to June, 2001 only 3,763 teachers have completed 10 months (four packages) teacher education program.

- c. The present teacher education program is focused on in-service teachers only (NCED-face-to-face and DEC-distance mode). There is still no provision of pre-service teacher education made mandatory. Absence of institutions to provide pre-service training is a major policy issue for the government. About twenty private PTTCs have no capacity to enroll the desired number of new teachers for pre-service training. Actually the enrollees in these institutions are not having the quality training as well. This is recreating the problems of having untrained teachers in the teacher education system. Moreover, it is a challenge in providing trained and qualified teachers in the teaching force as per the need of the schools. However, recently a 10 months pre-service primary teacher education curriculum has been developed by NCED.
- d. Teacher education needs to be regarded as a continuous process. Technological advancement, innovative techniques and know-how have made teaching a challenging job. But in our context, most of the teachers are still in the same traditional way of teaching i.e. "chalk and talk" and not of using even the basic educational technology in actual classroom.
- e. The methods of teaching followed in the schools are different from those advocated and actually implemented in teacher education. They just observed the formality of finishing the prescribed number of lessons with little caring for the soundness of pedagogy involved in the process. In many cases, lectures are dull, monotonous and uninspiring, Due to which learners do not take interest in learning. As a consequence of this the quality of teaching / learning is very low.
- f. The quality of teacher education depends upon the updated curricula, activity oriented pedagogy, supportive classroom, conducive school environment and time-to-time refresher training to the teachers. Furthermore, monitoring, supervision and evaluation of the teacher education play a significant role in improving teachers' professional quality. But the present context of teacher education program is guided by the concern of expanding quantitatively only and has not thought of aforementioned qualitative aspects due to which the

teacher education program is not directly applicable to the classroom situation.

- g. Lack of motivation, lack of feeling responsibility and attractive incentives have a long-term effect on the professional competence of the trained teachers. Study reports showed that most of the trained teachers are found not practicing the knowledge and skills they have learned in training to the actual classroom. This, however, has failed to bring the expected performance of the students.
- h. Different institutions have developed different teacher education programs based on their own perceived needs. However, there is no clear institutional linkages and co-ordination among them yet. For example, besides NCED, DEC and SEDEC, DOE, BPEP resource centres (1331 in number) provide 10 days recurrent teacher training as well as technical and professional support to the cluster schools. Moreover, about 20 private institutions (under NCED), higher secondary schools (under HSEB), Faculty of Education, T.U. and Kathmandu University are offering various types of programs such as pre-service, in-service and degree-oriented teacher education.
- i. The improvement of teacher education lies on the provision of amount spent on it. If one looks at the financial support for teacher education the amount is relatively less (below 2%) in Nepal than the total budget practiced (less than 6%) in other countries. Hence, it is difficult to have effective and efficient teacher education. BPEP I has made provision of 4.38% for teacher education (including certification 1.1% and recurrent 3.28%). However, BPEP II (1999-2004) has managed 20.83 % (i.e., 5.44% for certification and 15.39 % for recurrent training) out of total basket funding. Similarly, SEDEC had spent 28.6% amount on teacher education (14.6% for certification and 14% for various recurrent training).
- j. In enhancing professional skills of primary teachers and effective teaching/ learning in the classroom the teacher educators or the trainers need to be qualified and experienced especially in the primary education. They should have refresher training time to time so that they can develop better and practical curriculum and provide effective training. On the contrary, the institutions like NCED (including PTTCs), DEC, FOE and even the private PTTCs do not seem to have such trained specialists in primary education. At this status, one cannot expect a sound curriculum and provision of quality teacher education.
- k. The concept of resource centres (RCs) in bringing about improvement in the quality of teaching of the teachers through regular supervision and teacher education was in practice from a long time in Nepal. But up to the present

time it could not play any significant role in performing effective classroom instruction. In addition the RCs are not developed as resourceful as should be.

Thought for Future

Teacher education is one of the most important sub-systems of the overall education system. It plays a significant role in developing sound and quality education in the country. On the contrary, it is not happening in the teacher education programs in our context. The issues and challenges mentioned above indicate that there is a need of improvement and reorient of the present teacher education system in the various areas such as access, quality, concerned institutional capacity. Moreover, teacher management, including teacher recruitment, student-oriented classroom teaching, practical teacher education curriculum and delivery etc. need to be improved. This can be done through:

- a. Teacher education should be made mandatory for teaching at the school level. The modalities and strategies of teacher education need to be shifted more towards open learning and distance mode (Radio, Television and other appropriate and viable media) and other alternative approaches. Untrained teachers should not be given opportunity to join the teaching profession anymore.
- b. Pre-service teacher education should be given to new teaching force and should be made as an entry requirement of school teaching. For this pre-service program need to be institutionalized and should be made available on a continuous basis focusing on child psychology, sociology and pedagogical understanding of how children learn in different subjects.
- c. There should be a provision of a need-based recurrent training program each year and refresher inputs at an interval of every five years of their initial training for those teachers who are already serving the schools as the Human Resource Development Plan insisted. More meaningful, interesting, teachers' need-based and practical aspects of school-based activities should be included in these inputs. Furthermore, all the teacher education institutions should have developed adequate and appropriate teacher educators in the concerned areas. Otherwise, it is better to stop the teacher education of the present type without improving the capacity to provide quality training.
- d. A monitoring and follow-up mechanism should be established on a regular basis within the framework of NCED activities to ensure the quality control of the teacher education system. Based on this, feedback should be given from time-to-time to the teacher educators and teachers' training institutions. If necessary, teacher education curriculum and packages should be revisited

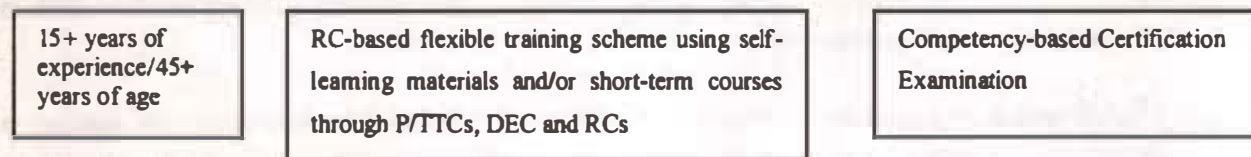
accordingly. The process of teacher education program should emphasize on providing adequate skills with innovative practices.

- e. The highly theory-oriented teacher education concept should be replaced by need-based and competency-based, activity-oriented teacher education. The delivery of teacher education should be based on more use of appropriate educational technology and knowledge for better planning, better organization, increased meaningful communication and proper evaluation of students as well as teachers.
- f. The teacher education institutions should be made resourceful in terms of physical, technical and personnel involved in this respect. Institutional linkage and networking should be formed by co-ordinating through an authorized national body for teacher education.
- g. The quality of instruction in primary schools depends upon the academic qualifications of the teachers as well. Several studies have revealed that the present academic level of SLC holders is inadequate to teach at primary schools. Hence, the concerned agencies need to reconsider the academic qualification for a primary teacher so that they will be able to handle the present curriculum and textbooks effectively and efficiently.
- h. Though the resource centre concept is very useful, it has not provided support services as expected. It is due to several factors. Some of them are lack of educational supplies, training materials, audio-visual equipment, technical competence, capacity and commitment for developmental work of the resource persons etc. In order to make RCs more functional there should be the concept of Lead Resource Centres (LRCs) need to be identified from among 1331 RCs of BPEP system as suggested by Secondary Education Development Plan.
- i. Recently a provision of teaching license system is going to be introduced for the teaching force. It is mentioned that there will be competition test among teachers with teaching license in selection and appointment of new teachers through School Management Committee and only trained teachers are eligible to sit in licencing test. In the mean time, the serving teachers will be provided a temporary teaching license for the time being and within five years they have to receive a permanent one otherwise they have to quit the teaching job (HLWCE, 2001). It is a positive aspect of the government policy for quality education if it is operationalized properly and boldly.
- j. There should be an impact study of the teacher education program on the quality of instruction in order to build an improved teacher education program. Furthermore, conducting action research by training institutions need to be encouraged.

