
Education and Development 2005 Vol. 22
Education and Development
Tribhuvan University
Research Centre for Educational Innovation and Development (CERID)
2005

Education and Development
2005

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Published by

Research Centre for Educational Innovation and Development (CERID)
Tribhuvan University, Balkhu
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2005

PREFACE

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June 2004

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Creating Stimulating Physical Environment in Schools

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Background

The importance of proper physical facilities has been well taken into consideration by most of the education development programs in Nepal. The Primary Education Project (PEP) launched by the Ministry of Education in the early 1980s and the subsequent projects - the Basic and Primary Education Project (BPEP) and the Basic and Primary Education Program II (BPEP II) - from the very beginning included physical improvement as one of the major components. The physical facility program of BPEP II included classroom rehabilitation, school external environment improvement, toilet, drinking water, compound wall/fence/playground, construction of new classrooms, furniture for classrooms, construction for resource centres, furniture for resource centres, and construction of the DEO building and furniture for the DEO office. From the beginning of the Primary Education Project period to the second phase of BPEP, buildings for a large number of new schools, resource centres and DEO offices have been constructed and several school buildings have been renovated / reconstructed. Various school physical facility improvement programs have been launched. In spite of this, there has been a continuous concern among educationists and other people about the impact of physical development programs on the teaching-learning practices. How far has the program helped to improve teachers' teaching behaviour? How far has it been effective in attracting children to school? And how far has it been successful in providing stimulating learning environments for the children in the school? Has the program paid adequate attention to the need of young children and children with physical disabilities while developing physical facility plans for schools? These are some of the questions heard every now and then.

This article is based on the experiences gained during the implementation of an action research project entitled Community Based Approaches in Basic and Primary Education, which was undertaken by CERID in collaboration with World Bank and UNICEF Nepal. The main aim of the project was to motivate the local community for the education of their children, improve the quality of teaching-learning in schools and take initiatives for the physical development of the schools. The points discussed hereafter are based on the experiences gained during the implementation of the project.

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Physical facilities of a school should include more than building and classroom

Physical facilities of a school play a vital role in imparting quality education. Effective and efficient functioning of a school needs a reasonable number of classrooms and rooms for administration, teachers and the library. The school should have a supply of clean drinking water and appropriate sewage and toilets. Classrooms should be well-ventilated and admit enough daylight. The floor should not be damp. Desk-benches or mats have to be child-friendly. The classrooms should also have a display of relevant learning materials posted at children's eye level so that children could use and manipulate them as and when necessary. Having learning corners in the classrooms is considered essential. During the construction of the school building and classrooms it is important to keep the local climate in mind and adequate attention should be paid to keeping the room temperature at appropriate level. Safety of the building as well as of the school premises must also call adequate attention. Drinking water should be safe/potable and be placed within children's reach. The sewage system should help to keep the school grounds clean and hygienic. There should be a reasonable number of child-friendly toilets (separate for boys and girls). Similarly, the physical facility programs must pay attention to the requirements of the children with special needs.

Factors that need to be considered during the development of a physical improvement plan

There should be two different types of physical facility improvement programs in the schools: (1) construction of new buildings, rooms and other facilities such as drinking water source, toilets, playgrounds etc. and (2) renovation of the existing facilities. In this regard it is important to take the following into account:

Number and age profile of children. It is very important to take into consideration the number of children and their age levels. The government policy has put the teacher-student ratio at 1:40, 1:45 and 1:50 in the Mountain, Hill and Terai regions respectively. Similarly, the age levels of children at primary school may vary from six to ten years. The physical facilities required for the six year old may therefore not be suitable for the ten year old and *vice versa*.

Place for chalkboard, cupboard, display board, flannel board, pocket chart etc. The classrooms being renovated or under construction should find a proper place for the chalkboard. The teacher should not limit the use of the board to him/herself. Its use should also be available for children. It is, therefore, important that the board be placed at a elevation within children's easy reach. It is better to have at least two chalkboards, one for the teacher

and the other for the children. Similarly, there should be space for cupboard, display board, flannel board, pocket chart etc.

Child-friendly furniture and seating arrangement. The furniture should be suitable for children. The height of the desks , benches , tables and chairs should be suitable for children's age levels. Similarly, other things such as learning materials and equipment should match the age level. The furniture in the classroom should be flexible and the furniture arrangement should facilitate teacher's access to every child in the classroom.

Adequate and proper daylight. As it is not possible to have electricity in remote rural schools, it is important that the classrooms should have enough daylight.

Cross ventilation. Appropriate cross ventilation in the classroom is essential. It is important from children's health perspective.

Consideration for physically handicapped and special needs children. The physical facilities available in the school should also address the needs of physically handicapped children and children with special needs. For instance, if there are children who use wheel chairs, the passage leading into the classroom, classroom door and the furniture should be arranged as required.

Type of the school. The type of the school should also be considered. For example, if the school is a designated multi-grade school, the physical set-up needs to be structured as required. It is generally accepted that a multi-grade classroom should be more spacious and should have more materials than a mono-grade classroom generally has.

Doors and widows. The classroom doors should be such that they prevent unwanted infiltration and the windows (with proper glass panes) should protect the children, materials and equipment from wind and rain that may get in.

Process of developing a plan and initiating physical improvement program

The development of physical facilities in a school should be a common concern for all the stakeholders and beneficiaries. It should also be a concern for the school management committee members, head teachers, teachers, parents, children, and local community people including VDC and Ward members.

For the sustainability of the school program, proper use of the physical facilities and minimization of the cost of physical improvement it is important to go along the following lines. This also helps to pursue the decentralized policy in the development and management of the schools.

- Involving local people (including children) in the physical improvement program.
- Trusting young children (Young children can contribute constructive/ innovative ideas).
- Providing support.
- Motivation for discussions and interactions (no imposition).
- Helping the local stakeholders list and rank their priorities.
- Organising discussions on the need for child-friendly set-up, material and equipment.
- Involving children, teachers and parents in making physical improvement a regular phenomenon. (It should not be made a one-time activity).
- Keeping the children at the centre of the program (i.e. rhyming the physical facilities with the children's physical and psycho-social needs).
- Making the school authorities, children and parents aware of the reasons for the rearrangement/readjustment/transformation within the school/classroom, e.g. they should know the reasons behind bringing the chalkboard down to the children's eyesight level.

Conclusion

In the recent years there has been a drastic change in the concept of teaching- learning. The focus has shifted from unstimulating bookish rote to stimulating meaningful learning. Today, the word *teaching* is no more a focus in the teaching-learning process; the word *learning* is the focus. For a better focus on the changed teaching-learning processes emphasis should be given to changes in the physical set-up of the school.

It is essential to monitor and evaluate the status and quality of the physical facilities that are available and assess their relevance to children's learning achievements and outcomes.

To guarantee that the physical facilities are durable and safe from the engineering point of view in terms of size, shape and structure, and of their conduciveness to a child-friendly environment, efforts should be made for obtaining the help/cooperation of engineering experts and educationists.

Physical improvement program should include a wide range of indoor and outdoor facilities.

It is essential to develop in the community a feeling of ownership of the physical set-up. For this the community people should be involved in the development of physical facilities, from the very beginning as far as possible.

For the proper use of the facilities available and a regular take-care of the facilities teachers, parents and school management should be provided basic training and motivation.

Art As It Matters Children

Ganesh Bahadur Singh

Best learning comes when imagination roams. Imagination begets creativity. Children's art, when left alone, is a work of imagination, a work of creative realm. It is a mode of expressing one's own self.

Schools, mainly English Boarding, devote only a few hours of their teaching time to art. The usual setting in an art class, in many cases, is the teacher chalking down a picture on the blackboard and students copying or painting it according to the direction provided. It is same in most of other media too. Dozens of paints are used up, pages of paper are colored. In the test wrong colour, colouring outside the sketch-line, wrong angle, wrong proportion etc. are considered mistakes and marks are deducted. Students may even fail. This, in the name of the art, is doing more harm than good in building the personality of children. This is mostly to the lack of understanding on the part of adults.

Adults are usually annoyed by the behaviors of younger children. The children stroke a few lines randomly and call it 'ABC'; jot a few lines here and there and say '1, 2, 3'; scribble a straw on a paper and name it ‘apple’ or ‘man’. Adults mistakenly take it as childish nonsense. This is ‘me with papa going to the zoo'.’

Four development stages

Along with physical and mental development, children develop their artistic expression in different stages. David H. Russell (1956) has put the stages in four.

Scribbling Stage (1-4 years): Children at this stage make marks on paper, wall, dust, clay, or even on the plate with food. At the beginning the marking seems apparently aimless, uncontrolled. This scribbling, uninterrupted, is very essential for a growing child. In this act of scribbling, the child receives stimulation, both kinesthetic and visual, from the tracks her actions leave on paper or in clay (Eisner, 1972). Scribbling develops 'eye-hand coordination, which is a pre-requisite for reading, writing and other creative activities. A child may be scribbling, looking elsewhere. It provides the experience of arm, wrist and finger movement.

About six months after she starts scribbling, the child discovers that marks can be produced and controlled as desired. All this gives her a lot of satisfaction and she does it over and over again. The experience of control of motions gives the child confidence. Lowenfeld correctly views, "Scribbling to the child means enjoyment, happiness, release, and the gaining of a most important function, the coordination of motions." He also strongly advocates non-interference on the part of adults, for interference does more harm than good. Most of our activities are based on the apparently simple coordination of body movements such as walking, using the hands, speaking etc. Adults' improper dictation cannot make a crawling child walk sooner, nor can it make a babbling child an articulate faster. Unwise imposition may only delay the process of development in the child. What is true of a crawling or a babbling child is true of a scribbling child. Let the child grow naturally at her own place and pace.

Schematic Stage (4-7 years): A scribbling child, at about 4/5 years, starts giving a rough (approximate) form to what is in her thinking. Relationship between her thinking and her drawing/painting increases in proportion to her physical growth. Also, as the child grows, her relationship to the personal environment changes. The more sensitive and alert the child becomes, the sonner her ties with the objects in the environment develop. The ties to the objects get reflected in the child's drawing.

At the schematic stage, lack of spatial relationship, of object-colour relationship, and of proportion in the parts of human figures is prevalent. The drawing looks meaningless because it is dispersed on the paper. The child may fail to relate things. As the child develops emotional affinity to the objects in the environment, she will show this development, relating things in her drawing. To show the child technical 'tricks' or to help her by actively drawing or painting into her work is not necessary.

Genuine encouragement and stimulation are enough to develop the recognition of spatial relationship in the child. As the child may fail to relate things while drawing, she may fail to relate the colour to the object while painting. A child may paint the sky green or a mountain deep blue or a tree yellow. This use of colour, unrelated to the object, means that the child likes that colour and is playing with it. There is no need of adult intervention. Children are capable of self-discovery whenever they get an opportunity to use their mind and imagination independently.

Cramming techniques and knowledge from outside will be of no avail. With regard to the child's drawing out of proportion, Lowenfeld (1960) argues, saying, "What is in proportion for the eye may be completely out of proportion to the emotions." Think of a tiny little gnat getting into your eye. How big they both feel, the gnat as well as the eye; and, if the eye keeps on hurting, how

you ignore your foot. You forget that your foot is a part of your body. Or imagine your passing through a crowd in the street with your left hand fractured. All your attention is centred upon left the hand, and the other parts of the body become insignificant. Such subjective feelings for proportion are dominating ones for the child. The proportions which she sees are subordinate to the proportions she feels.

Representative Stage (7-12 years): The schematic child slowly takes a turn. Now she is not concerned with the expression of her relationship to the environment but seems building self-confidence in what she draws or paints. The child draws the same kind of trees, vechiles or figures repetitively. She alters them only if she has something additional to express. Even a slight change in the child's expression indicates her motive. A child drawing the same flower plant again and again may add a few buds. It indicates her keenness of observation and awareness of integrating facts.

Another characteristic of this stage is that children develop awareness of the colour-object relationship, which may come up as an insight. As a child becomes observant, she seems to see and feel that the lawn is green or that the crow is black. The child is thrilled by this self-discovery. As the child grows to 10-12 years, she breaks the wall of solitary creative activity and involves in group activity. This group involvement is very essential to child's social and psychological development. One interesting fact which David H. Russell has pointed out is that older persons generally do not go beyond the representative stage.

Mature-production Stage (beyond 12 years): In the this stage the child wants to draw realistically, uses perspectives and is interested in emotional expression through intensity of colour including light and shade. This will create unity of ideas in the drawing or painting. The child may endeavour to give a 3D impression and try abstract paintings as well. It seems that the drawing skills of the child tend to be arrested around the period of this stage. Goodenough Harris and others have pointed out that children's ability to draw or paint does not develop much after adolescence, except after a training or a process of self-instruction.

Five mistakes

The general outline of art (drawing/painting) as it matters children poses a question - Well, where are we? Obviously, we are on a wrong footing. Instead of accepting art as children's art as their means of expression, and as their independent creative activity we slot in undue interference and impose our views. The thinkings of children and adults are different. Their relationships with the environment are different. Ignorant of this, adults usually make several mistakes.

Mistake One: Adults view art in terms of aesthetic quality; children take it as a means of expression, an as outlet to emotions. Adults want their children to think as they themselves do. They impose their ideas. Adults usually show children 'how to draw' or tell them to draw 'this' or 'that'. Telling to draw an apple does not make a scribbling child draw an apple. On the contrary, the child will loose confidence and concentration if she is thus frequently interrupted. Her scribbling only changes into restricted jerks and isolated motions. So non-interference is a must. If asked, adults must only provide help. If, for example, a child says she wants to draw the figure of a dog, instead of showing her how to draw a dog ask her: Do you like dogs? Do you have a dog? Do you like to play with it? How does your dog bark? … While answering such questions, the child will conceive mental pictures and is then ready to draw without you actually showing how to draw. Whatever and however the child draws is all right, there is no need of comments.

Mistake Two: An adult, seeing a child scribbling or drawing out of proportion or colouring without colour-object relationship, may criticizingly say – "Is this a jerk or an apple?, "The head is bigger than the belly!", "Your art doesn't look real." Such a criticism only develops inhibition in children leading to loss of self-confidence and concentration. The important thing which adults have to realise is: every normal child progresses from fantasy to reality, not only in the way she draws and in what she draws but in her percepts of herself and her contact with the world around. The child engages not in producing pictures but in expressing herself. As it is not wise to criticize a babbling child for failing to pronounce a word correctly, so it is not sensible to criticize a child trying to express herself creatively.

Mistake Three: What goes on in the classroom is mostly deterimental because it often forges imitation. Colouring pictures, cut-outs and patterns, copying chalkboard drawings, step-by-step instructions etc. inhibit approaches which allow convergent thinking (everyone working towards the same solution) to take precedence over divergent thinking (individuals working towards their own solutions). Actually, throughout their school life, children need both types of thinking, which cannot be achieved by imitation or mechanical reproduction. Coercing children to imitate means denying them the opportunity to develop their own individuality. Adults' firm ideas of what children should learn arrests new or unconventional thoughts which are ingredients of new creation and innovation (Packard and Race, 2002).

Mistake Four: Colour-object relationship, shading and colour mixing are introduced too early in children's life. Its adverse effect can be seen throughout the child's student life. Children can be seen trying to memorize facts about colour mixing and relying more on recall than in personal experiences. If children are allowed to learn the basics by self-discovery, learning will be motivating and lasting. Such an opportunity will also establish

learning connections (Hoffman and Lamme, 1989). As her relationship with the environment increases, the child will become aware of the colour-object relationship. Mixing of colour is usually accidental (Ruth Kohn, 1972). The child starts with one colour and goes on with more. By chance, the child may splash blue over red and notice the change of colour. This discovery will interest her and she will begin experimenting with different colours. This self-discovery gives the child more satisfaction and growing experience.

Mistake Five: In the schools, art is treated as a subject like English, Science or Mathematics. Art (drawing/painting) is also tested and assigned a grade or marks. As testing imposes an external standard, art no longer remains a means of expression. This imposition of standard not only one-tracks the child's attention but also stimulates her to imitate. Art teachers must see that the children are free with their artistic intents and intuitions.

Conclusion

We should look at the child as a little human growing gradually into a free, able and creative citizen. She should be allowed to use her mind independently so that every decision and discovery she makes in her childhood could play a vital role in shaping her future. We must agree with Bertrand Russell's views: "If the first habits are good, endless trouble is saved …" Adults must respect freedom of children (avoid undue interference, criticism) and they must honor the child's individuality (provide opportunity in a liberal environment).

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Linking Learning Outcomes and Text Contents in Social Studies of Primary Level

Dr. Prakash Man Shrestha[2]

Background

One of the main constituents of curriculum is the objective, which is determined on the basis of the needs of the learners. In order to achieve these objectives, contents are given. Based on these contents, texts are developed. Hence, the textbook is a means to the achievement of the objective. The contents of the textbook spelled out in the form of chapters or units or lessons given should cover all the objectives specified in the curriculum.

The objectives in the form of learning outcomes (LOs) are given in the curriculum of Social Studies of primary education. These LOs are achieved only when the contents of the Social Studies textbooks are linked with the LOs of concerned grades. In other words, the contents of the textbook should be enough for each and every LO underlined in the curriculum. However, no effort has yet been made to look at the linkage between LOs of the curriculum and the contents of textbooks. No one has raised any question about the linkage. In this context, therefore, this study intends to dwell on the linkage between the Los and the textbooks of Social Studies of grade I and grade V. Besides, it trlies to present a perspective on the weightage that has been assigned to Social Studies in the curriculum of primary education.

Objectives

The specific objectives of this study are:

- To calculate the weightage assigned to Social Studies in the primary education curriculum
- To examine the linkage between the LOs of curriculum and the contents of the textbooks
- To suggest measures regarding the LO-curriculum linkage for the future

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Methodology

In order to form an idea of the weightage assigned to Social Studies in the past, documents related to the curriculum of primary education were reviewed. The existing curriculum of primary education was thoroughly studied. Specifically, the gradewise LOs of the curriculum and the lessons of the textbooks of Social Studies were analyzed. A chart was prepared, in which each LO was matched with the concerned lesson in the textbook. Based on this chart, the LOs, which were not covered by the lessons of the textbooks, were identified. Some Social Studies teachers, subject specialists and textbook writers were contacted and informal talks were held with them in order to draft reform measures (for the future).

Findings

The findings regarding the weightage of Social Studies and the LO-content linkage subject have been presented in consonance with the objectives mentioned above.

Weightage given to Social Studies in Curriculum

The weightage of Social Studies in the curriculum of primary education was found to be different at different times. So this writing tries to have a cursory look at the weightage given gradewise to Social Studies, , in the past and the present.

Weightage in the Past

Social Studies has been considered as one of the main subjects of primary education since the start of modern education in Nepal (after the establishment of Durbar School in 1854). Similarly, Social Studies was recommended as one of the core subjects of study in primary grades. This subject has sometimes been taught as “Social Studies” itself and at other times as “History and Geography”. The weightages given to the curriculum of Social Studies at different times are presented in the following table.

Table – 1
Weightages given to Social Studies in Different Periods of Time

Time / period	Full Marks in Primary Education (Grade V)	Marks in Social Studies
Pre – 1951	700	200 (28.57)
1951 –1961	700	200 (28.57)
1961 – 1971	700	100 (14.,29)
1971 – 1981	650*	100 (15.38)
1981 to date	700	100 (14.29)

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate the percentage.
* Full Marks in grade III

As shown in the above table, from pre–1951 to 1961 Social Studies in the name of "History and Geography" received a weightage of about 29 percent (full marks 700), which declined from 29 to 14 percent in the period 1961 to 1971. The curriculum was freshly developed in 1971 and revised in 1981, but the percentage of weightage did not change. The percentage increased slightly in 1971 to 1981 due to changes in the structure of primary education (the primary education cycle was narrowed down to grade I-III). Thus, there was more emphasis on Social Studies before 1961 than after. Today the weightage given to this subject cannot be considered less, for it has received the same weightage, or even more than that given to the other subjects except Nepali.

Gradewise Weightage in the Existing Curriculum

Today, Social Studies is taught in all the primary grades. It consists of three main areas i.e. "Environmental Education", "Health Education" and "Social Studies", (grades I to III). But in grades IV and V, Social Studies has been a separate subject. The weightage given to it (grades I to V) is given in the following table.

Table – 2
Gradewise Weightage

Grades	Full Marks	Marks in Social Studies
I	600	100 (16.67)
II	600	100 (16.67)
III	600	100 (16.67)
IV	700	100 (14.29)
V	700	100 (14.29)

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate the percentage

In the curriculum of grades IV and V, 14.29 percent was assigned to Social Studies (out of 700 marks). However, the weightage exceeded by 2.38 percent in grades I, II and III for two main reasons. First, Social Studies consisted of two more areas, "Environmental Education" and "Health Education". Second, full marks for grades I, II and III were less than the full marks for grades IV and V. However, the weightage of Social Studies in grades IV and V cannot be considered low as it is nearly as much as of the other subjects such as Mathematics and Environmental Science.

Linkage between learning outcomes and textbook Contents

Altogether there are 17 and 23 LOs in the curriculum of Social Studies of grade I and grade V respectively. For these LOs, 20 and 21 lessons are given in the textbooks. In order to assess the linkage between the LOs of the curriculum and the lessons of the textbooks, each lesson of the textbook was matched with the LOs. The following tables (Tables 3 and 4) show whether or not the lessons given in the textbooks serve the LOs mentioned in the curriculum.

Table – 3
Learning Outcomes and Contents/Lessons in Textbook of Grade I

Area	Learning Outcomes	Lesson No. in Text-book	Title of Lesson	Contents in the textbook, not related to the LOs
Oneself, one's family and neighborhood	1. To tell the names and family members including oneself	9	My Family	
	2. To tell the name of the place one is living in	15	Our Village – Then and Now	-Changes in the Village
	3. To tell one's own position in the family	x	x	
	4. To name relationships in the family	9	My Family	
	5. To tell about the usefulness of house	8	My House	-Identification of Construction Materials
	6. to keep one's belongings safe	x	x	
Social values and norms	7. To respect elders, to love juniors and to cooperate with friends	x	x	
	8. To listen to others	x	x	
	9. To tell about festivals observed in one's home and the simple activities related to them	19	When	- Names of Months - Hottest and Coldest Months
Civic sense	10. To take permission before using others' belongings	x	x	
	11. To stand in queue and wait for one's turn at school, temple, shop, bus stop, etc	5	My Habits	
Community service and social depravity/ evils	12. To tell the names of cooperative organizations in one's neighborhood	15	Our Village – Then and Now	-Changes in the Village
Geographical studies	13. To draw simple sketches of one's house and rooms	8	My House	-Identification of Construction Materials
	14. To tell about the topography of one's surroundings (high, low, plane)	x	x	
National traditions	15. To tell the name of the family head, and introduce him (with background)	x	x	
	16. To reorganize the national flag	20	Our National Flag	
Protection of national property	17. To tell the names of forests, wells, inns and temples etc. that are in one's surroundings or neighborhood	11 and 15	Our School Our Village – Then and Now	Introduction to School with names of the headteacher and teachers - Changes in the Village

Table – 4
Learning Outcomes and Lessons in Textbook of Grade V

Area	Learning Outcomes	Lesson No. in the Textbook	Title of Lesson	Contents in the textbook, not related to LOs
Oneself, one's family and neighbour-hood	1. To take the responsibility of doing things at home with the cooperation of the family and the society	1 and 2	Our Duties to Our Family Our duties toward Our Society	Ways of taking care of the things you use Ways of helping the society
	2. To use, protect and keep the implements and tools used in family occupation	2	Our Duties to Our Society	
Social values and norms	3. To differentiate between good and bad aspects of traditional social norms, to adopt only the good ones, and to express one's own views	3 and 7	Our Traditional Values We are all one	Names of different festivals and their social/national significances
	4. To respect everyone equally irrespective of religion, sex or caste	4	Our Civic Rights	Professions (according to castes)
Civic sense	5. To remain conscious of the fundamental rights and tell others about one's own rights and duties	4 and 5	Our Civic Rights Our Civic Duties	Professions (according to castes) Public functions
Community service and social depravity/ evils	6. To use the services offered by local organizations	6	Our Social Organizations	Necessity of Social Organizations
	7. To describe the main functions of social organizations	6	Our Social Organizations	Necessity of Social Organizations
	8. To tell about the loss resulting from bad habits like drinking, smoking, gambling and playing cards (to the family and society), and to describe ways of protecting oneself and others from them	8	Let us be safe from bad habits	
	9. To remain aware of theft, burglary, demolition and arson and tell about the ways of protecting oneself and others from them	8 and 9	Let us be safe from bad habits Let us be aware	
Geographical studies	10. To draw a list of continents and oceans and to point them out on the map of the world (or globe)	18	Our Big, Big House	Origin of the earth
	11. To draw a simple map of Nepal and fill it in	16	Let us draw the map of Nepal	Symbols given for mountains, rivers, forests plains etc. Different colours indicating different parts of the earth
	12. to describe the geographical condition of Nepal	10	Our Country	Geographical condition of one's own district
	13. to describe (with drawings) the diurnal and yearly motions of the earth	20	The earth has its own motion	
	14. to introduce the earth as a member of the solar system	21	The solar System	

National traditions	15. To describe in brief the importance of the heroes of Nepal	15	Our Heritage Bravery	
	16. To tell about the origin/etymology of the word 'Nepal' (briefly)	10	Our Country	
	17. To give brief introductions of the kings of ancient, Llicchabi and Malla periods of Nepal	12	Our historical Kings	
	18. To tell about the formation of the Executive and Judiciary and draw a list of their functions	13	Our Government, Judiciary and Election Commission	Formation of Election Commission Difference between local and national elections
	19. To tell about the functions of Election Commission	12	Our Historical Kings	Archaeological properties found in the village
Protection of national property	20. To give a general introduction of the projects conducted on conservation and improvement of natural resources in Nepal	14	Our Natural Resources	Identification of problems regarding conservation of natural resources and ways of overcoming them
	21. To help local communities as well as the concerned departments in the pre-conservation of things of archaeological value	11	Let us know our country	Functions of the Archaeological Department
International understanding, peace and cooperation	22. To present a brief introduction of SAARC and its member countries and tell about their economic, social and geographical situations and the areas of cooperation among them	17	Our goal is one	
	23. To tell about the UNO and its main functions	19	Members of a Huge Family	

As shown in Table 3, there are 6 LOs under the area "Oneself, one's family and neighbour", 3 LOs under "Social values and norms", 2 LOs under "Civic sense", 1 LO each under "Community service and social depravity/evils" and "Preservation of national property" and 2 LOs each under "Geographical studies", and "National tradition".