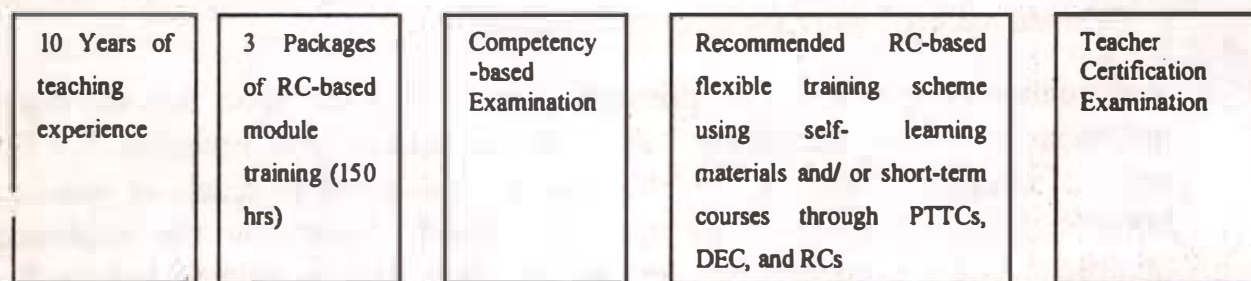
Special Scheme Envisioned

MOES has been running various types of training through its institutions. Thinking the current reality as well as the needs, a long-term (15 years), a medium term (10 years) and short term (5 years) vision is developed. There are some special schemes proposed by MOES for those teachers who are already in the teaching cadre for a long time but still untrained. They are,

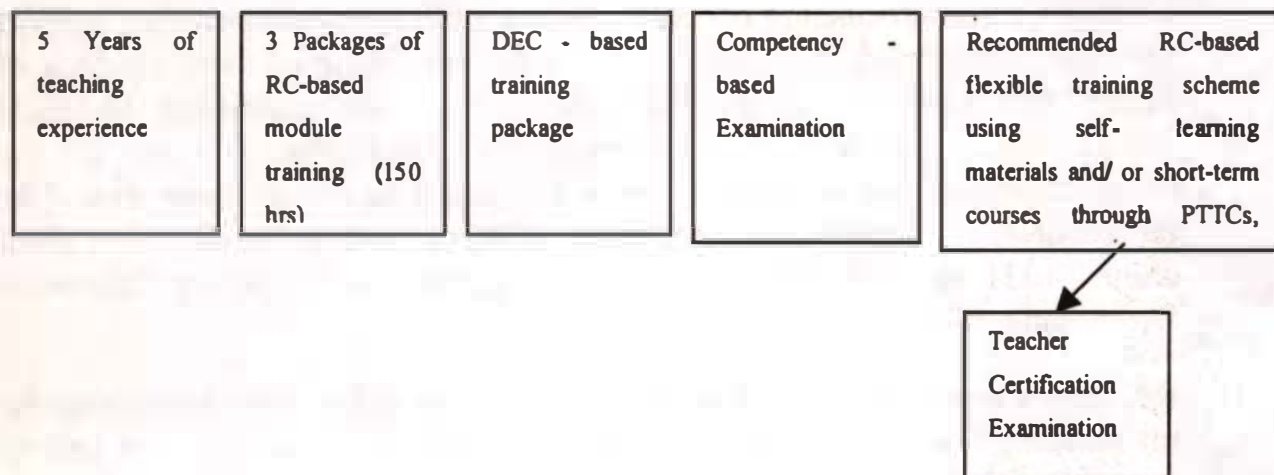
a.



b.



c.



Though the above models of teacher education seem reasonably good, however, the concerned agencies need to be prepared for this change. The curriculum and training materials should be developed accordingly. Moreover, there should be co-ordination among all the teacher education institutions in implementing the prescribed curriculum of model-based teacher education.

Conclusions

Despite the various efforts made upto the present time, more than 50 percent of the primary teachers are still untrained. If the existing teacher education system is going to be continued, it needs to be reorganized, restructured and revised in order to bring school-based quality education. As per the seventh amendment of the Education Act 1971, the MOES has to train about 40,000 untrained primary school teachers within five years. At present there is no section in the MOES to plan for proper teacher education. The NCED is not only adequately staffed but also it has no professionally qualified teacher educators. If the MOES has to create a sustainable system of teacher education program, it should build professional as well as instructional capacity in the central and regional training centres. Moreover, MOES should develop NCED as a central body of teacher education and all other training institutions should keep under the umbrella of the NCED i.e. under the guidance of NCED. Then only the teacher education system of the country will sustain.

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Information Technology Education in Nepal

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Background

Nepal is one of the world's poorest, most backward and least developed landlocked country sandwiched between two gigantic neighbors, China in the north and India in the east, west and south. The total population of the country is about 23.1 million according to the population census of 2001. Out of this population about 85% people live in rural areas and the population growth rate is 2.27. But the development activities are far behind to meet the needs of this rapidly growing population. Also, more than 40% of the total population is living below the poverty line and only the 57% peoples are just literate. Among these literates also, a very low portion of the population has attained higher degrees and only a few percentage is highly qualified and skilled. But almost all the qualified and skilled peoples are concentrated in the urban cities, especially in the Kathmandu valley, the capital of Nepal. Therefore, the rural peoples are still compelled to live their life in their own traditional ways and in misery and isolation, far away from the modern and comfortable life style. In fact they are down trodden, marginalized and do not have any access to modern facilities. They are very much ignorant of technological advancements in the world.

Nepal is well known for its natural beauties and also it is rich in natural resources. But due to dependence on traditional means, lack of skilled human resources, capable and strong leadership, prevailing corruption has compelled the country to remain as it was, backward and poor. Failure to accelerate along with the world's technological advancements, Nepal is unable to utilize its human and natural resources properly, which otherwise could have lead us towards development and self-dependence like Singapore, Taiwan, Korea etc.

Many years have passed since the landing of a spaceship on the surface of the moon. Many countries have been industrialized, many countries which were behind us made progress and have become self-dependent but the condition of Nepal & Nepalese is gradually deteriorating. Those countries which made progress and became able to uplift their living standards is due to their commitment and proper utilization of technological inventions and advancements at proper time and place with honesty. Technology has become the basic building block of every nation and is a heart of every activity at present. None of the countries will be able to build the infrastructure for development and bring her people into main stream of national development without utilizing the technology. It is also impossible to uplift the living standard, become self-dependent and attain progress and prosperity. It has also emerged as the largest source of income generating activities. But Nepal has been

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unable to tap the technological advances and also missed the agricultural and industrial revolutions in the past. Both of these revolutions lead few countries into success, prosperity and all round development of their nations.

The 21st century is known as the age of "Information Technology (IT)*" and the world is being driven by IT revolution. Invention of computer lead to the rapid development and prosperity of IT. It is another gigantic step towards the prosperity of mankind. Though much other technological advances were making the world narrow, the IT has crossed the geographical borders and barriers and converting the world into a single society in the form of cyber village. IT is a very rapidly growing field, which provides many opportunities for employment, income generation, open learning, advertisement, business, commerce etc. It is also equally important to increase the knowledge, competitiveness and efficiency. Millions of professionals and workers are engaged in this field. Many countries have made it one of the main source of their national GDP. Our neighbor China has made a big progress in hardware sector while the another neighbor India has made the similar progress in the software sector. But Nepal, sandwiched between these neighbors though not left far behind is still lagging and struggling to realize the power of IT in the real world, otherwise which is especially suitable for all round development of landlocked country like Nepal. Therefore it is the right time for Nepal to accelerate the development of IT and if the country misses the IT revolution as it was with agricultural and industrial revolutions, the country will be left stranded with a huge unrecoverable gap between it and rest of the world.

IT in Education: Creating New Horizon and Opportunities in Teaching and Learning

The world is drawn into the drawing room with the invention of Internet, and hence a person with a good skill can surf around the world easily sitting in his room, in front of a computer. Internet is a big sea of information where every information about every aspect and every part of the world can be found. It has possibilities for use in almost endless range of locations and purposes. Education sector is also not an exception of these enormous opportunities provided by IT. Access to information is as central as education to building human capabilities and it also gives content to knowledge. IT has changed the ways of thinking, behaving, learning and teaching. The world is being driven by information and information has become the power.

Since the information and creativity gives competitive edge, students and teachers should be critical thinkers and users of information to succeed in their life. Along with the advancements in IT, the objectives of learning has changed significantly from the acquisition of routine facts in a classroom setting to the acquisition of information through drill and practice (Shakya, 2001). Information is no longer

* IT is a term used to define the combination of computer technologies with the telecommunication technologies.

subject to the libraries of an institution. Information can come from anywhere, at any time and any place.