Looking the number of LOs, one can find that more emphasis is given to the area "Oneself, one's family and neighborhood" than to other areas of Social Studies in grade I. Of the 17 LOs, 7 are not covered by the lessons given in the textbook. Similarly, there are a few LOs, which are only partially covered. For instance, in LO No. 13, it is stated that students will be able to draw simple sketches of "One's house and room". For this LO, the contents given in the textbook are not adequate because they do not tell anything about sketching. Since such contents are not given in the texts and exercises of the textbook, the teachers did not teach these contents. They stated this in an informal talk.

Table 4 reveals that altogether there are 23 LOs under eight areas of Social Studies of grade V. More emphasis is given to "Geography" and "National tradition" than to other areas. In order to support the LOs of the curriculum 21 lessons are given in the textbook. Unlike in grade I, all the LOs are covered by the lessons given in the textbook. However, there are a few LOs for which

reading texts given in the lessons are not adequate. On the contrary, there are some texts in the lessons of Social Studies textbook of grade V, which are not related to the LOs of the curriculum. For instance, there must be some texts on 'tourism programmes' for LO No. 20, and some texts related to areas of mutual cooperation among SAARC countries for LO No. 22. But these texts are not given in concerned lessons of the textbook. In Lessons 13 and 16 of the textbook of the texts regarding formation of the election commission, difference between local and national elections, symbols for mountains, rivers, forests etc. are given, but these texts do not touch any LOs of the curriculum. Hence, these texts are irrelevant and are not required.

The above mentioned facts reveal that about 50 percent of the LOs of the curriculum of Social Studies of grade I are not covered by the lessons given in the textbook. Though this is not entirely true in the case of grade V, there are a few LOs which are only partially covered by the textbook. This reveals that the LOs are not covered by the contents of the textbooks. So the teachers are likely only to teach the contents that are available in the textbooks. The teachers do not consult the curriculum and ignore the LOs. Hence, it can be concluded that all the LOs of curriculum of Social Studies of grades I and V will certainly be not achieved. Moreover, this lacuna between the LOs and contents of the textbook affect CAS (which is based on LOs) being implemented in five districts of the country.

Measures to link learning outcomes

For the LO-content link contents of the following measures could be taken:

Preparation of Specification Chart: Prior to writing any textbook, the textbook writer should prepare a specification chart in order to ensure that all the LOs are covered by the texts of the lessons. A sample follows.

Learning Outcomes (LOs)	Elaboration of LOs (specific LOs)	Areas of texts in the lesson based on LOs	No. of exercises in the lesson	Title of lesson	Approximate time for each lesson
1. ……..	……. ……. …….	……. ……. …….	…… …… ……	……...	…….
2. . . .					
3. . .					

Specific Los, based on the main LO, should be developed and mentioned in column 2. Under each specific LO, there should be one or more areas which should be written in Column 3. Each lesson should have exercises at the end of the text. Hence, the number of exercises under each text should be mentioned. The lesson title should be written in Column 5. Finally, the total time required to teach each lesson should be mentioned in the last column.

Mentioning LO in each lesson of the text: Since there is no provision of mentioning LO in each lesson, the teachers do not try to find out whether a particular lesson serves to address the LO or not. So the teachers are found to be unaware of the LO of each lesson. Hence, the LO for which the particular lesson is developed should be mentioned after the title of that lesson in small font because it is only meant for the teachers.

Instruction for teachers regarding local context: Text written on local contexts should be given in the textbook in pursuance of the concerned LOs. Only then will all the LOs be covered by the lessons. But it is not possible to include all local contexts of the country in a single textbook because Nepal is a multi–lingual and multi-cultural country. Hence, texts embracing local contexts should be given in the textbook through "instruction for the teachers". This provision will help to cover all the LOs mentioned in the curriculum of Social Studies.

Linkage between LO and Exercises: In each lesson, texts are followed by exercises. One can easily say that all the exercises in each lesson serve the LO given at the top of the lesson, if, of course, there is only one LO in a lesson. But if there are two or more LOs in a particular lesson, then it is difficult to match the exercise and the LOs. In order to solve this problem, the serial number of the LO should to be given in parentheses at the end of each exercise. This provision will help the teachers to easily find out the exercises related to their respective LOs. Moreover, one can see whether or not all the LOs are covered by the exercises given in the textbook.

Reference ??????????????????

Predicting Student Achievement: A Multilevel Analysis of Classrooms and Schools

Bidya Raj Subedi[3]

Introduction

Teachers may employ a variety of modalities in the instructional process. The use of resources and the size of the class may vary school to school. The quality of stududent's classroom achievement depends largely on the teacher's method of instruction and the teaching resources uses. Thus, teacher's performance may be shaped by the extent of the use of creative the teaching resources that are available during instruction. Teacher input influences professional development, professional development influences classroom practices, and classroom practice influences student achievement (Wenglinsky 2000). All of these influences take into account socio-economic status and class size, suggesting that the impact of teacher quality is measured above and beyond these non-teacher quality factors.

Past studies reveal the effect of class size on students' scores. Smaller class sizes have shown improved student behavior and achievement scores (Whittington, 1985; Achilles and Bain, 1986). It is possible that lower student achievement owes, to some extent to the increase in class size. Correa (1993) and Burnett (1996) have related the lower profile if student achievement to increase of class size. According to Beverly and Glass (1982), students may be inattentive in a large-group lesson because many of them are sitting at the back and know they will probably be not called on. In a smaller group, students are closer to the teacher and each student is more likely to get a turn. In a field study, Subedi (2000) found a negative relationship between class size and student achievement in some high schools of Nepal. At the policy level, optimal class size will equate the marginal benefits of additional students with the marginal costs generated by the reduction in achievement of the individual students (Correa, 1993).

An influential factor that boosts student achievement could be the availability and use of resources by teachers in teaching. Simplicio (2000) suggests that teachers must be willing to use different methods, strategies and approaches to instruction and that they must also be willing to change their assessment tools and evaluation criteria. There is limited motivation for teachers to put in extra commitment as the teacher policy regarding such matters as levels of

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remuneration, incentive structure and career advancement remain largely unchanged (Bista, 1999). An anticipated change necessary for schools is the transition from the traditional instructional style to the innovative techniques built on generous incentives and readily available resources for teachers. Availability of resources and the use of resources by teachers in high schools was found to have a positive effect on student achievement (Subedi, 2000). Armstrong, Barbrow, Brush, and Ulintz (1999) also found a positive effect on student achievement when they provided teachers with a wider variety of computer-based resources to go into instructional activities. Alkadry and Nyhan (1999), in a research study found that the more resources the students were provided with in the classroom the better they improved in their achievement. To improve the learning outcomes within a school, it is imperative to educate teachers on the appropriate use of instructional resources. Teachers are left with a substantial responsibility to employ the instructional tools properly, however, the accessibility of the resources vary school to school.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to explore how average classroom achievement is affected by class size, availability of resources and use of resources by teachers in the high schools (Grades 9 and 10) in Nepal. Researchers (e.g. Correa, 1993 and Burnett, 1996) found an inverse relationship between class size and student achievement, which motivated to an empirical study for exploring such a relationship in a dissimilar setting. Furthermore, Turner (2000) suggested the need for further research on the relationship between school resources and student outcome.

HLM, a multi-level technique, also known as the mixed model or random coefficient model, was employed here since the multiple classrooms were nested within a teacher (i.e., several classes taught by a specific teacher). Raudenbush & Bryk (2002) and Goldstein (1995) presented the conceptual, analytical and modeling perspective and procedure to model and analyze the nested data in higher groups. This study presents the modeling and analysis of classroom level (level-1) data nested at teacher level (level-2). Some of the questions to be answered through this research include: Does the mean resource at teacher level significantly predict classroom achievement after controlling for the mean class size? Does the mean resource significantly predict the class size effect on average classroom achievement after controlling for the effect of the mean class size? How much variation across teachers in within-teacher classroom achievement remains after controlling for the effect of mean class size and the mean resource? How much variation across teachers in within-teacher class size effect on classroom

student achievement remains after controlling for the effect of the mean class size and the mean resource?

This study attempts to introduce the modeling, analysis and application procedures of HLM to educational research in Nepal. This work will benefit the research practitioners from modeling and application viewpoints. As this paper is the product of an eight-month-span fieldwork-based research in Nepal, the generalizations of study results will help the related district education authorities to improve student achievement in the schools under their purview.

Research questions

The following research questions were answered through this study:

1. a) Does the mean resource at teacher level significantly predict the average classroom achievement after controlling for the mean class size?
   b) Does the mean class size at the teacher level significantly predict the average classroom achievement after the holding constant mean resources?
   c) How much teacher-to-teacher variation in within-teacher average classroom achievement remains after controlling for the effect of the mean class size and the mean resources?
2. a) Does the mean resources significantly interact with the effect of class size on average classroom achievement at classroom level after holding constant the effect of the mean class size?
   b) Does the mean class size significantly interact with the effect of class size on average classroom achievement at the classroom level after controlling for the mean resource?

How much teacher-to-teacher variation in within-teacher class size effect on average classroom achievement remains after controlling for the effect of mean class size and the mean resources?

Variables

Outcome variable

Average classroom achievement: Average classroom achievement was derived from the mean classroom student achievement for individual classroom in which a specific teacher was involved in teaching. First, the classrooms, involved in teaching by the teacher who participated in the

survey, were identified. Then, the average scores of the students in the subject related to the teacher were computed from the school records based on the final examination results (2000) of Grades 9 and 10. The average classroom achievements were based on parallel tests and standard scoring schema assumed to be similar in all high schools for the subjects associated with the sample teachers.

Classroom level (or level-1) predictor

Class size: This variable was the total number of students in the individual classrooms in which the sampled teachers were teaching.

Teacher level (or level-2) predictors

Mean class size: This variable was the average of the class sizes a sampled teacher was engaged in teaching.

Mean Resources: This variable was defined as the average availability of resource, such as curricular and co-curricular materials, in the school for teachers and the extent of the use of resources by a specific teacher in the classroom, for supporting curricular and co-curricular activities. This variable was measured based on the Likert type 5-point rating scale, and was averaged for every sampled teacher. For example, the mean resource associated with a teacher who was engaged in teaching three classrooms was computed as the mean of responses from all three survey forms provided for three separate classrooms. The degree of rating was based on the ranges from 'strongly agree' (5) to 'strongly disagree' (1).

Methods

Population and sample

The target population for this study comprised all the teachers teaching Grades 9 and 10 in government and private high schools of Lalitpur district, Nepal. As the population units were apparently found in different geographical clusters and there was difficulty in updating the entire list of teachers from the population, multi-stage cluster sampling was employed to select teachers. Representative random samples were selected using random numbers through this sampling procedure containing at least 20 per cent of the population members at each stage. This sampling technique was also used because of cost efficiency. The number of clusters at each stage at the time of sample selection was kept at maximum. Increasing the number of clusters increases the precision of the sample and when using cluster sampling, selecting more clusters with less between-group variation improves precision (Henry, 1990). A desired validity was assured by optimizing the sample size. In total, 30 schools out of 152 (20%) were

selected. High within-cluster heterogeneity was attempted by choosing the sample teachers of both sexes from different subject areas teaching in the classrooms of varying qualities. This helped in increasing the sample precision.

After dividing the entire district into two sub-populations the Lalitpur Municipality and the Village Development Committee (VDC) region, the Wards and VDCs were sampled randomly in the first stage. Altogether, ten VDCs (25%), and seven Wards (32%) were selected from the district. In the second stage, different schools were randomly drawn from the selected Wards and VDCs. Then, 30 high schools out of 152 (20%) were sampled. There were 16 government schools (53%) and 14 private schools (47%) selected in the sample. Four to six teachers were selected from each sample school depending on the number of high school teachers. Altogether, 152 teachers were selected excluding the position-holding teachers in order to obtain the sample. More than 30 per cent of the teachers were sampled from each school for this study. Three to four (at least 40%) classrooms were selected for each sampled teacher based on the number of classes each teacher was involved in teaching. The averages of all classroom scores were computed for the classrooms which were nested within a particular teacher.