World Wide Web (WWW) has provided the opportunity of information sharing and gathering, sharing opportunities and experiences, critical thinking, problem solving, complex reasoning, collaboration and communication. It has changed the way of delivering the curriculum. The traditional ways of classroom teaching using blackboard and chalk has been significantly changed into the smart classroom which is equipped with modern multimedia facilities. Education sector is therefore, is not isolated from the developments in IT sector which has deeply influenced the education, changed the teaching and learning environment, the objectives and the strategies instead of the mere acquisition of the routine facts in a typical classroom setting. IT has provided an easy, time saving, and personalized way for study, opportunity to enhance skill, broaden the knowledge, participate in discussions and seminars etc. It has changed the learning paradigm from passive or role learning to self directed learning. The www and the development in the multimedia have made the knowledge dissemination instantaneous and available to masses. Students can gather information in an easy way, select and structure the concepts themselves using different IT tools. Similarly, they can select the modes and paces of learning according to their personal choices using various tools e.g. drill and practice, multimedia presentation, self-test modules etc. It helps in getting prompt response from the teacher, instructor or the friends using e-mail and also helps in building a strong intellectual bond between teachers and students. Students can become more active, can raise personalized questions which can't be asked in a face-to-face mode. Repeated teaching of subject matter according to the students demand can best be served by computer. Therefore, one of the best use of computer and the web is as a learning device.

Distance learning is the another sector emerged, widely spread and influenced the educational institutions and students along with the IT and specially the www. It provides the opportunity of learning any where, any time. Its popularity is categorized by its flexibility in time, modes and comfortability. The regular classroom activities can be found in the net. Students can become a part of global classroom without being physically present, attend lectures, seminars, conferences, discussions in real time happening anywhere in the world (Shakya, 2001). This type of distance learning also provides poor nations access to higher quality education and training in advanced countries and can be one of the means of cost-effective solutions for bridging the digital gap. This mode of teaching/learning could also be much better means for Nepal where places are inaccessible due to geographical barriers. The www is the source of knowledge not only for students and teachers but has become the marvelous gift for engineers, doctors, researches, scientist and every other person including common man.

Education On IT: Developing Human Resources to Accelerate Development and Prosperity

We are living in the age when technology is the dominant discourse of the society. The technological strength and technological know-how determine the wealth of a nation. The economic progress is now fully driven by the knowledge and the industry-based economy has been transformed into the knowledge-based economy. The countries with a strong telecommunication infrastructure, skilled human resources in IT and access to the information and hence knowledge are supposed to be progressing more rapidly than the others. Hence, IT has been embraced with highest priority by most of the nations for their all round development. On the one hand, it has emerged as the largest source of national GDP and on the other hand, it provides better health services or education to poor and rural people, to increase agricultural productivity etc. IT is equally important for better quality of life (e.g. E-governance, e-commerce, open learning, data conversion, tele-medicine etc.). It is also emerging as a powerful tool in transforming social, cultural, economic and political life of every society worldwide. It is a pervasive input to almost all human activities and it is breaking the barriers to human development by breaking the barriers to knowledge, participation and economic opportunity (UNDP,2001).

IT is deeply influencing the every corner of life, society and the nation. There is a high demand for IT professionals and workers and is increasing rapidly. The demand is too high compared to the supply in developed nations also. Therefore, to fulfill this shortage the demand is turning towards the third world, where the labor is cheaper and unemployed. The IT professionals and workers are getting more lucrative, prestigious, high salary jobs and less chance of unemployment. Therefore, the young students are much attracted towards the IT education and the pressure on IT related educational institutes is increasing in developing countries also, as it has been the case with developed nations. Nepal is also not isolated to this uprising scenario. The IT sector is considered as one of the key and most potential economic sector for Nepal. The IT institutions and industries are growing unprecedentedly in Nepal also and are providing the services like software development, medical transcription, call centres, GIS, digitization of maps, data entry etc. within the country and outside. IT is evolving as the biggest and fastest growing industry. The product of IT industry is 800 billion US dollar worldwide and is increasing at a rate of 15 percent per year. It is estimated that the product of IT industry will be 5,000,000 million US dollar by 2008. The government of Nepal has also approved the IT policy 2057(2000) with the national vision of exporting the IT related hardware and software of around 10,000 million rupees (Nepalese currency) within the five years and placing Nepal on the global IT map. Similarly, according to the worldwide report on IT published by the World Bank, Nepal office in 1998, it is indicated that within the 15 to 20 years Nepal can export IT services of 1,000 million US dollar and that will increase by 30 percent per year. These figures show that there are possibilities of unprecedented increase in

investment in IT related industries and institutions all over the world including Nepal. Moreover, to fulfil these targets there will be a high demand of skilled IT human resources within the country and abroad. Therefore, if we are able to place Nepal on global IT map then it could be naturally more significant than its global physical status. Moreover, it can prove an effective mean in eradicating the poverty and uplifting the living standard of peoples along with the prosperity. But the problem is the extraordinary rapidity of change that technology encapsulates. Therefore to diffuse and handle the rapidly changing technology and to integrate new technologies into the existing systems and network, skilled, trained and qualified human resources are needed. The success or failure of individuals and nations depends on the hands of skilled and qualified human resources. Hence, keeping in mind the opportunities brought by IT and to explore the maximum benefit from the bright future of IT, we must accelerate providing education on IT, producing highly qualified and skilled human resources, from top level to operator level while reducing the digital divide.

Historical Background of IT Education in Nepal: Started with IBM 1401, the 2nd Generation Computer

The history of computer in Nepal is not very old. Though the fixed time span can not be given for different stages of computer development, depending on the activities that took place at different periods the development process of computer in Nepal, can be divided into three stages. Introduction of computer for the first time in 1970 is the milestone and also a first step taken towards the development of computer in Nepal, nearly after three decades of invention of computer. In the month of Shrawan 2028(1970), IBM 1401, the 2nd generation computer system was brought into use for population census purposes for the first time. This computer was hired on monthly rent, which was later bought by National Computer Centre (NCC) in three hundred thousand rupees on 1st December 1978. In 1974 National Computer Centre was established to develop computer expertise among civil service workers, to widen the use of computer in different fields and also to handle national and governmental IT issues. In the same year, a "Computer Seminar" was organized for the first time to high light the computer activities. In 2034 BS(1979), NCC conducted training in "Autocoder Computer Programming" in cooperation with IBM World Trade. Similarly, the NCC organized a workshop of computer users for the first time in 2035 BS(1979/80) and in the same year it provided a three week training on advanced computer programming (Fortran 4). In 1970 Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) trained 15 persons for data processing purposes of population census of 1971 and it was the 1st training as well as 1st step towards the computer literacy and education. In this way the initial phase of computer development in Nepal was very slow and sluggish based on the 2nd generation computer while the rest of the world had already entered the 4th generation by the end of 1970s. During 1970s, the computer was mainly used for data processing purposes only. The NCC was the only

national focal point of computer. It was busy in creating the computer awareness among the government and private organizations.

For the 1981 census, some staff of NCC were trained in UK. In 1982, NCC established a training division for the first time. The activities during 80s are vital for all round development of computer in Nepal. The latest computers were brought into use. The demand for the computer hardware and software was increasing at a rapid pace in the government as well as the private organizations. The government passed some crucial laws like Industry Enterprises Act and the Foreign Investment Act, which opened the way for foreign investor's to invest in Nepal. In the same year the foreign company MIPS Pvt. Ltd. started retail operation in Nepal as the dealership of Apple company and similarly an American investor established a Nepal based company "DSI" which started one year computer training course to develop in house skilled human resources. This period is remarkable for the modern development of computer that provided the entry point into modern computer world. Therefore, these activities during the 80s can be categorized as the 2nd phase of computer development in Nepal.

The 1990s and onwards can be seen as the golden days of Nepal's computer world during which the computer industry started blooming up rapidly. The formal computer education at school and college level was started from 1990 and 1994 respectively, the computer association of Nepal (CAN), the professional body of computer expert's was established in 1992 which is playing active and leading role to establish computer infrastructure in Nepal. The internet wave arrived in Nepal & some ISP providers started their services, *Ministry of Science & Technology (MOST)* has been established in 1998 which is trying to bring IT into national mainstream of activities. During this period the Nepalese computer world has seen a quantum leap.

Present Scenario: High Demand of IT Education but Shortage of Top Level Professionals

Nepal has a very short experience in computer education. It has still not crossed its infancy period in this sector. In 1990 only the formal computer education was started when the introductory computer curriculum was introduced in grade 9 & 10 as an optional paper in school level. But due to the lack of infrastructure and skilled technical human resources a very few schools only are conducting this course. Now, though there are more than 37,000 schools, only students from 272 schools have appeared in SLC with computer as one paper, till last year - 266 students from 22 government secondary schools and 4,148 students from 150 private schools. But most of these schools are from within the Kathmandu valley. Similarly around 400 junior private schools are conducting informal computer classes.