Instruments and data collection

Before designing the final survey form, a pilot survey questionnaire was developed and administered to 10 teachers in three high schools. The final survey questionnaires were prepared based on the teacher's feedback from the pilot survey. The final survey forms were administered to the teachers based on the number of classes they were engaged in teaching. For example, if a teacher was involved in teaching four classrooms, then four forms were administered to that particular teacher in order to obtain the teacher's response on individual classrooms. Once teachers had completed and returned the survey forms, student's average scores (based on 1999 final exam results) for the related classrooms were computed and recorded on the teacher's forms. One hundred teachers were engaged in teaching four classes and 50 teachers were involved in teaching three classes. Participant teachers were requested to provide the factual information as fairly and independently as possible. In case of confusions on reading and interpreting the questionnaires, the researcher clarified teacher's queries. Adequate information and instructions were provided to participant teachers prior to filling out the questionnaires. The confidentiality of the teacher's response was assured in order to preserve the ethical conditions of the survey. All possible measures were followed to increase the validity and reliability of the survey.

The conditions of similar test difficulty in a particular subject for each class provided valid scores for the study. The parallel test designs were handled by the academic administration of each school under the direction of District Education Office. Comparable instructional objectives in a specific course, uniform classroom testing situations throughout the district, the same test lengths and time allocation for specific subjects, and unique government policy regarding the curricula for all the high schools were the basis for valid test scores.

Data analysis and model specification

The hierarchical linear modelling technique, using the HLM program (Bryk, Raudenbush, & Congdon, 2000) was employed for the data analysis. However, SPSS was used to enter the survey data and create the SSM file for HLM analysis. Initially, random effect and random coefficient models were run, and tested the significance of intercept, slope, and variance component. Several steps suggested by Tate (1996) were followed before using the teacher level predictors in the level-2 conditional model. The results showed teacher-to-teacher variation for the within-teacher models. So, within-teacher conditional models were formulated. Then, mean class size, and mean resource predictors were used as teacher level predictors in these conditional models.

To answer the above research questions, the coefficients (slopes, intercepts, and variance components) of the level-1, and level-2 models were estimated.

Classroom level (level-1) model

The average classroom achievement for classroom i and teacher j is given by the following level-1 within-teacher model.

$(CLASSACH)_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j} (CLASSIZE)_{ij} + r_{ij}$

where i = 1, 2,……,556 classrooms; and j=1, 2, ….., 152 teachers. The level-1 predictor was centered around its grand mean.

Teacher level (level-2) model

At level-2 the average classroom achievement, β_{0j}, and the within-teacher effect of class size on classroom student achievement, β_{1j}, become new outcome variables at the teacher level or for the between teacher model.

$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} (MEANRES)_j + \gamma_{02} (MEANCLAS)_j + u_{0j}$

$\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11} (MEANRES)_j + \gamma_{12} (MEANCLAS)_j + u_{1j}$

For above models, j=1, 2,.., 152 teachers; and the randomly varying slope, β_{1j} is strictly based on the predictors: mean resource and mean class size. The level-2 predictors were centered around their grand means.

It is assumed that the relationship between the predictors and the outcome variables are linear. The predictors are independent and they are measured error free. The residual terms u_{0j} and $u_{1j,}$ which are normally distributed, vary randomly with means zero, and variances τ_{00} and τ_{11} respectively. The variance-covariance components represent the variability in β_{0j} and β_{1j} remaining after controlling for the effects of mean resource and mean class size. The further assumptions about the error terms are independence, normality and homoscedasticity. Residual versus predicted average classroom student achievement plots and normal curves provided the evidence for correct fit and normality respectively. Scatter diagram for residual versus predicted indicated the homoscedasticity.

Results

The final estimations of fixed effects, variance components, and reliability and average OLS coefficients for level-1 intercept and slope are presented in Table 1, Table 2, and Table 3, respectively. In the teacher model for classroom level intercept, the average adjusted teacher mean was found to be significant (γ_{00} = 50.24, SE = 0.97, p< .01) at 0.01, and 0.05 levels of significance. A high positive effect (γ_{01} = 3.25, SE = 1.13) was found due to the effect (slope) of mean resources on mean classroom achievement. In other words, the expected increase in teacher mean of classroom achievement is found to be 3.25 with respect to one unit change in mean resources. A small positive effect was found due to mean class size (γ_{02} = 0.26, SE = 0.15) on average classroom achievement although the effect was not significant (p = .075).

Viewing the results for teacher model with class size effect as an outcome, average within-teacher class size (γ_{10}), and the effect of mean resource (γ_{11}) were found to be significant.

Table 1. Final estimation of fixed effects

Fixed Effects	Coefficient	Standard Error (SE)	t-ratio	d. f.	p-value
Teacher model for classroom level intercept, β_{0j}					
Intercept, γ_{00}	50.24*	0.97	51.97	149	0.000
Mean resource, γ_{01}	3.25*	1.13	2.87	149	0.005
Mean class size, γ_{02}	0.26	0.15	1.78	149	0.075
Teacher model for classroom level effect of class size, β_{1j}					
Intercept, γ_{10}	-0.33*	0.09	-3.43	149	0.000
Mean resource, γ_{11}	-0.28*	0.11	-2.65	149	0.009
Mean class size, γ_{12}	0.002	0.01	-0.23	149	0.839

*significant at 5%, and 1% level of significance
** significant at 5%, level of significance

More elaborately, average class size-achievement slope in teachers was found significant ($p<.001$) with a negative value ($\gamma_{10} = -0.33$, SE = 0.09). Mean resources significantly predicted ($p=0.009$) the within-teacher effect of class size on achievement at classroom level holding constant the effect of mean class size. There was a negative effect of mean resource ($\gamma_{11} = -0.28$) on the slope of class size with standard error of 0.11, and t-ratio of –2.65. The effect of mean class size in predicting the within-teacher influence of class size on achievement was not found significant ($p = 0.839$, S.E. = 0.01) at classroom level after a control on the effect of mean resources. However, mean class size had a very small positive effect ($\gamma_{12} = 0.002$) on the slope of class size at the level-1 model. In addition, a significant effect (with $p<0.01$, $\gamma_{10} = -0.33$) was found for the class size effect on classroom achievement in the teacher population.

Table 2. Final Estimation of Variance Component

Random Effect	Variance	d. f.	Chi-square	p-value
Average Classroom Achievement, u_{0j}	112.13*	134	2140.48	0.000
Class Size Slope, u_{1j}	0.33*	134	288.17	0.000
Level-1 effect, r_{ij}	2.59			

*significant at 5%, and 1% level of significance

A significant variability ($p<0.001$) across teachers in within-teacher average classroom achievement was found after controlling for mean resources and mean class size. The variance for within-teacher average classroom student achievement was found to be 112.13 with the chi-square value of 2140.48.

Table 3.

Reliability and average OLS coefficients for level-1 intercept and slope

Random Level-1 Coefficients	Reliability	Average OLS Level-1 Coefficients
Intercept	0.75	51.21
Slope of Class Size	0.30	-0.48

The teacher-to-teacher variation in the slope of class size was found to be significant ($p<0.001$) after a control on the effect of mean class size and mean resources. The variance component for the effect of class size on classroom student achievement was found to be 0.33 with the chi-square value of 288.17. The variance component for the level-1 equation was found to be 2.59. The chi-square statistics for the final estimation of variance components were based on only 137 sample units that had sufficient data for computation. However, the fixed effects and variance components were based on all the 152 sample observations.

The proportion of variation across teachers, also termed as the intra-class correlation, was 0.98 showing the percentage of variance in classroom student achievement between teachers. The proportion of variance explained by this model compared to the random coefficient unconditional model was 4.9 per cent; as a result of the limited number of variables in the final model the variance explained was small.

The scatter plots with line graphs presented in Figure 1, Figure 2 and Figure 3, display the relationship between average classroom achievement and different predictors at the classroom and teacher levels.

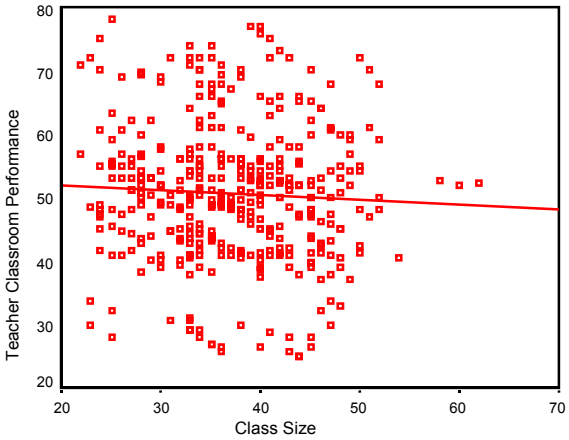

Figure 1. Scatter plots with line graph showing a negative relationship between Teacher Classroom Performance and Class Size at level-1

Figure 2. Scatter plots with line graph showing a strong positive relationship between Mean Teacher Classroom Performance and Mean Class Resources at level-2

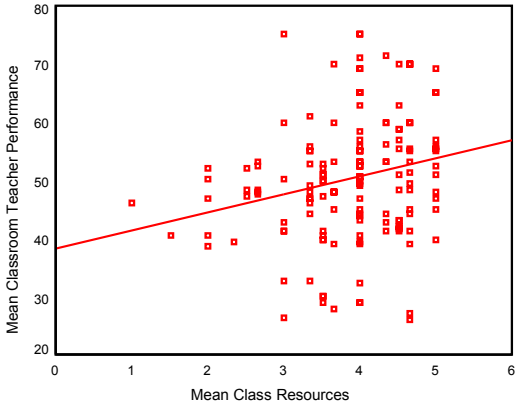

Figure 3. Scatter plots with line graph showing a negative relationship between Mean Teacher Classroom Performance and Mean Class Size at level-2

Discussion

At teacher level, the resource factor provided a substantial influence on the average classroom achievement. Therefore, a positive effect on average classroom scores due to the availability of resources and use of such

resources by teachers is worthwhile for discussion. Although the extent use of resources by teachers may vary school to school, the accessibility of educational resources for each teacher is an essential means of enlivening the academic enterprise. Teachers can maximize classroom achievement by optimizing the use of the available resources, controlling for the effect of class size at the same time. In order to increase achievement, optimizing the use of instructional resources properly by a teacher in the favor of students is more crucial than merely using such resources.

It is interesting to argue that the contribution of resources to class size effect was negative. This result is important in the sense that the influence of resources within a classroom is diminished as the class size increased. As it is apparent that a teacher requires many more resources for a large class compared to a small, the limited availability of instructional resources may adversely influenced instructional processes in the (case of) large classes. This kind of adverse impact of resources on class size, ultimately resulted in a negative impact on classroom achievement.

Elaborating the results, a negative effect of class size on classroom achievement could happen due to a crowded classroom producing a less favourable teaching and learning atmosphere. Such a situation reduces the teachers' chance for individual student attention. In the context of Nepal, only a few high schools have predetermined their policy to admit a specific number of students per classroom or section of a class. The teaching and learning activities are the functions of student classroom admission. Possibly the larger class sizes more adversely influenced students' achievements. The schools' autonomy to control the internal factors for structuring optimum class size in order to increase student's achievement is considered to be essential. Bista (1999) suggests that a greater focus should be given on what happens inside the schools because local actions and factors generally determine student outcomes. A favorable class size that encourages effective teaching and learning strategies will promote an advantageous classroom environment. This, in turn, will help provide individual student care, teacher-student interaction, and increase student achievement.

A significant variation across the teachers in average classroom achievement was observed due to the actual differences in mean classroom achievement rather than extraneous factors. As individual teachers have varying qualities in their skill, performance, socioeconomic status, experience, age and other characteristics, they may have uniquely contributed to the student achievement. Also a teacher-to-teacher variation in the class size effect (slope) was found to be statistically significant, signifying that a true variation exists in the population of class size effects at classroom level across the teachers, after removal of the effect of resources and mean class size.

Conclusion

A positive effect of resources and a negative effect of class size on average classroom achievement were found. A significant variation was also found across the teachers in average classroom achievement and the class size effect. Teachers who used the available resources effectively in the classroom were able to increase the achievement. The availability of resources and use of such resources by teachers contributed to an adverse impact on class size effect, and in turn, class size influenced negatively average classroom achievement. A negative effect of class size suggested that a classroom with a large number of students is likely to decrease the average level of achievement. Significant variations were found in average classroom achievement and class size effect across the teachers.

The critical issue for education is how to induce the most productive use of school resources through governance, finance, and management structures that enhance student achievement (Bolton, 2000). Indeed, it is more essential to array adequate instructional resources, and encourages teachers to use such resources. It is also important to set up standard class sizes within the schools based on the available resources. Suggestions include leasing space, collaborative, relocating administrative space, and district-wide redistribution of space (Burnett, 1996).

The findings of this study can be generalized to high school teachers in Lalitpur district and be extended to other high school teachers who follow the similar curricula as designated by Ministry of Education. Further, policy researches are suggested to structure the allocation and use of available resources to specific subjects and establish an optimum class size.

The anticipated audiences for this paper are quantitative researchers working with multiple regression and generalized linear models, educational researchers working in quantitative fields, government educational evaluators, and policy makers. The district education evaluators and quantitative researchers can extend similar studies for broader population to fit higher level models, such as a three-level HLM by including school level predictors in the model.

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Cost and Internal Efficiency of Lower Secondary and Secondary Education in Nepal

Balram Paudel[4]

General concept of cost

The notion of cost originated from economics and cost as an analytical tool is used widely in the activities where spending is necessary. Education is also an activity in which spending is largely entailed in producing knowledge and know-how. Naturally, therefore, it needs cost. Generally, cost refers to an amount of money needed for a particular activity with a purpose. Precisely, cost is defined as a forging measure in monetary term incurred, or to be potentially incurred to achieve a specific objective (Matz, 1972). All costs entail a sacrifice of some type, the form of sacrifice may be tangible or intangible, monetary or non-monetary (Jompson, 1973).

From the definition it is clear that cost essentially involves a sacrifice to achieve something and the form of sacrifice may be monetary and non-monetary, material and immaterial, subjective and objective.

Cost has many aspects and several categories as such, total cost, fixed cost, variable cost, average cost, marginal cost, overhead cost, private cost, social cost, cycle cost, recurrent cost, capital cost, opportunity cost, product cost, period cost, replacement, cost, future cost, imputed cost, shunk cost etc. (Jompson, 1973). In this writing only the cost concepts which are frequently used and which are essential for analyzing educational activities will be briefly described.

Total, Average and Marginal Cost: The total amount of resources spent in producing a particular level of output is total cost. Total cost is a self-explanatory terms it simply measures the cost of all resources used on any particular scale of operation.

Average Cost: It is a per unit cost, also called 'unit cost', which is obtained by dividing the total cost by the number of output. AC= $\frac{TC}{Q}$, where AC = Average Cost, TC=Total Cost, Q=Output. It is obvious that the total cost increases with scale but it is not obvious whether the average cost rises, falls or remains unaffected by the level of activity. The cost per pupil in a 1000-pupil school could be higher or lower than or identical to the unit cost in a 5000-pupil school. Where the average cost falls or rises as the output

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increases, one could talk of the existence of economies or diseconomies of scale (Verry, 187, p. 1049).

Marginal Cost: It is defined as the increase in total cost obtained by increasing on output by one unit. $MC_n = TC_n - TC_{n-1}$, where MC_n=Marginal Cost of 'nth' unit of output and TC_n = Total Cost of 'nth' unit of output. Marginal cost makes an immediate evaluation of the cost of an additional unit of product possible.

Fixed and Variable Cost: The concept of fixed cost is only used in short-run, where fixed factors of production cannot be changed. Fixed cost is always independent of the level of output. Payments made for interest, rent, insurance and other overheads are example of fixed cost.

Variable Cost: Variable cost varies with the level of output. Payments made for variable factors like raw materials and labour are examples of variable cost. Salaries of the teachers are an example in education because more teachers, more salaries. Similarly, the larger the student enrolment, the higher the variable cost.

Opportunity Cost: Opportunity cost, also known as economic cost, is defined as the forgone 'opportunity' or income. "The opportunity costs of education include all the real sources devoted to the educational process which cannot be measured directly in money terms. An estimation of their value in alternative uses must be included." (Woodhall 1985: 1032). Thus, the concept of opportunity cost hints at alternative uses of scarce resources.

Educational cost

The concept of cost in education is similar to the concept of cost in business activities because production in education is governed by the same basic laws that govern the production of other goods and services. These laws are: (i) Something cannot be produced out of nothing, (ii) Positive output cannot be produced from negative factor input, and (iii) Finite quantities of factor inputs cannot produce an infinitely large quantify of output (Prakash and Sumitrat, 1987: p. 277). An economic framework is useful for an analysis of cost and efficiency in education (Hanuseke, 1979). Nevertheless, the nature of the product in education is not similar to that of a business entity and a little divergence takes place because of three important factors (Kitaev, Oulia, Peano; 1999). Firstly, the production unit of other business activities is measured in terms of a physical unit like a bundle of cloth, a sheet of paper or a ton of sugar but an educational unit of production is measured in terms of the number of students enrolled or the graduates produced. Secondly, the chief motive of other business activities is maximization of profit, which is not the basic motive of educational activities.

Thirdly, unlike other goods and services, education is a merit good and the state largely finances education to provide such a merit good to a large number of people in the society. For these reasons education seeks a slightly different interpretation of cost than ordinary business activities in which some particular concepts of costs are frequently used in addition to the general concept. These are:

Private Cost: This concept of cost, which is used in other business activities, is more frequently used in educational activities. It refers to the payments, which are made by students and their parents. School fees, textbooks and uniforms are some examples of private cost.

Social Cost: Social costs are borne by the society as a whole in return for the provision of education. The operating cost of education, also known as recurring cost, refers to all teaching and non-teaching items as social cost.

Cycle Cost: This is a very important concept of educational cost. It refers to the cost of producing a graduate in a particular cycle like the primary cycle, lower secondary cycle or secondary cycle.

Importance of cost analysis in education

The importance of cost analysis lies in the maximization of cost in educational output. Since resources are limited, they naturally lead to what is called least cost preference. Many important decisions in education are concerned with the cost of education. Cost analysis involves educational policy, financial feasibility of educational reform, and diagnosis of current resource utilization in an educational project, future cost requirements and evaluation of the relative efficiency of alternative educational policy or intervention. Cost studies can contribute significantly to decision making, planning and monitoring in education (Tasang, 1995). Since resource allocation in education does not result from market forces, some knowledge of the cost of producing different levels and mixes of educational output is necessary for those that are responsible for planning the growth and pattern of the educational system. Further, the knowledge of cost is as essential for rational decision-making in education as it is in any other sector of economy (Verry; 1985). In this context, an analysis of cost in education is of paramount importance to a country like Nepal, for the minimization of cost is the best alternative in meeting the growing needs of educational resources.

Unit cost and internal efficiency

As explained above, total cost divided by the number of students at any particular level of education furnishes unit cost. Efficiency, on the other hand, refers to a comparison of inputs and outputs. A more efficient system

obtains more output for a given set of resource inputs. Thus, there is a tight connection between unit cost and internal efficiency. Internal efficiency refers to comparison of learning (a non-monetary outcome of education) and to the cost of educational inputs which can be improved in two ways: (a) by reallocating resource inputs that have smaller effects to larger effects in learning and (b) by reducing overall resources while maintaining the existing level of learning (Hanushek and Lockheed, 1995). From the second measure of improving internal efficiency in education, it is clear that there is an inverse relationship between unit cost and internal efficiency. Lower unit cost leads to higher efficiency and vice versa.

Internal efficiency can also be assessed on four basic steps: (i) measuring the cost of education, (ii) estimating the cost per student per year, (iii) calculating the cost per student who complete a cycle and (iv) comparing cycle cost to what could be attained if the cycle cost had no wastage or loss. (Education and Human Resources Sector Assessment, 1988).

In pursuance of this method, an attempt has been made in this writing to calculate the unit cost and internal efficiency of lower secondary and secondary education, based on the dropout and repetition data of the year 2001.

Table 1
Calculation of Internal Efficiency for Lower Secondary and Secondary Levels (2001)

Parameters	Grades					Graduates
(rates) percent	6	7	8	9	10	
Repetition	10.8	8.8	10.6	9.8	10.3	
Dropout	5.2	2.7	10.2	8	0	
Year						
	1000	0				
	108	840	0			
	12	164	743	0		
	1	24	145	588	0	

	0	3	21	135	483	433
	0	1	3	59	243	218
	0	0	1	12	73	65
	0	0	0	1	18	16
	0	0	0	0	4	3
	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total	1121	1032	913	895	822	736

Figures are rounded

In the table given above it is assumed that 1000 students enter grade 6 in year 1. As per the parameter rates, 433 graduates are produced in year 5. To get all 1000 students complete the cycle it takes 10 years and a total of 736 graduates are produced. From this analysis the following calculations can be deduced:

Total student year 4783.

Average instructional year $\frac{4783}{736}$ = 6.50

Average per entrant study year $\frac{4783}{1000}$ = 4.78

Internal Efficiency = $\frac{3680}{4783}$ = 0.769 i.e. 76.9 percent

If there were no wastage (dropout, repetition) the instructional years of students would be (736 x 5) = 3680 year.

Wasted students year (4783 - 3680) = 1103.

Cycle Cost per Student: The total government expenditure made for lower secondary and secondary levels is 19.4 percent of the total educational budget in the year 2001, which is about Rs. 2.14 billion in current price. The enrolment of students for the same year in these levels is 15, 07, 744. A division of total government expenditure by the number of enrollments yields Rs 1499.33 per student excluding private cost of the students). Multiplying the instructional year by per-student government expenditure (Rs.1499.33 x

6.5) yields Rs. 9745.64 as the estimated cycle cost per graduate. If there were no wastage then it could be (Rs.1499.33 x 5) Rs 7496.65. An amount equal to (Rs. 9745.65 - 7496.65) = 2248.9 per graduate could be saved.

Conclusion

Although the concepts of the cost of education and other business activities are similar, the economic analysis of education diverges from the analysis of the production of an ordinary business for three reasons. Firstly, education is a merit good and the state finances education. Secondly, the nature of the product of education is not similar to, say, factory goods and is measured in terms of enrollment or the graduates produced. Lastly, profit is not the chief motive of education. Despite this difference, in economic analysis education is highly governed by cost and financial resources. More financial resources are required for the consolidation of education in Nepal. A part of the resource need in education can be fulfilled by the effective use of available resources which requires improved internal efficiency. Internal efficiency can be improved by reducing educational wastage and minimizing the per unit cost. Internal efficiency of lower secondary and secondary levels is found to be 76.9 percent, which is only encouraging but not satisfactory. The calculation is based on zero dropouts in grade 10. Since the data of dropout at the three levels are not incorporated in the educational statistics, there is an indication that there is greater scope for improvement in the internal efficiency of lower secondary and secondary levels.

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Transfer of School Governance to Communities

Dr. Kedar N. Shrestha[5]

Background

At present, one observes an international trend advocating local governance in education. This trend appears to be the result of the pledge made by the international community in the World Education Forum, 2000 - the pledg to structure responsive, participatory and accountable systems of educational governance and management and to ensure the engagement and participation of the civil society in strategies for educational development. Quite a few international agencies which participated in the Dakar Forum are actively engaged in assisting Nepal in the education sector. These agencies naturally sought in the sector areas where they could assist Nepal in boosting local governance. The Local Self Governance Act positively signalled to them to be involved in the efforts of the government to implement the tenets of the Act at the primary education level. Each of the international agencies worked out a strategy with the good intent of helping the government achieve the objectives of the Dakar declaration. Most of the agencies selected the primary education sub-sector because it fitted in with the Dakar Framework for Action.

Nepal has been substantially assisted by international agencies like USAID, NORAD/UNDP, UNICEF, DANIDA, ADB, and the World Bank. At present, agencies such as the World Bank, DANIDA, FINIDA, Norwegian Agency, EU etc. are assisting the Basic and EFA Primary Education Program. These agencies are interested in assisting the government in its program to transfer schools to the community. But the Ministry of Education and Sports (MOES) has been sending conflicting messages on the local governance of education. On one hand, it plans and implements programs to transfer schools to the communities; on the other, its interpretation of local governance of education is completely different from that of the Ministry of Local Development, and other development agencies e.g. UNDP. If one analyzes the Local Self Governance Act, one finds it too weak to transfer the school education program to local bodies like Municipalities and Village Development Committees, eventually empowering the Ministry of Local Development to run the school education system. The international agencies have shown their faith in transferring the management of schools to communities as a cure for all present ailments such as inefficient

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management, poor instructional quality of public schools and resource shortage.

International agencies: UNDP has experimented on the transfer of primary schools to local communities by implementing a project known as Community Owned Primary Education (COPE) through the Ministry of Local Development. It has also got the project evaluated by a UNDP-appointed local consultant who listed several positive results. However, MOES, on its part has not shown any interest in the success of the project nor has it raised any question on the nationwide replicability of the COPE model. UNDP has also got a document (guidelines) on transfer of public schools to communities. The booklet on the guidelines includes recommendations, which should be immediately implemented for success in the transfer of schools. But any of these recommendations of the UNDP consultant have hardly been considered by MOES.

The local World Bank office has also shown interest in the transfer of public schools by conducting a rapid study of the operation of the transferred schools. Impressed by the positive results, the World Bank came forward to provide substantial loan assistance as incentive support to the schools, which have been transferred. DANIDA is also indirectly supporting the transfer.

Media and public opinion: On Oct. 2, 2003 a study report conducted by the Education Journalist Group (EJG) was published in the *Kathmandu Post*. The report stated that local guardians had become active in school management. Teachers and classes had become regular after the management transfer. The report however, cited obstacles such as lack of awareness and delay in the arrival of block grants in the schools. It assured that transfer of schools to communities would lead to management efficiency. Some educationists, however, expressed the view that raising the management efficiency might need more than just the transfer within the present general management framework.