The Ministry of Education & Sports(MOES) introduced the computer course in higher secondary level (10+2) in 1999. But still only 47 institutes affiliated to higher

secondary education board are conducting the computer science course. Like at higher secondary and secondary schools level, the country has a very late start of computer education at university level. It was 1994, when Kathmandu University started bachelor of engineering in computer. Tribhuvan University started the engineering (B.E.) course in 1998 and B.Sc. in 1999. After the establishment of Purbanchal and Pokhara universities many institutions started conducting the computer courses in affiliation with them. TU has started the ME course in "Information and Communication" from December 2001, is planning to start M.Sc. from next year and is in a stage of introducing the computer course in M.Ed also. Some private colleges are conducting the M.Sc., MCA and MIT courses. At present, there are all together 21 colleges and institutes which are offering computer education with different names like BE, BSC, BCA, BIT, BIM, BCIS, BITM etc. There is a high pressure on IT related institutions and the attraction of the young generation towards IT is increasing rapidly. Though, more than 100 thousand students try to seek admission in IT related courses each year, but in Nepal, very few students, only around 1200 get admission in different colleges affiliated to foreign universities and four universities in Nepal. But the government has yet not been able to introduce the computer course in other faculty like humanities and social sciences.

Like formal education, the demand for informal education is also increasing. CTEVT conducts computer courses and at present there are 165 institutes under the CTEVT umbrella and only seven are conducting 3 years diploma courses. After the completion of the course, students are supposed to be able to work as skilled middle level manpower. The Ministry of Science and Technology is also conducting the skilled and semi-skilled level computer training with an objective of producing 50,000 middle level professionals and operators in total within two years. Similarly there are around 1000 private computer training institutes all over the country which are conducting short-term and long-term non-formal skill oriented computer training programs. Few of these institutes are renowned, provide very good theoretical as well as practical knowledge and quality training and they also have affiliation with reputed institutes and colleges abroad like India, Singapore, UK etc. Though the quantity of institutes is growing rapidly, but due to the lack of an apex body for coordination and control, the quality of most of the institutes and colleges is left unchecked and hence these are turning to be profit oriented instead of providing quality service. If the quality of these institutes is checked and regulated properly, these training institutes and schools can certainly be able to provide a strong base for entry level expertise in IT.

Though many institutes are imparting skill oriented training and universities are producing more than 1000 graduates every year, the shortage of top level IT professionals is still being felt. There are very few peoples with Master degree and almost negligible with doctorate in IT sector, which is one of the serious problem for

the country like Nepal where the IT sector could be a potential source of economy & could be a major contributor in poverty alleviation.

Digital Divide: A Serious Social Crisis Created by Information Inequality

We are living in the age of knowledge and information. It has opened the doors of opportunities for every person and nations including the poor and underprivileged to live a more comfortable and prosperous life. On the one hand the world is looking forward and the peoples have high hopes that new technology will lead to healthier lives, greater social freedom, increased knowledge and more productive livelihoods [HDR]. It is hoped that the IT will soon bring the transparency of government, universal access to information, the formation of new international communities, health and life enhancing information to ordinary people, technical know how to farmers, prosperity of democracy, globalization of market etc. On the other hand there is danger that the gap between rich and poor could widen alarmingly. The present widening economic gap between developed and developing nations is due to technology gap and similarly one of such gaps the world is facing today along with the development of IT is information inequality, which is changing into deep social crisis. This inequality has created a new problem called "digital divide". It can be defined in many ways like the divide between north and south, haves and have nots, educated and uneducated, rich and poor, rural and urban peoples or linguistic or cultural divide etc. Digital divide is a term which can be used to differentiate between haves and have nots in terms of their result oriented access to modern IT facilities specially the internet and hence the www with interactive participation. It is not an artificial and intellectual concept, but has become a prominent problem and subject of discussion worldwide as the world economy is being driven by knowledge based industries and every day life has become intertwined with it. But, the poor, backward, illiterate, rural people and hence, the have nots have no access to modern facilities and technologies. Hence, such backwardness is generating and widening the digital divides in the society and is appearing as a serious threat in creating a stable and equitable society.

For the country like Nepal, where still nearly 50 percent people are illiterate and government is struggling to make people literate, the technological gap is much more serious. It is much difficult to spread the technological advances to grass root level and make accessible not only to common man but also to students, teachers and others. Though the government has already approved the IT policy 2000 defining IT sector as the priority area and few professionals are competitive and able to reduce the technological discrepancies between Nepal and rest of the world, the technology gap within the country between haves and have nots, educated and uneducated, rural and urban and among the educated once itself is alarming. Though the government has made the internet connection free to public schools and the Department of Education has started distributing computers to public schools, not all the schools,

teachers and students have opportunity to access to such current technology and internet connectivity due to lack of telecommunication infrastructure, equipments and skilled human resources. In Nepal almost all the technological infrastructures and advances, training institutes, schools and colleges incorporating computer course in their regular classes are concentrated in the urban and sub urban areas. But the rural students, teachers and other peoples are marginalized and are deprived of access to computer, Internet and www. Therefore, there is a maximum possibility of danger that the gap between the urban and rural people could widen seriously. Moreover, it is not possible to provide computer literacy to all and within a short period of time to fill the digital gap due to the impediments imposed mainly by our poor economic condition, lack of technological infrastructures, literacy, English language proficiency and access to computer. Therefore, to reduce the digital gap in the near future, we should at least be able to make computers accessible to all the schools, make computer education a part of our education system and create more training opportunities at non-formal level also.

Recommendations and Conclusions

Recommendations

1. Department of Education (DOE) has started distributing computers to public schools. It has distributed 64 sets of computer to 25 SEDU schools, 2 sets at schools of hill region and 3 sets to the Terai region and also provided one month training to 48 teachers. But 2 or 3 sets of computers are not sufficient to conduct practical classes for all the students within the class hour. The one month training of teachers is also not sufficient to teach at grade 9 & 10 and tackle the technical problems that arise during teaching. Such condition will help non. Instead, computers could be misused eg. Playing games and typing letters. Hence, a sufficient number of computers necessary to conduct practical class should be provided to each school and at least two months full time training should be provided to teachers both in the hardware and software sectors.
2. Distributing computers to 30/40 schools in a year will take many years to equip all the schools with computer facilities. Hence, the number of schools should be increased to as maximum as possible.
3. Instead of training other subject teachers to teach computer, separate computer teachers should be employed to make him/ her more responsible and committed.
4. More than 30% schools in Nepal have no electricity. Hence an alternative provision of electricity should be made available to these schools.

5. Every machine needs regular maintenance. The job doesn't end with equipping the schools with computer hence, a provision for maintenance budget should be made.
6. Computer science should be introduced as a compulsory subject at school level.
7. Basic computer course should be introduced in colleges in non-IT disciplines also as a compulsory paper.
8. Information technology is changing rapidly. Hence, instead of stagnating the curriculum for a long time, a timely change should be made in it.
9. The universities and private sectors in IT must be assisted and facilitated .
10. The IT training institutes should be encouraged and assisted.
11. An Apex body should be set up to coordinate and control the quality of private training institutes.
12. Conducive environment should be created to encourage the professionals to collaborate with Nepalese entrepreneurs and demoralize brain drainage etc.

Conclusions

Although more and more peoples from all walks of life are getting attracted to IT, there are still many people studying at different level, holding different degrees and positions like doctor, engineers, teachers, professors, lawyers, managers etc., who lack even the operational skill itself and struggling to know all about www. This indicates the weaknesses within us and our education system in realizing the importance of subject and adapting it at the earliest, the weaknesses in imparting the knowledge and enhancing the skills, our dependency on traditional means of teaching/learning. Though we are late to some extent, it is not too late to analyze our strengths and weaknesses, and realize the opportunities brought by IT to explore the new horizons and perspectives. We have opportunity to learn from industrialized nations in developing the potential of our people by fostering the creative spirit of adventure. Only planning and policy formulation is not sufficient. Along with policy, we need proper tools to materialize the strategies. Though there are many impediments, a strong determination, commitment of concerned authorities and a concerted effort can streamline the IT education with our education system and make the technology accessible to all to develop human resources in order to take the lead in the age of knowledge and information while reducing the information poverty.

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Teacher's Professionalism and Ten Month Training

Babukaji Karki*

Introduction

It is assumed that education is the supreme necessity of human life (NEC, 1992). It is a process of human enlightenment and empowerment for the achievement of better and higher quality of life. A sound and effective system of education results in the unfoldment of teachers' potentialities, enlargement of their competencies and transformation of their interests, attitudes and values (Khosla, 1998). Education has a special function of strengthening social and educational integrity and mutual harmony in the development of human resources and upholding moral values. Similarly, it helps to make a person mentally alert, socially sound, politically conscious, emotionally stable, physically strong and economically manageable. In this context, an efficient education system is very essential. The teaching learning activity plays crucial role for the success of any education system.

In other words, teachers are special kinds of tools. They not only speak, but also think and they can serve as a bridging devices, links between the learning potential of the curriculum (Hamilton, 1996). Similarly, a well-equipped professional teacher can endeavor to solve major educational problem efficiently. S/He also can provide educational leadership in society. The pedagogical skill, accountability, academic knowledge, etc. are necessary for such special kinds of tools. Professional development of teachers is a very important aspect of teaching. The need for the professional development of teachers is obviously a matter of high priority in any concern of educational development.

In Nepal, a majority of teachers need enhancing knowledge and understanding about the importance of teacher professionalism. At present 46% of the male teachers and 32% female teachers are trained (MOE, 1997 p. 1). A teacher must be a pedagogical leader and skilled planner, which can be developed through training. Nevertheless, the above figure indicates that majority of teachers in Nepal need to improve pedagogical knowledge and skills. Owing to the lack of training most of them are using traditional teaching-learning methods. In order to address this situation, the government has made serious efforts for the improvement of the primary education by investing more than 50% of its total education budget. It has been launching different programs to improve the quality of teaching.

For example, Basic and Primary Education Project (BPEP) has also initiated teacher-training programs to address the issues. One of the aims of training is to develop

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pedagogical skills in teachers. Thus, the overall objective is to enhance teacher professionalism. According to Education Act and Regulations, primary teacher training was decided to be of ten-month duration (1320 hrs) with four packages, each consisting of 330 hours (2.5month) duration (MOE 1998). The first module is to be provided to all the untrained teachers within the first three years of BPEP II phase. The second and third packages are made available through distance mode. At present the numbers of teachers trained under different modules are 14,771 in the first, 6,963 in the second, 1,773 in the third and 3,763 in the fourth packages respectively (NCED, June, 2001).

Teacher professionalism covers a broad area. It refers to quality that includes knowledge of the subject matter, pedagogical skills, and socio-cultural relationship within the school and society.

To have a better clarity of the concept, it would be better to examine the meaning of the related concepts i.e. profession, professional, professionalism and professionalization separately.

Profession

It refers to an occupation which requires a long training, involves theory as a background to practice, has its own code of behavior and has high degree of autonomy (Dean, 199,p: 5). There may be different levels of a profession needed to conduct an organisation smoothly. Special knowledge and skill in related field is necessary to get a profession. These criteria will be determined according to the objectives of the organization.

Professional

A person who possesses ability to fulfil his job efficiently is known as a professional. He has substantial background of knowledge and skill acquired during initial training and thereafter. A teacher can also be known as a professional if he shows high capability or skills to teach his pupils and can promote his capability for further development.

A teacher has to be a life long learner. As Dean (1991) suggested that professional development is a career of long process starting with initial training and continuing until retirement. On the other hand, a teacher should have skills of team work with colleagues, individual counseling for pupils, and contact with parents and local community, professional commitment, knowledge in action and good knowledge on surroundings society.

Brue Joyce suggests that a comprehensive program of professional development should fulfil three functions (Dean, 1991, p: 7).

- 1, Provide adequate system of in-service training for all teachers.

- 2, Provide support for schools that will enable them to fulfil their programs.
- 3, Create a context in which teachers are enabled to develop their potentials.

Many primary teachers show most of the professional characteristics in their teaching activities. However, majority of teachers are not able to show these characters perfectly. The low qualifications, ineffective training curriculum and motivations may be the hindering factors.

Professionalism

It is the characteristics or quality of the profession. Professionalism is the qualitative excellence in professional practice (Socket 1993, p:8). Linda Darling Hammond stated that, the basic problem in public education today is finding a way to meet the diverse needs of students who come to school with varying capabilities, learning styles, psychological pre-dispositions, family situation and belief about themselves and about the school.

There are various characteristics of professional teacher. According to Sockett (1993,p:3) they are as follows:

- 1, A good teacher is efficient, enthusiastic or passionate about the subject as well as fair and concerned for individuals.
- 2, The continuous search for standards and for the best is the heart of professionalism.
- 3, The expert professionalism lay in the ability to construct a learning experience based on carefully chosen questions to take each child's answers seriously and make something of it, and to develop the children's mind through the use of reason rather than authority.

Professionalization

"The process where by an occupation (rather than individual) gains the status of a profession, improving the practice is professionalization" (Sockett, 1993, p: 9) Improving status, providing basic values, professional command, public support, appropriate financial remuneration and the relation between status and practice more clearly are the key things for professionalization of a profession.

Characteristics of the Professionalism

The present ten- month teacher training curriculum appears to have addressed the enhancement of professionalism. The main themes of the curriculum are directed at the professional development of teachers to equip them with necessary background and subject matter including pedagogical skills. There might be various qualities of a professional teacher. Some of them are more relevant while others are less. These important qualities also differ according to the culture, society and situation. However, an attempt is made in the following lines to assess this curriculum with

respect to the four criteria deemed essential for the development of professionalism among teachers.

Character

Everybody has his own character, which differs from person to person. The character of a teacher is an important component of his social and professional view of life. The character of a teacher is also important for maintaining social norm and values in a society. The individual character of each teacher is a critical component of professionalism which includes different sorts of virtues such as patience, courage, determination, respect for children, commitment, (Sockett, 1993, p: 7) enthusiasm, creativity, inquiring mind etc. (Combs, 1965). We miss so much of teaching quality when we ignore character. An ideal teacher has always a clear vision and purpose of his life. As teachers, in the words of Block (1987, p: 123) "we all have strong values about doing work that has meaning, being a real service to our customers, treating other people well and maintaining some integrity in the way we work" (Guskey & Huberman, 1995, p: 253).

Character is the mirror, which reflects the various attributes and vision of a person. It can be developed through education within the fertile educational environment. An efficient, dedicated and well-trained professional teacher is committed to develop the pupil's character positively. Motivation, job satisfaction, effective code of conduct, rules and regulations, social status and appropriate teacher training are the important things for the development of teachers' characters.

The present ten-month teacher training curriculum consists of various subject matters, which support to develop the professionalism through providing different knowledge and skills. The first package includes meaning and importance of education including different educational planning. (Lesson plan, unit plan etc). It also describes preparation and application of instructional materials. The references and supplementary materials provide extra knowledge and skills to teachers.

The present curriculum contains various elements and information to develop the important qualities essential for teachers, however, what has been observed in recent years is that the teaching competency of public school teachers is not satisfactory to the desirable extent, although they are trained under the new curriculum. This has also been reflected in the low learning achievement levels among school children of public schools as indicated by different studies on student learning achievement. (New ERA, 1995 & EDSC, 1997)

Some studies also indicated that there was no significant difference between the teaching of trained and untrained teachers. It seems that teachers' behavior in the classroom is not only affected by inadequate training but also by various other external factors. Political interference in promotion, appointment, transfer, facilities

and incentives are some of the other factors, which divert their accountability from teaching to become follower of a political party or leader.

The characters of Nepalese teachers are also influenced by similar factors. Presently minimum academic qualification for the primary teacher is (School Leaving Certificate) SLC, still 3,634 teachers are under SLC, among them 37% (1,335) are untrained (MOE, 1996). Many of the teachers are working on a temporary basis for a long period. Teachers' transfer, appointment, incentives, etc are generally affected by politics. The majority of primary teachers are unaware about their job description, codes of conduct, educational regulations and characteristics of teaching profession. They use teaching profession as a runway for taking a flight to another profession. The current situation might obviously have its implication for the development of character as a major dimension of professionalism.

The effects of these hindering factors can however, be partially removed by providing knowledge about the importance of teaching profession, teaching ethics, different pedagogical skills, recent educational regulations, job description and skills for the development of socio cultural relationship. Hamilton (1998) stated that a teacher should have adequate understanding of the process of education and its importance in teaching profession. If they have a sound understanding of the nature and meaning of education then their self-esteem and self-determination can be considerably enhanced.