Teachers, in general, have spoken skeptically about on the government's plan of transfer. They say that the government is planning the transfer only as a measure to reduce government financial subsidy on public education. This perception of teachers has been adequately reflected in a feature article (Kantipur 25 August, 2003) written by Keshab Prasad Bhattarai, President of Nepal Teachers' Union. Suggesting the creation of a school district system and a sound school financing structure, Mr. Bhattarai had stated:

The government takes educational financing as a burden. The education system is the basis of national integrity and national strength. The government cannot be a coward nor can it afford to be one. The nation has to be integrated through education; there is no other way round.

Assumptions related to transfer: The Ministry of Education and Sports and the Ministry of Local Development had announced school transfer at the time when there virtually no Village Development Committees (VDC) around for about 15 months. There has been no election of local bodies. So the schools are transferred direct to the School Management Committees, which were created as per the Education Act and the Education Regulations. This is essentially a regular process adopted by the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Local Development has no reason for celebration.

It appears that the proponents of local management of schools through the District Development Committee (DDC) and the VDC have argued for the development of management of schools to local communities on two assumptions:

Teachers would be closely observed by the local community and SMC, which would hopefully help tone up the quality of education.

When schools would be handed over to communities, a higher level of resource mobilization would occur, which would reduce resource the shortage of schools.

Both of these assumptions bear no empirical evidence that proves them right. In fact, there are facts and experiences, which support that both of them are wrong.

Running a school is an expensive task now. Not to talk of a VEC, even more than 50 percent of the 75 districts are unable to raise financial revenues enough to maintain the primary and secondary schools even at the present level of cost. Obtaining state funding is the only sustainable way of running public schools in the country. Community people are providing what little support even they can in the present state of management. Communities have provided and have been providing physical facilities to almost all the schools in the country. The SMCs, DDCs, VDCs will provide finance for teachers' till the time they receive (adequate) grants from the government. Many VDCs provide money for teachers' salaries from the annual grants they receive from the government.

The second assumption seems to be equally wrong. There is no research finding to prove that the quality of education has improved simply because the community is actively participating. A few public schools have excelled many others in delivering quality education because they have better leadership. In Nepal, private schools have earned reputation for providing quality education. Private schools in general do not have operational management committees and community participation is not much sought.

Local Self-governance Act (LSGA) 1999 and Education Act and Education Regulations (EAER) 2001: There is a serious lack of

understanding of the meaning and spirit of the Local Self-Governance Act and the Education Act. Some supporters of the so-called decentralization/devolution theory see the content of the Local Self-Governance Act enough for the government to hand over all district and village level services to the District Development Committees and Village Development Committees. They even dream of establishing the Local Development Ministry as a super-development ministry managing all development areas like education, health, agriculture, water resources, sanitation and transport. Unfortunately, LSGA was not implemented in the way LDM had wanted. In the mean time, the Ministry of Education and Sports made a comprehensive revision of the Education Act and Regulations (2001 AD) - an adequate and clear provision for the operation of school education in consonance with the decentralized operational rules and regulations through empowered District Education Committees and Village Education Committees. The Education Act (2001) did not even take cognizance of the existence of LSGA.

At present, the government has two models of decentralized management, one desired by LDM and the other provided by the Education Act. Both the models emphasize developed management of schools. However, LSGA proposes management through DDC and VDC and the Education Act enables MOES to manage school education through DECs and VECs. MOES proposes decentralized management through an empowering of the existing structure. MLD, on the other hand, proposes to experiment with the unknown system.

Objectives of the paper

The main objectives of this writing to make the decision-makers aware of the sensitivities and complexities that are involved in changing the management context of school education in a country like Nepal and to suggest some measures that should be taken into consideration in the process of the change. The writing tries to explain the following:

Needs and nature of decentralization of management to be considered for the improvement of the school system

Nepal's experiences of the decentralized management of schools

International trend in the decentralized, community-based or school-based management

Factors to be considered in the process of the adoption of a model for decentralized management.

Why decentralization/devolution or local governance?

Several factors have motivated the Ministry of Education and Sports to declare that it has adopted the decentralized/devolved system of school management.

The advocates of self-governance and decentralized management plead for the transfer of school management to school management committees and school communities - on the hypothesis that such a transfer would solve two major problems: (i) deteriorating quantity of instruction in public schools and (ii) inability of the government to provide adequate funds to schools. In fact, the present status of management of schools at the school level and the district level is pathetic. MOES has proved its inability to manage the school education system. But it has always remained reluctant to devolve the management authority to the lower levels. In fact, both MOES and DOE have concentrated all useful authority in themselves. Even agencies like the Regional Directorate and District Education Office have not been granted the authority that can help raise the quality of education of primary and secondary schools. Schools, which stand at the lowest echelon of the tall administrative structure, remain almost helpless about taking any significant step. Though the country has an elaborate national education management structure, none of the organs below the Ministry of Education and Department of Education have played any significant role in raising the quality of instruction in public schools. Here are some examples:

Regional Directorates of Education (REDs) have only been receiving "carbon copies" of letters written to District Education Offices by the central office. To justify their existence and continuation, MOES/DOE has given REDs some tasks related to the SLC examination. REDs have hardly performed any task that helps raise the quality of instruction in the primary and secondary schools.

District Education Offices (DEOs) are very important organs of MOES in charge of maintaining and improving the quality of instruction of public (community) schools. But they have been ineffective in their academic responsibility. For this there are two reasons. One, they have failed in the tasks they have been entrusted with. For example, DEOs could not improve the supervision of schools, and expose inefficient schools and head teachers. Two, they legally cannot punish head teachers and teachers for their poor performance. They have no authority even to transfer a teacher from one school to another on their own decision. They cannot reward better performing schools. They have no authority to punish the teachers for their negligence in their task, nor can they promote teachers to higher positions as provided by the Education Act.

Even after their membership reorganization as per the Seventh Amendment of the Education Act 1971, SMCs have only remained as ornamental as ever

before. A rapid telephone survey of about 10 schools of three districts of Kathmandu Valley showed that the SMCs have not even met at stipulated time intervals in spite of the level of authority invested in them. They cannot therefore be expected to contribute to raising the quality of public schools.

The present Education Regulations do not invest any authority in SMCs to reward/punish the less dutiful head teachers and teachers. The head teachers have no authority to reward or punish. Teachers know that honesty in job would not pay much for their career. In this state of affairs the performance of public schools is only bound to suffer.

It seems mandatory to take some measures to improve the performance of public schools with teachers appointed by government agencies. These measures should include the revision of the Education Regulations, which will empower DEOs, SMCs and head teachers. In addition, the government should activate the concerned offices to initiate measures to provide promotional benefits to teachers at reasonable time intervals as required by the Education Regulations.

Examples of experiments on decentralized management

The Panchayat system of government, which the country had for three decades, had experimented with decentralized management several times. This decentralized management had conceived the district level management as the only level on which the central government could rely. However, the central authority was delegated sometimes to the District Panchayat and sometimes to the District Office.

When decentralization focused on the District Panchayat, all the district level offices of education, health and agriculture were termed 'sections of the District Panchayat office.'

The district administration also was given the authority to manage all the district level offices of the government and these offices were named 'sections of the district administration'

Experience gained: When the District Panchayat office and District Office were made focal points of district level management, line ministries such as Education, Health, and Agriculture could not exert any influence on the management of their district level offices because they were responsible either to the Panchayat Ministry or to the Home Ministry. The implementation of sector programmes was seriously affected. The district level chiefs of sector line ministries like education or health were made responsible both to the line ministry and district chiefs of the Panchayat Ministry and Home Ministry. This dual responsibility of the district level chiefs

of service created confusion for the district level management of the sector offices.

Lesson Learned: Local self-governance at the district level cannot be carried out half-heartedly. If the country really means to establish local self-government at the district level, the first precondition is the creation of a management infrastructure for the district level administration. Line ministries like health, education and agriculture should not have offices at the district level.

Local Self-governance at district level will succeed only when there is a provision to raise some tax (not student fees) to support the system. School education demands almost 10 percent of the government budget. Only a few districts of the country can support the system by the income of the district. Local government in education with overall financial dependence on the central government cannot be operational (as expected).

International experience

A global trend in decentralization of school management has been known since the 1960's. Many countries experimented with the downward transfer of authority. Even countries like Japan and France, which were running centralized management of education efficiently, shifted control over critical decisions from their central ministries to provincial, municipal and school-level authorities.

Decentralization of educational management assumes many forms because it is intended to serve many purposes. In addition, the management objectives of the central government are changing, leading to further varieties. Here are some examples:

Reduce difficulties of management generated by the increasing complexity of the education systems.

Increase the ability to respond to individual (as opposed to group) demands for equitable access and treatment.

Implement policies (based on research) geared towards greater efficiency and effective in local management.

Respond to pressures for greater professionalization of teachers.

Let parents choose schools according to their perception of quality.

Bring educational management into line with reforms that have come up in public agencies and the private sector (Govinda, 1997, See also Caldwell, 1990).

Decentralization of educational management is a complex process. Many countries have experimented with this concept and have received mixed results. One can find a wide variety of decentralized governance of education. In Central Africa, for example, communities organize schools mainly because they have no government school. In Togo parents provide about half the resources required for operating public schools, in Chad 40 per cent of primary school teachers are hired by communities, and in Malawi abut 20 percent of schools are not government-supported (Bray, 1996). In Latin America the private share of primary and secondary education, already the highest in the world, is still increasing.

If local funding should lead to local governance, the community rather than the central government determines the mission of the school. For example, today more than 600 schools in Mali, and many in Burkina Faso, Ghana, Guinea and Malawi set their own objectives, use locally developed curricula, and hire local persons who are trained for teachership by an international non-governmental organization (DeStefano, 1996; Velis, n.d.).

Initial decentralization reforms proved too weak to improve the quality of education. Most reforms failed to raise the level of academic achievement. A review of 77 empirical and case studies of school-based management implementation in English-speaking countries between 1985 and 1995 reported no significant improvement in students learning outcomes. Some schools improved greatly, others declined in quality. There were only a few systemwise improvements (Leithwod and Menzies, 1998).

Local governance is not an unmixed blessing. Although it permits local innovation in matching education with context, it threatens the integration of the nation as a polity and as an economy. In extreme cases, local autonomy could result in schools educating children in values, languages, knowledge and skills with little currency outside their immediate region.

The Education Act and Education Regulations in the context of decentralized management

MOES felt the need to bring about major change in the Education Act and Education Regulation in order to prepare a legal basis for the decentralized management of school education. Accordingly, some changes were introduced in the Act and the Regulations. The Seventh Amendment of the Education Act was based on the following assumptions:

School communities have disowned public schools. In general, they feel that public schools are owned by the government. If measures are taken to revive the community relationship to schools, the level of community participation in terms of financial assistance and regular supervision can be revived, which would eventually help to raise the quality of instruction.

Parents are the main stakeholders of schools and therefore they are naturally interested in school operation. Their actual involvement would raise the management efficiency of the school.

Teachers in general have felt they are neglected in the decision-making process in all aspects of school operation. This is one reason why teachers have remained apathetic. If teachers are recognized as potential stakeholders, they would feel more accountable.

Teacher 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 with professional spirit to meet professional challenges.

Interests of political parties played roles in teacher recruitment and relaxation of legal training requirements for the teacher in the past decade. This behavior of political leaders can be checked only by an Act of Parliament. Once such a system is put in place, the teachers would be attracted towards professional training. This would help to enhance the dignity of the teaching profession.

The Seventh Amendment Act brought about some important changes in the Act and Education Regulations, which are as follows:

The name "public school" has been changed to "community school".

Possible outcome: As the term "public" has the connotation of government ownership, the feeling behind the term "community" will definitely take the school closer to the community. However, the change of name may create an atmosphere favourable to generating the feeling of community ownership of the school, but may not activate the community to participate whole-heartedly in school affairs. Additional interventions in the form of regulations should be incorporated to empower the community to take decisions on some (definite) aspects of school management.

Change in the role perception and composition of District Education Committee

The District Education Committee was established by the Education Act of 1971 as a strong mechanism to implement the National Education System Plan (NESP).

Some changes of promise appeared in the operation of DEC after the restoration of democracy. The following were the major ones:

Party politics: District Development Committee (DDC) chairpersons are the ex-offio chairpersons of district Education Committee (DEC). When DDC

chairpersons were elected on party lines, DEC chairpersons also became positionally strong politically. The very operation of DEC got difficult particularly when the DEC chairperson belonged to the opposition party in the parliament.

After 1990, DEC's role as a planner and provider of education in the district shrank considerably. Political consideration dominated its decision making process.

Decreased financial role: When the government announced secondary education free, DEC virtually lost its role as a regulator of financial activities. All schools received amounts of money for the salaries of teachers from the government treasury. Schools were allowed to raise some fees without the approval of DEC. But DEC's role to raise additional financial resources hardly materialized. In the absence of this role DEC came to be viewed by some as a superficial body.

Composition of District Education Committee (as per the Seventh Amendment of Education Act)

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

Features of change in DEC membership

The Chief District Officer is no more the Vice-Chairperson of DEC.

DEC has been authorized to nominate 5 out of 13 members.

Separate memberships are provided for the community and institutionalized schools.

Only one teacher union is recognized.

Authority and Responsibility of District Education Committee

The Seventh Amendment has introduced some major changes in the powers and functions of DEC.

The existing Regulations authorize DEC to approve the District Education Plan. The Seventh Amendment authorizes DEC only to prepare the Plan.

The earlier Regulations authorize DEC to classify the existing schools on set criteria. But the amended Act does not mention this authority of DEC. The authority must have been mentioned because the new Act states that the existing schools will be classified.

The authority of the DEC to increase or decrease the size of the grants-in-aid to schools as provided by the earlier regulation has been annulled by the Amended Act.

The authority of DEC to distribute and adjust teacher positions (approved) has been retained by the Amendment.

The amendment has authorized DEC to fix the remuneration of the auditors auditing school accounts.

Expected operation of DEC after the Amendment:

The Seventh Amendment has not made any perceptible departure. The changes in the membership composition DEC are not going to make any difference.

The government, however, can make DEC an effective and useful institution by providing its some of the following authorities and responsibilities:

The government should provide a sizable amount as block grant to DEC so that it could use the government on the basis of the criteria provided by MOES.

DEC should continue to possess the authority to locate and relocate schools, based on a scientific school mapping.

MOES should raise the capacity and quality of educational planning at the district level. It should adopt the policy of allocating funds to DEC on the basis of the District Education Plan (approved).

As 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 the issues and problems of education at the district level.

Composition, powers and functions of School Management Committee: For the first time in the history of education the government has included the composition, powers and functions of the School Management Committee in

the Education Act. As changes in the SMC composition had been frequent over the past ten years, stability of management at the school level had been visibly hampered. This measure to include SMC-related items in the Education Act might have been an attempt to create some stability in school management.

Likewise, there has been some significant change in the composition of the SMC for community schools. In the case of private/institutionalized schools no significant change was introduced. Before the Seventh Amendment, the SMC of a pre-primary school had 7 members and the SMC of a lower-secondary and secondary school had 9. The Amendment provides 9-members for primary, lower secondary and secondary schools.

Before Amendment	As per Amendment
Person nominated by DEC from among the founders, local education supporters, social workers or guardians Chairperson Two persons (one of them female) nominated by DEO from among the guardians recommended by the supervisor - Member School supervisor of the area - Member Chairperson of the Ward - Member One person nominated by SMC from among the guardians or disadvantaged groups - Member One member nominated by DEC from among social workers or intellectuals - Member Head teachers - Member-Secretary	One person selected from the guardians - Chairperson Ward Chairperson of VDC or Municipality - Member Three guardians (one of them female) One person nominated by SMC from among intellectuals/education supporters - Member *One person nominated by SMC from among founders - Member One teacher representative - Member Head teacher - Member-Secretary

Positive: The new membership composition of SMC predominantly represents guardians of students. The chairperson also has to be from among the guardians. This may lead to higher level of participation of the stakeholders in the management of the school. This can be expected to improve instruction. The School Management Committee can be formed at the school level. DEO does not have any role in the formation of SMC. This may lead to the regular appointment of SMC and a school without a SMC may not exist.

Negative: The selection of chairperson and members from guardians may ultimately be a problem. It is reported that most chairpersons in urban schools are not parents. They are only guardians.

Powers and functions of SMC

The existing Education Regulations include 18 items in the clause, which describes the powers and functions of SMC. Of the 18 items, only two denote powers, the rest only denote functions. Because of the nature of authority and responsibility, the head teachers keep SMC in a low profile because they think the school could operate even without it.

The new composition of SMC may mean nothing to the guardians and DEOs. Even some useful powers included in the Education Regulations have been deleted from the Education Act. SMCs could provide additional facilities to teachers if the school had resources. They could provide free tuition facility to the needy students. They could take disciplinary action against the head teacher with the prior approval of DEO. All these important authorities are non-existent in the Amended Act. From this one can safely conclude that the SMCs will not be able to contribute to the improvement of the quality of instruction in the schools. The newly constituted SMCs even with some additional authority given in compliance with the Community School Management Guidel favourable ines, 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.

Ray of hope: The Seventh Amendment includes a clause, which can have a far-reaching influence on the total school operation system. It authorizes the school management to appoint teachers from among the persons who possess the 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 appointed them. However, there is a note of caution. Provisions should be made to ensure that the SMC-appointed teachers enjoy all the perks and benefits that are provided to the existing permanent teachers.

Making management committees active

Given the present level of authority and responsibility, the SMCs will probably remain inactive. The name change to "community school" may remain nothing. The purpose of raising the level of community support can be achieved if the following items are included in the Education Regulations.

Operation of SMC

SMC should be authorized

to raise fees from students as per the general guidelines provided by the District Education Committee.

to provide fee-waivers and scholarships to students who deserve them.

to reward or punish the teachers.

to suspend the teachers and head teachers (pending the final decision by DEO).

to use the resources of the schools for school affairs.

Strategies for transfer of public school to community

As is evident from the existing Act the government can adopt two strategies to implement the concept of school-based management and locally governed system of educational administration. The strategies could be short-term as well as long-term.

Long-term strategy: The long-term strategy would be the establishment of local self-government in all the 75 districts of the country. The District Development Committee could be the executive committee for the district level local self-government. All the districts would create civil services of the nature of district cadres which would cover service sectors such as education, health, agriculture, forest, and drinking water. The line ministries would have abolished all their district level offices. Such a transformation would at least take a decade or two. But one must be optimistic and devise a system of local self-government without negatively influencing the national heritage and culture.

Short-term strategy: The Education Act and Education Regulations have clearly conceptualized decentralized management of public schools. The District Education Committee and the Village Education Committee can provide an adequate and appropriate structure on which to take the public schools back to the communities. The School Management Committee will be helpful to implementing the concept of the community schools. But SMC cannot and should not be conceived as the representative of the community. Only DDC, DEC, VDC, VEC can represent the community. In the case of the Education, an active Village Education Committees and Municipal wards can perform as ad hoc community representatives. If the government is sincerely working towards a decentralized school-based management for community schools, it should take the following measures:

Revise the Education Regulations in order to establish of school-based management by devolving financial and personnel authority to SMC. Let SMC operate the school finance. Authorise it to appoint permanent teachers from among qualified persons.

Make the head teacher fully responsible to SMC, and empower the head to evaluate the teachers.

Authorize the District Education Officer to transfer the head teacher and teachers on the recommendation of SMC.

Announce that the head teacher is the supervisor of the school. Abolish the system of the supervision of secondary schools by DEO supervisors. Do this gradually.

MOES/DOE: develop a list of efficiency indicators and provide grants-in-aid accordingly for other expenses. Salary items must not be affected.

Amalgamate or close down the non-performing schools after a trial of about three years.

Change the role of DEO to that of an agency, an agency providing professional support and doing the monitoring and evaluation of the schools. DEOs should have nothing to do with the appointment and evaluation of teachers.

Conclusions and implications for Nepal

Rapid expansion of educational facilities had been the characteristics of educational development in the West in the 19th century and this got true in the later half of the 20th century with most of other parts of the globe. When educational expansion was recognized as part of the state responsibility, planning and management by the central government have remained normal with educational management in most of the newly emerged nation states. When the system of education got quite extensive and very large in volume, the question of decentralized management and local governance was raised very strongly. Some countries started with the decentralized system but went in for the centralized system when the policy of planned growth was adopted. Nepal had started with the school-based educational management. The centralized management system was adopted in 1971 when the government recognized expenditure on education as investment for national development. By the end of the 20th century, Nepalese education system had grown quite large and the government failed to manage it efficiently. That is one reason why Nepal adopted the policy of decentralized management of school education.

Decentralized Management has one definite advantage over the centralized system. Decentralization helps to raise the level of participation of stakeholders in the operation of schools. Participation of parents is particularly important in this regard because both the government and parents have equal stakes. In fact, this is the basic human need recognized as basic human right.

The need of the decentralized management and the nature of the need depend on the nature of the problems related to efficiency in the management of schools in the country. Nepal's need of decentralized management is to replace the present inefficient management by a more efficient management as envisaged by the supporters of decentralization. In fact, replacement of centralized management becomes possible only if the government sincerely takes all the required steps that would establish a truly decentralized school-based management. And, this has become very urgent.

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Educational Development Efforts in Nepal: Some Critical Issues

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Background

Planned educational development began in Nepal somewhere in the mid 1950s when the country launched its first educational development plan. Since then several education intervention programmes have been implemented. Periodic five-year development plans as well as education - specific plans and projects such as the National Education System Plan, Seti Project, Primary Education Project, Basic and Primary Education Project, Secondary Education Development Project were some of the major educational interventions for school level education. Similarly, several commissions and committees were formed to analyze the educational situations and to make recommendations. Due to all these and to people's interest and participation important improvements have been achieved in the education sector (MOE, 1997; EFA, 2000; Khaniya, 2002; NPC, 2003). At the same time, it is true that despite the progress achieved in Nepal in the past fifty years, the sector still suffers from many problems and weaknesses (NESAC, 1998; World Bank, 2001; Bista and Carney, 2001).

This writing does not intend to dwell on educational problems like deterioration of quality of education in public schools despite ever-increasing inputs or the issue of the school management failing to assure equity in providing access to educational opportunities or the lack of a conducive teaching-learning environment within the school (Panth, 1998, 1999; Bista, 1999). It intends to discuss some of the critical issues of Nepali education that have gone unnoticed or have not been given due attention. It emphasizes the fact that school issues are tied up with wider sociological issues. Failure to look at these issues has been one of the main reasons for poor educational outcomes. These issues have been discussed at length neither at the administrative nor bureaucratic level or even in the academic circles, in the Nepali educational context.

Culture and everyday life

Culture is an integral part of human society. Human decisions and actions are greatly influenced by cultural contexts. Education or schooling is an area, which is influenced by and large by cultural context and utilizes the

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context as a form of resource (Bruner, 1996:4). Thus, we can say that culture and education are closely interrelated. This implies that cultural contexts need to be properly addressed while planning and implementing education programs and activities. By arguing for cultural contexts in education, we argue for culturally compatible components of education - components such as curriculum, textbook, assessment and evaluation, management, teaching and classroom practices, which should reflect and be attuned to students' cultural contexts (Madsen, 2000). Without a linkage of education to cultural contexts of the students, educational interventions cannot achieve their desured objectives.

Using the cultural approach in education demands linking education with everyday life of the children or the community in general (Madsen, 1999, 2000). It is in everyday life where people create and interact culturally. People acquire knowledge from or in their everyday life in a spontaneous manner. Everyday life is taken for granted and from heterogeneous activities of daily life people derive meaning and develop worldviews. In Nepal, the everyday life of children involves fetching drinking water, collecting firewood and fodder, taking care of siblings, assisting parents in household chores or farms, preparing meals, and so on. Doing homework assigned by the school has become an important aspect of everyday life for a majority of children – a development of the last few decades.

So far, Nepali education has not paid any attention to linking cultural context and everyday life (Parajuli, 2002). This has been one of the major drawbacks of all previous educational development plans and projects implemented in the past. All these plans did, of course, bring in many new scientific and innovative ideas and programmes, but unfortunately they lacked cultural contexts. The plans and projects used a blanket approach for the whole country, and only built new schools, prepared new curricula and textbooks and introduced new teaching and management practices but overlooked cultural contexts. Despite new books, trained teachers and added facilities learning achievements of the students (i.e. the internal efficiency of the school system) remained poor. One of the reasons for this is that none of the interventions felt it necessary to consider that Nepal is a multi-cultural and multi-language country and that people have culture-specific needs and demands. Therefore, it is now necessary to emphasize the cultural context approach in the preparation of educational plans and programmes.

Another problem with Nepali education is that there is no harmony between the learners' home world and school world (Robinson-Pant, 2000). The values and meanings they develop or the things they learn in their home or village are devalued in schools. This question is particularly critical in the case of the students from rural and remote settings and of the students who

belong to ethnic minorities or poor and deprived communities. A modern school is scientific, technical, rational, and objective whereas the village/home is a natural, traditional, relational, practical learning place. This has made the Nepali school a centrally controlled institute, which undermines local knowledge base and traditions of learning in the name of national programmes for modern and scientific knowledge.