The first package of ten month curriculum includes review of primary education curriculum, definition and importance of education, knowledge of child development identifying children individual differences, group discussion, problem solving, different plans related to teaching, and socio cultural relation etc. These help to enhance creativity, and teachers' performance, which are integral parts of professionalism. The training curriculum has also been found successful in making their students participate in the classroom instruction (Wagley, 1998). This is one of the basic factors of good teaching.

Commitment to Change and Continuous Improvement

A teacher never reaches a plateau of achievement (Sockett 1993). Striving to change seems inevitable for professional growth of a teacher. Children in classroom are never replicas of those who have gone before (Sockett 1993, p:7). They are individuals each with his own particular history, personality, perspective and problems. Considering a teacher must be purposefully engaged in the renewal process of their teaching strategies.

The commitment is also a character of the ideal teacher. Well-trained and effective teachers are those who are both competent as well as committed professional practitioners. The following commitment areas have been identified to perform an integral and essential part of the curriculum for teacher education. Teacher should

have commitment to the learner- i.e.(love for learner, readiness to help learner concerned for all-round development), society- (awareness, community, society), profession-(accountability, responsibility,) active excellencies – (whatever you do, do it well) and basic human values -(impartiality, objectivity, intellectual honesty, national loyalty, consistency etc.). Most of these attributes can be developed through training.

Commitment to change is essential for continuous growth of teaching profession. A teacher should always update his knowledge about teaching skills and subject matters. Training can help to develop these skills. The ten-month training curriculum includes the contents on the methods of teaching in each subject, child psychology, nature of child, readiness to learn, creativity, the learning theories, primary education, community development etc. The teaching methods applied in training are based on group discussion, question answer, problem solving and so on. They help to promote the qualities desirable for a professional, like teachers. The supplementary subject materials and references are also beneficial for the development of intellectual and continuous improvement of teaching skills.

The curriculum is split into four different packages, not provided at a stretch. This obviously affects the continuity of the training. There is no provision of feedback and refresher training while trainees are back to their schools. The teaching profession is affected by various factors in Nepal. The politics is one of them. It plays crucial role for the development of teachers' professionalism. The chairperson of this (DEC) is the chairperson of the District Development Committee. The chairperson is elected from political parties. The chairperson of School Management Committee and majority of the members are nominated by DEC. There is always a majority of politically nominated members and thus most of the decision will be influenced by the political ideology.

There are various organizations and associations of teachers aligned with political parties. Rather than assisting in academic development, these organizations can influence the teachers' appointment, transfer, promotion and other facilities, based on their political ideology. It has been observed that teachers are committed mostly to influential political parties and politics rather than the educational activities needed for their professional betterment.

Depth of Knowledge and Understanding

Socket (1993, p: 7) stated that, "teacher has to have a mastery of what they teach, without it teacher is something charlatan". More understanding on the nature of the profession is essential to develop professionalism among the teachers, as knowledge of the subject matters' important for teaching. The following attributes help in continuous improvement of teaching qualities:

Inquiry: It helps to develop efficiency and develop habit of self-renewal that provides vitality in their daily practice. It includes internalizing norms, habits, and techniques for continuous learning. It must be fueled by information, ideas, dilemmas and others contentions in our environment (Fullan, 1995). Stacey (1992, p:112) puts in this way "A successful innovative organization must have groups of people who can perform complex learning spontaneously, because in open ended situations no one can know what the group is trying to learn. The teaching process must be started without a clear statement of what is to be learnt or how"(Guskey & Huberman, 1995).

Scientific and systematic innovative work, proper use of instructional materials and psychological teaching-learning activities helps to enhance the inquiry in a teacher. The present training methods are based on student centred methods i.e. discussion, question answer, problem solving, survey, etc. There is also a provision of conducting a survey on child behavior in the curriculum. The curriculum also tries to provide relevant knowledge through supplementary and reference materials. However, the research studies indicate that about 38% trained teachers only were using the instructional materials in classroom teaching. (Wagley, 1998, p.14)

Mastery: It is a creative work which is developed through action research, reflective practice, continually clarifying what is important and continually learning how to see current realities more clearly. Fullan (1995) suggested, that learning in this context does not mean acquiring more information, but expanding the ability to produce result, we truly want in life."Mastery involves strong initial teacher education and continuous staff development throughout the carrier" (Guskey & Huberman 1995 p: 257).

Similarly, purpose of the curriculum is to provide teaching knowledge and skills through different four training segments. It aims to develop reflective thinking, creativity and inquisitiveness among teachers. There is a provision of practice teaching in each package. Teacher can apply their acquired skills during practice teaching. Almost all-important content areas necessary for effective teaching have been included in the package. It helps to develop mastery on subject matter. However, as the training does not require the conduction of all the training packages at one stretch, it might not be appropriate for the acquisition of required mastery and competency in teachers.

Collaboration: It is the crucial factor for the proper development of social behavior. A person, who has a good knowledge about social science, ability to work in organization and an open-mind, can work with collaborative way. Various alliances between different organizations, schools and others promote collaboration with respect to professionalism. The culture of the school and professional development is interdependent. The collaborative skills can be developed through training. It is the ability to work in-group for the development of professional skills. Hargreaves (1998

p: 238) stated that, the activities necessary to develop the collaborative culture are sharing, trust, support, joint work and continuous improvement. The teaching methods generally used in training centres emphasis group discussion, interaction, and internal evaluation for the conduct of daily training activities. The training packages also emphasized child-centred teaching methods i.e. discussion, problem solving and different co-curricular activities. Some skills and qualities can be developed through collaborative work.

Primary school teachers of Nepal are not accustomed to work in collaborative ways. Although, it is very encouraging to note that 81% of the trained teachers are found using group techniques in classroom teaching although only 19% trained teachers shared experiences with their colleagues (Wagley, 1998, p: 15). In the absence of collective effort, teaching cannot be improved. There are some contents expected useful for the development of collaborative skills. They are the qualities of leadership, community development and school community relationship. During the training period, trainees work and practice their practical course in-group, which could develop collaborative skills among the trainees.

Pedagogical Strength

A teacher should have good knowledge about “hows” of teaching, questioning, and class control (Sockett, 1993). Most difficult thing to capture in the work of teacher is to get into why they do and what they do, when they do it. Those teachers will develop their pedagogical strength who have knowledge and skills to translate theory into practice in teaching learning process.

A teacher should have a good knowledge about teaching methods. The ten-month teacher training curriculum aims to impart various pedagogical skills among trainees. Contents like preparation and use of instructional materials, lesson and unit planning etc. are useful for developing appropriate teaching skills. The acquisition of such knowledge and skills are useful and necessary for strengthening pedagogical skills.

As the duration of practice teaching extends for about a week in each model the chances for the trainees to practice under the immediate supervision of instructors can be adequately used for better practice. The curriculum explicitly specifies useful content aimed at developing important understanding and skills, which have further to be strengthened during supervised practice teaching sessions. However, the available evidence shows that only 38% teachers really prepared annual plans and 40% teachers developed their lesson plans on their own (Wagley, 1998)

The majority of trained teachers were not having either the annual teaching plan or the evaluation records of the students (Wagley, 1998). This also included lack in the preparation and use of instructional materials, which is crucial for pedagogical strength to be a professional teacher. Most of these discrepancies can be interpreted in the light of the approach conducted during the implementation of training. More

appropriate practical training methods were used less frequently during the training as the available evidence also indicates that majority of the trainers was using traditional methods of training (Wagley, 1998).

The gaps between the conduct of two packages are also responsible for the discrepancy in the acquisition of useful knowledge and practical pedagogical skills. The follow up and provision for refresher training can be considered as a desirable solution to this problem. In general, the training provided by the NCED through its primary teacher training centres has been effective. However, effectiveness can be increased if regular monitoring and follow up of the training is undertaken (Wagley, 1998, p: 24).

Summary

Teaching is a complex job. A dedicated and qualified teacher should have developed and maintained various qualities. There should be various qualities in a primary teacher. In my perception, teacher characters, commitment to change and continuous improvement, depth of knowledge, understanding and pedagogical strength are the most crucial among others.

The present ten-month teacher training curriculum is trying to enhance these professional qualities in a trained teacher. The curriculum is divided into four segments including various relevant courses that support the professional development in primary school teachers. However, the evidence shows that trained teachers are unable to show the skills in practice according to the curricula intent. Thus, there is room for corrections on courses and its distributed weightages for the development of the teachers' competencies. Similarly, different research shows that there are various hindering factors like poor management in training centres, lack of motivations toward their job, inadequate knowledge of trainer in related field and low learning achievement of trainees. It can be improved through refresher training and continuous feedback after regular supervision.

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Institutional Restructuring for Localization of Curriculum Innovation in Nepal

Nakul Baniya*

Localization of Curriculum

Localization of curriculum development is a new name for an old idea. The philosophy behind this is that this type of curriculum brings learners and teachers together. Aristotle (as quoted by Hummel, 1997) explains that education should be limited to what is appropriate for the pupil, taking account of his/her age character and so on. Further, he argues the importance of education through reason, education through habit and calls it an active learning. It covers learning of language, arts, techniques, and moral attitudes. In addition, he says education through reason is characterized by two models: epagoge or learning by induction and learning by demonstration. Indeed we learn only through induction or by demonstration. Epagoge is the path that leads from experience to knowledge. The other one, that is epagogic pedagogy, is a form of teaching that proceeds example to an understanding of cases as science and knowledge. The point of view, which is described above, is generated or grounded on the basis of the situation and as we know that situation originates from the society. Society is based on locality. Thus, localization of curriculum is in fact essential. But the question arises that can such type of curriculum be seen in the practice or not?

There is a lot of debate with centralized curriculum and localization of curriculum. It is source of frustration at the local level that the curriculum is built in the centre and people from the grassroots are considered as disadvantaged. Besides, people do not believe on central curriculum as their own. Because, the need and aspiration of the ground or situation is not usually reflected in the centralized curriculum. Walker (1997) believes that in such a situation curriculum could be the instrument of domination and killer of the freedom. Furthermore, curriculum is an integral part of daily life of the local school pupil. So, local foundation is needed with the delegated authority and resources for locally admirable curriculum. In this respect it is a social creation and making a good curriculum is a public responsibility. The question arises how the appropriate common curriculum could be developed? Which is more important, the child or the curriculum? Here, Kilpatrick views that curriculum is the experience not the subject. This could be a personal, social, moral, and democratic vehicle for learning. Again, how should we go about making a curriculum? There are subject centred, society centred, and learner-centred curriculum. There are different approaches in curriculum making like the Tyler's rationale model, Schwab's practical and eclectic approach, and Freire's emancipation approach etc. Freire's curricular ideas are not purely procedural and Tyler does not specify curriculum in

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advance. It means curriculum making is a public and political process. So, it is clear that in the beginning of this section, I referred Aristotle, Locke, Rousseau, Durkheim, and Dewey for philosophical understandings and Habermas, Bourdieu, and Freire for sociological cultural understanding and Vygotsky for learning and cognition, Mikkelsen and Bjerg, Klafki, Schulman, Piner, Tylor are referred for practical theoretical reflection. According to the case, which is described earlier it demands, the institutional restructuring. Therefore it will be a relevant to refer some aspects of theoretical reflection.

Institutional Restructuring

As the situation changes, curriculum also changes according to the need and demand of the pupils. People in the democratic countries entertain the decentralization. For localization of curriculum innovation too, all the above aspects are needed. Most of the problems in democracy are solved by dialogue, negotiation, political imagination, public judgement, and reflection (Harber, 1995). Further, Barbara (1983) describes both responsibility and accountability are needed in decision-making. For this Habermas (1979) gave another word "commutative rationality". Gadmer (1979) explains this as dialogic character of understanding. Tyack (1995) describes that for the restructuring of the curriculum, mutual accountability, participative democracy, local governance, local partnership, local democratic system, vision of learning, strategic planning and researching, and local institution capacity building are needed. Additionally, education needs to be a local system of learning. To be more effective it should be managed locally as well as nationally and at the level of institution. Thus, to establish the situation it needs, "wisdom of practice"(Ibid). Elmore (1990) says, the main dimensions of restructuring are changes in the distribution of power between schools and their clients, or in the governance structure. For this Callan (1988) suggests freedom and autonomy. Murphy (1991) describes, excellence, environment, knowledge, decentralization, responsibility, and accountability are needed for the development of school-based curriculum. As Dalin (1999) describes, curriculum incorporates both content and process, and has six dimensions constantly pursuing understanding, selecting knowledge content, educating for the future not for the past, emphasizing images, life long orientation and technology. Furthermore, he says there are four areas of curriculum framework like, nature, culture, others and myself. As Tomlinson (1996) suggests, education is not a commodity to be bought, sold or rationed in market transactions. It is a right and a precondition of freedom for all citizens. It involves opening up to knowledge, understanding and abilities. For this quality in education and 'raised standards' are necessary. These things dependent on the commitment from all those involved in achieving a common vision.

Above all, Elmore, (1990) says as long as the theme of school restructuring is fluid and unspecified, it functions well as a rallying point for reformers. In these time-frame of curricular restructuring quality is being emphasized from 1960s, excellence is being emphasized from 1970s, decentralization has been emphasized from 1980s,

and restructuring has been emphasized in 1990s. This restructured curriculum emphasized quality assessment, standard, and tests. In the process of restructuring, the curriculum is developed from phase one to phase two. In phase one decentralization and competition are promoted. In phase two, quality and accountability are guaranteed.

So, the main question is that whether such theoretical phenomena are practical in Nepalese democratic setting or not? This aspect demands the practical explanation for the qualitative inquiry. Therefore, I am going to analyze on localized curriculum of different countries.

Localization of Curriculum in Different Countries

In the foregoing section, I have explained about the philosophical and ideological root of curriculum, where I have referred to the different thinkers to shed the light on curriculum from different perspectives. In all perspectives, the curriculum makers do not neglect the democracy, choice and needs of the pupils. It means they visualize the need of localized curriculum. Here, are some description of the examples of localization of curriculum and institutional restructuring to manage it.

The traditional bureaucratic systems of education in many countries are characterized by a degree of centralized control, a clearly defined hierarchy of authority, and an extensive set of systemwise regulations designed to enforce compliance in curriculum characterization. There have been a few evidences that the people at the local level like parents, pupils, teachers, and school management are not paying attention to apply the centralized bureaucratic curriculum. Nepal is not exception to it. But in the countries like UK, USA, Sweden, The New Zealand, Australia, Denmark, and Norway, the impulse towards democratization of curriculum is intense. Here are some of the examples given:

The U.K.

The UK government moved from a decentralized into a highly centralized system of curriculum decision-making. The other advantaged that the modern societies particularly in Europe appeared to be moving in the reverse direction. There are centralized and decentralized tendencies in social and economic transformation. This has resulted in a very high degree of centralized control over the curriculum. As Goodson (1994) describes, centralization of curriculum control is the response of a nation that goes into a state of “moral panic” and economically as well as socially “at risk”. The other reason is that the traditional grammar school is a subject of nationhood, which surrounds the “national identity”. The contemporary curriculum making policy is a subject of social and economic changes. The question can be asked that why the central authorities are not giving the responsibilities to make curriculum decisions to the school and their local communities.

The situation has been worse by the introduction of centralized and bureaucratized national curriculum in 1988. Obviously there is long continuum, possible level of choice, and freedom for students in terms of curriculum. For example, in Summerhill School UK, despite a national curriculum, school offers some optional subjects and allows some self-directed course work. Paradoxically, however, complete freedom is not necessarily democratic. Most societies are confronted with serious forms of inequality and prejudice-in Britain racism is a major problem. Therefore, a democratic school that doesn't expose its pupils to anti-racist and anti-sexist education is not democratic because racism and sexism are themselves anti-democratic in that they do not regard people as being equal and having the same rights simply because they are human. A democratic school therefore must be involved in the promotion of equal opportunities at some points in the curriculum. In this regard, there are three types of errors. One, the current error of most of the UK schools is to select the authoritarian as the predominant approach. Second, the error of radical thinkers is to make the autonomous or the only right way. The third error from another radical tradition is to make the curriculum democratic, the exclusive approach. The question arises, how appropriately curriculum can be built-in in such a situation. The answer as Churchill says, "Democracy is the worst system of organization-- except for all the others" .The above explanation demonstrates that UK has the tradition of formal control (centralization) and curriculum aspects could not be an exception. However, there is a delegation of authority too at the local level for the preparation of optional curriculum.

The U.S.A.

In his major address, President Clinton proposed "human capital agenda" by emphasizing the importance of human development for the future of the nation. Under his policy statement there are five major national priority areas and among them curriculum is the major one. Furthermore, he (1994) said, "the higher the employee's credentials, the higher her or his rate of productivity." (Brown, et al, 1997). So, he thanked the state and local education authorities for their efforts in localizing the curriculum. In the USA, curriculum is amended or developed in both ways - "top-down" and "bottom-up." In fact, the process of making curriculum is "loose-tight". This symbolizes the decentralization and centralization, prefers "restructuring" and "choice", and contextualize the national issue in the life of the classroom. Resisting consolidation needs autonomy and accountability, which promotes efficiency. Therefore, to develop a "collaborative approach" they established a "collaborative body" of the Curriculum corporation especially after the "sputnik shock". Thus, in the USA, each state enjoys the freedom to experiment with its own curriculum and within a state each school district can pursue its own program and within a certain limits school and teacher are responsible to choose their own syllabus. They can design their own courses without being told what to teach by an official organization. (Brown et al, 1992).

Denmark

The curriculum decision-making complexity is being easier in Denmark because it is localized. It resolves the dilemma in favour of a radical reduction of centralized administrative regulation. It provides more decision making power to school authorities who are supported to construct the curriculum by networking the local agencies rather than planning in isolation. The Danish system, on the other hand, is described as moving from high procedural but low output control, called “steering at a distance”.

Papua New Guinea

An attempt was made to equip students with the skills and competencies, which would be useful for village life. The same efforts are made to develop intellectual skills in a range of practical subjects. These practical subjects are considered as appropriate to the development needs and resources of the immediate community (Currin, 1982 as quoted by Bacchus). Furthermore, the community helps the school authority to build local curriculum in the following ways:

- For religious and moral education, various religious groups and local political parties provide help.
- For health education, the district nurse, sanitary inspector, other local health officials provide support.
- For agriculture education extension worker, progressive farmers render their services.
- For arts, local music, dance, and wood carving, the local artists and craftspeople provide help.

In such a way curriculum changes are successfully implemented. The medium of instruction is the local language in which they are most familiar. Other important thing is that they work together and share the potentials of each other, help each other, and work together.

The Localized Curriculum through Self-learning Module

The language experience approach was tried out by Nepal National Depressed Social Welfare Organization in Tharu community of Chitwan district. The impressive study done by CERID over this language experience approach found that learners are making rapid progress in recognizing the letters. This approach of localized curriculum has certain key potentials like: it is self-learning modules concept and practice, background information on the topic and activities, an integrated approach to reading, writing, literacy and local knowledge.

There has been observed high levels of contradiction between earlier case and this case. Why is it so? Why is formal schooling so rigid and tight and tried to keep knowledge in prison? What is the cause behind it? Whereas in the non-formal sector, flexibility of autonomy has been sustained. Due to the flexibility, I guess learning is being excellent and the LEA program is promoting innovation in the localization of curriculum in this sector. Why does the government does not like to share this experience in the formal school?

On the basis of this case, theoretical pre-understanding practices of different countries, and localized curriculum practices through self-learning modules, I went to the field. I spent one week there and through observation, document review, and interview, collected the data and information. Therefore, in the next section I am going to make interpretation and analysis of the data derived from the field. While doing this I will relate the theories, practices, and cases.

Analysis and Interpretation

On the basis of the previous theoretical understandings and examples of the practices in formal and informal setting, I derived data from the field, generated themes, analyzed and interpreted them. Besides, I tried to compare and contrast the data with my theoretical and practical understandings.

Localized vs. Centralized Curriculum: School is a place where future generations are produced to act locally, nationally and internationally. The localization is based on conversation, negotiation, and all these things are after all democratic practices (Walker, 1997). This is only possible if national and local curriculum integrate each other. Respondents agreed that the localized curriculum preserves the learning interest of those children who are disadvantaged. These disadvantaged children were the Tibetan refugees. When China took Tibet, the children came to Nepal for asylum with their parents. According to the needs of those students, we prepared curriculum, expecting that, through it, it is easy to give knowledge about the cultures and various aspects of Tibetan life in their own Tibetan language. Due the endorsement of this curriculum, the number of the students dramatically increased. They were usually observed as weak as compared to others, because, their parents were uneducated. They often spoke Tibetan language in their home. Therefore, they were weak in English and in Nepali. Due to this reality, the children did not catch teachers' lecture in the class. So the government introduced Tibetan language curriculum to restore learning ability. As (Tyack, 1995) said "a good school making a good society". This indicates that curriculum we use in the class depends upon the success and failure of the pupils.

Decentralization / Centralization: Most of the interviewees agreed that there is still centralization in Government bureaucracy. There is a long ladder for small decision. Take an example of examination in Tibetan language. It did not happened

on time. Tyack (1995), claims schools are places for all students to learn and deal their own problems and find solutions of the problems, discovery, and enlighten.

There is decentralization in non-formal education. Chitwan's case is an example. Government needs like to share this experience in formal education. Progress, policy talk, policy action, implementation, and socialization of the academic knowledge, should come from these roots and ensure radical reform in the process of implementing the curriculum.

Politicization: Localization of curriculum promotes the social efficiency and effects to the market mechanism, too. So, usually school management tries to take the school out of politics. However, politics comes automatically. But the respondents said, "We just like to teach Tibetan language for educational improvement not for politics".

Autonomy vs. Control: Respondents said "on the one hand they (government authority) give autonomy and on the other hand they withdraw it". For example, they gave permission to implement the Tibetan language curriculum. But they did not allow writing exam in it. Here we see contradictions. Here the question arises how we can make a school autonomous. May be the concept of autonomy is misunderstood. The concept of "my language" makes individual active and responsible to produce the climate for quality schooling and it develops the children. (Dalin, 1998, Walker, 1989, Tyack, 1995).

Responsibility vs Accountability: Government bureaucracy has become so large and complex. Therefore, they are not able to address the problems in this diffused situation. In my opinion school should be responsible, too, while they are making curriculum, the management has not organized any seminar involving local community or parental discussion or meetings. I can argue that in order to make local curriculum it is necessary to involve local authority so that they feel responsibility and accountability in this issue. School loose this opportunity knowingly or unknowingly and hence would not get community support.

Structures: Due to hierarchical layers, there was confusion at the authority level too. There was not a professional relationship. Even with me they were suspicious to tell frankly. In other words as Weber (1989) believes there is a red taproom in the bureaucracy.

School culture: According to my own observation the school is "culturally tight and managerially loose". It could create a bridge between home and school. Additionally, the school has self-respecting culture, and eager for knowledge, and has tradition of respecting older people to be honest, and to tell truth. But the school was not utilizing its cultural asset.

Restructuring: Concern about effectiveness and efficiency, faith in teachers' dignity, culture of collaboration, practice of wisdom, institutional innovations, can not be regulated by the top down regulations. Such of these needs bottom up effort. In each effort, one has to be alert to rise academic achievement, reform by restructuring the of mind of the people, work by doing the market survey, promote by ensuring the teachers professionalization and empowerment, increased involvement of the parents in their children's education, create a new form of accountability, bring basic changes in curriculum and instruction, and manage both the restructuring and academic achievement.

Conclusions

Study has demonstrated that institutional restructuring is necessary for localization of curriculum innovation, because, restructuring offers a way to relate education to the ground of democratization for the quality and excellence. The organizational set-up and pedagogical practices are rather primitive and thus needs to reform it as the democratic norms, values and spirit demand. There is gap between policy and practice. Thus it has observed the contradiction and conflict among the bureaucrats, teachers and managers in the localization of curriculum issue. The bureaucrats need to be reoriented and make them far sighted. They need not accept and reject the issue without understanding it. In the grassroot level too, the culture seems almost same. It is observed that there is a greater level of participation and innovation in non-formal education where pedagogical practices identifies further needs.

The experience of other countries clarifies that this could not be the political agenda for both parties. There are various paths to answer this issue. Among them contextualization, integration, as well as collaboration are the main. The examination is minor. You can take the exams in your own respective schools. The main thing is learning outcome and its usefulness in the daily life. In the case of language learning there are different types of academic options like submersion, emersion and language transfer policy. Instead of that they had followed uni- layer frame from both sides that block the door of the democratic principles and practices, where problems and disputes can be settled through dialogue, debate, and negotiations.

Therefore, the present authoritarian structure of the government and uni- layer nature of the school management should be converted into democratic form. For that, institutional reform and restructuring are necessary where autonomy, responsibility and accountability are culturally set, where intellectual, emotional independence can be practiced for quality and excellence, where government set the broad guidelines of the curriculum in a very broadest form where, localization of curriculum is possible through local community, pupils and parental choice, where integration between theory and practice is possible.

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