Actor oriented approach and people's discourses

The everyday life approach in education requires that planners adopt an actor-oriented approach while planning educational interventions. The actor-oriented approach lays stress on local knowledge system and hence builds on the knowledge and capability of the local actors and derives from their everyday life experiences, be they low-caste landless people, small farmers, village artisans, government bureaucrats, development workers or local elites (Long & Long, 1992; Long, 2001). The meaning of 'actor' does not limited itself to individuals; it includes social groups, networks, institutes, and organisations that possess the knowledge and capacity to act upon or influence. An actor-oriented approach therefore requires an understanding of the multiple social realities people are living in and their strategies and struggles to cope with the harsh physical and social environments. It is very important to understand how their everyday lives are patterned, how they manage their inter-personal relations and how they negotiate, create and utilize knowledge.

Nepali education has never placed the social actor at the core and has only undermined the actor role. It has always been a one-track system designed entirely on modern and scientific principles, national and international priorities and standards of Western models. It has not yet recognized the roles and capabilities of local actors and their priorities. It has been working on the assumption that the local people know nothing and need to be educated. It refuses to recognize that the local actors are good sources of knowledge and experience from which many things can be learnt. Thus, in spite of people's self-expressed enthusiasm for participating in and contributing to the educational processes, the Nepali education system has ever remained expert-based and has overlooked the reality behind the participation.

Reducing poverty has been one of the major goals of development effort in Nepal. However, the effort has yet to adopt a pro-poor approach. This is because educational development in Nepal has been considered a mere professional activity and so lacks the vision of a vital process of participation by a wider group of people advocating access of the poor to education (UNDP, 2002). Moreover, policy-makers of the central level assume that

people in the villages are neither capable of involving interested in contributing to educational processes. Hence, professionals and decision-makers have pushed the people in a situation of forced invisibility. Forced invisibility can be seen in the form of social discrimination against women, ethnic minorities and the poor as well as in terms of location. Despite repeated commitment reducing gender disparity in education has is still remained a dream.

Nepali education has so far moved along the line of a standard and authoritative discourse. The meaning of 'discourse' here is taken as standard and authorized sets of rules, practices or systems that try to influence or control the way people think, act and behave (Escobar, 1995; Grillo, 1997:9-11; Robinson-Pant, 2001). The National Education System Plan, 1971 was a good example of state-controlled education discourse, which attempted to control every aspect of education in the country and strengthened the process of cultural homogenization (Onta, 1996). This process of control is still continuing in many senses (Dixit, 2002; Caddell, 2002). Thus, education in Nepal has always been part of the state discourse delivering national norms and values, alien to local aspirations. This national discourse has seen people as a generalized and homogenized group and has denied the existence of alternative discourses of education in the country. This denial has been one of the main reasons for the failure of efforts for educational development. Thus, it is now high time that Nepali education recognized the existence of multiple discourses in the country. Truely, these alternative and multiple discourses are contextualized in history, tradition and culture of the local actors and are based on their everyday life perspectives. Thus, to see education as discourses is to realize that there are multiple and conflicting construct; and that no single and legitimate construct is enough. The critical issue here is the question 'Whose education?'

However, it has also to be realized that educational development efforts need a strategy that combines local wisdom (external, national as well as international), knowledge and expertise. Alone, neither local wisdom and intelligence nor external expertise and professionalism are enough to address the several problems being faced by the Nepali education. However, this fact is yet to be realized by Nepali educational decision-makers. It also needs to be noted that interventions that are congruent with the existing socio-cultural practices are easily accepted by the people.

Nepali education has never felt the need of giving an opportunity to young people to vent their voice. It lacks a system of interaction between the young people for whom education is designed. The irony, thus, is that for whom the system is designed are kept voiceless. Young people are not given any opportunity to participate in planning their own future. The system has

always assumed that the young people know nothing and only the grown-ups' knowledge and experience can plan educational activities. There is an urgent need to bring fundamental change in such an approach. The need of the time is to make room where the young people can express their voice and participate in decision-making. The planners need to view the world from the perspective of the young people because the future is theirs. Their vision, aspiration and problems should be the key elements in planning the future course of education in this country. In this country, and elsewhere in the world, the young people have established their willingness to participate in and proven their capability to contribute to designing the future (Petkoski, 2002).

Participation and decentralization

Participation has been rhetoric in Nepali education development and management since the implementation of the first education plan in the 1950s. Theoretically, participation demands power-sharing with citizens in the process of governance (Oyugi, 2000). Only then can we have real, and not symbolic, participation. Real participation can be described as the power in the hands of the citizen to influence the process of decision-making and implementation and symbolic participation as just endorsing the decisions made by others. The form of participation as practiced in Nepal is largely of the symbolic type. People are expected to contribute to the physical development of the school but not to the educational processes in their localities. Education in Nepal is an activity carried out by high elite groups for their own benefits.

Organizing people in groups for the purpose of education and harnessing their organized and group strength has been one critical missing link in Nepali education. It has been an established fact that, when people are organized, they can make important contributions (Miller, 2000:18-19). Alone, an individual might face various inhibiting factors like sex, age, caste, economy, education, location, etc. in participating in any social or developmental activities (ibid). But once the individual becomes part of the group, the effect of such inhibits would be reduced. Thus, through groups, people can participate in school affairs maximally. Organizing people into groups and harnessing their support and participation in school governance can thus be an important strategy. However, it should be remembered that instead of forming new groups, attempts should be made to mobilize the traditional groups that already exist in villages. In most cases, village people are organized in one or other type of traditional group. At some places such groups may be tight-knit; at others, they may be loose-knit. Locally and contextually, different types of groups formed on a bases like family, caste, language, sex, age, occupation, origin, etc. may be mobilized.

Even after 50 years of heavy investment, the country's adult literacy is still below 50 per cent. Similarly, we have been shifting the target year for achieving Education for All –- a long-time goal of Nepali education. These realities illustrate the shortcomings of the present approach and point to the need for a new approach. One such new approach might be partnership of government and non-government agencies. The major and coordinating roles for achieving these goals should obviously be played by the Ministry of Education. However, there can be no debate on the fact that the government should also utilize the networks and facilities of other agencies as well. For example, a women development programme could have important components concerning increasing women's access to education. Similarly, such programmes related with educational access, equity, quality, management, etc. could be implemented through several other agencies. It is true that programmes with education components have been implemented by some other non-education agencies but such programmes have only been few and for between and uncoordinated. Mobilizing other agencies in achieving educational goals would require leadership, vision, political commitment and a well-planned strategy.

Like participation, decentralization has remained nothing but a rhetoric. Probably, almost all educational plans and projects that have so far been implemented or being implemented have emphasized the need for decentralization in educational governance at the local level. However, decentralization has not been the real policy goal in Nepal. In fact, in a country like Nepal with a hierarchic and status-oriented society, where everything is directed by power centres, decentralization in the real sense becomes nothing more than a sweet dream. Decentralization demands power-sharing with people on an equal footing but the structure of Nepali society does not permit this. Besides, the state has some specific objectives with regard to schooling. One such objective is to utilize schooling to disseminate the state programme of modernity and development (Skinner & Holland, 1996). Given these objectives, control of schooling processes at the local level may become essential. Hence, in Nepal decentralization is not the policy thrust of education governance. This shows that centralization, not decentralization, is in-built in educational governance practices in Nepal. Formation of committees like District Education Committee and Village Education Committee exhibits nothing but the government intention of undermining the role of peoples' representatives and democratically elected political bodies. Moreover, the government should make efforts to get the peoples' and donors' support.

Branching out of decision-making power from the centre (generally, the Ministry or the Department of Education), to peripheral locations or institutes – regions, districts, villages or schools – is the main thrust of decentralization.

This would create the space for people's participation in the management of the school, giving the people the opportunity to express their opinions in the decision-making process. The logic is that the school management would become more effective when it is closer to the people it intends to serve because it is argued that the people - more specifically, parents - are more concerned and informed about the a position of the school and thus are in situations to make decisions that best suit the school (Chapman, Barcikowski, Sowah, Gyamera & Woode, 2002). Decentralization has been described to be of different forms and types (Manor, 1999). Transference of decision-making authority to field level offices of the central government is known as administrative decentralization or deconcentration, and transference of this authority to local political bodies as political decentralization or devolution. Political decentralization or devolution is said to be the advanced form of decentralization because in it authorities are transferred to the peoples' representatives. Deconcentration is the weakest form of decentralization because in it the authority remains at the hands of the government, be it at the local level though. A variant of decentralization is institutional decentralization under which institutions like schools are authorized to take certain decisions.

One of the assumptions related to decentralization is that it provides an opportunity to bring local voices in the forefront. However, it is difficult to see it in Nepal in this same way. This is because the central system is taking it as a mechanism to carryout its own programmes and objectives through decentralized units thus giving no chances for local voices to be expressed. The present programme of preparing district, village or municipality and school educational plan is an example of such a reality. Instead of allowing opportunities to different stakeholders at the local level to innovate their own programmes, the parameters for discussing and articulating problems are pre-set in these planning exercises making the participation of the local people only symbolic. Thus, local voices are forced to subside in the name of national goals and programmes (Caddell, 2003).

This shows that educational decentralization in Nepal has been planned and implemented in a very vague and contradictory manner. It is, in fact, an imported and imposed construct with little or no relationship with the indigenous system of participation, discussion and decision-making (as practiced in the villages of Nepal). It seems that in the name of decentralization this country is heading towards different directions at one time. The Local Self-Governance Act, 1999 sees the District Development Committee, the democratically elected political body, as the apex body as far as district development is concerned. Heading towards a situation of complete devolution, the Act has even envisioned a day when there wills not even the presence of government development offices like education office

of the district level. However, the decentralization efforts in education and in other sectors have been directed towards administrative decentralization.

Research and policy development

Educational plans and programmes should be based on research in aspects that are related with issues in education. Because research conducted indepth and with positivistic as well as humanistic, approaches provide important insights into educational issues. The positivistic traditions in research assume that there is one single real world which can be studied, aggregated and generalized, whereas humanistic traditions believe in processes and argues for the multiple construction of the realities which are created and re-created based upon the perceptions of the people (Brewer, 2000:30). Positivistic research traditions derive from the quantitative methods where unique identities of individual cases loose their significance and humanistic traditions derive from qualitative methods and everyday ethnographies, laying emphasis on how an individual looks at and interprets the world. Research works done on humanistic traditions and carried out at the micro level are critical in the development of the understanding of issues in education. Such works are very important in the identification of various crosscutting issues and forces at play and their relative strengths. Research works following the positivistic traditions are not less important because representations and generalizations over the given area are important characteristics of such studies, which can provide important insights into the issues. Similarly, research works that follow both humanistic and positivistic traditions are also equally important.

Unfortunately, only a few educational policies and programmes in Nepal are informed by theoretically backed and organised research studies. This reality explains the failure of most of educational plans in hitting the intended target. In fact, there is a dearth of serious research studies in Nepal that address issues related to education. Little is known about the various processes that play their roles at the micro and macro levels. Only a few studies commissioned by the government or donor agencies are based on positivist research traditions and have been at the macro level. Though they have their importance, they are of little value in analyzing the micro processes and they almost do not include qualitative studies dealing with the micro processes of education and its issues. One could but wonder why research scholars pursuing humanistic research traditions are not attracted towards this important social dimension. These points to the lack of emphasis on establishing and developing an independent research tradition based upon everyday ethnographies. Hence, It is now necessary to promote and develop such traditions in Nepal. It should be realized that such traditions are critical for the success of educational programmes.

Another ground reality is that in Nepal the findings of research studies are utilized in the policy development process. Policy makes programme developers interact and discuss with the stakeholders and the local people - seldom. An open forum for policy debate is the need of time. Stakeholder's policy makers, bureaucrats, researchers, academia, media and the public must gather and discuss policy options.

Conclusion

Education is critically influenced by wider sociological factors. Its functioning and efficiency are tied up not only with pedagogical reasons but go beyond them. Hence, understanding these reasons is very essential for making education a meaningful process. This writing has discussed some of these reasons which need to be understood and which are missing or are not properly addressed in Nepali education. It also has discussed some of the inherent weaknesses of Nepali education system. As people live in particular cultural processes, it is essential that schooling fit in with these contexts. One of the main purposes of education is to contribute to bringing qualitative improvement in the lives of the people. With this, it is to be accepted that people are the main actors and their agency and discourses are what matter in educational planning. Participation and decentralization are processes that empower people to demand, participate and contribute at the local level. Basic research, mainly that conducted on humanistic research traditions, contributes to an understanding of people's multiple discourse. All these factors are, however, are either missing or less emphasized in Nepali education.

Realizing the capability of social actors in pursuing locally designed and nationally coordinated educational programmes, participation of all actors (individual as well as institutional), decentralized decision making, external support with a sound local knowledge base, environment that stimulates local voice, etc. form a key to the successful design and implementation of educational programmes. A national consensus envisioning the educational world and commitment to its goal are the need today.

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Enhancing Quality of Primary Education

Bhupendra Hada[7]

First few words

Education shapes the future of the child. Education opens the eyes -- through the agency of the teacher. The noted American educationist and philosopher John Dewey has said: As food is essential for physical development, so is education essential for social growth and development; plants are developed by cultivation and humans by education. From this, we can infer that education is the source of holistic development. School is regarded as the place of normal education. So it should provide quality education to all its child inmates. Effective teaching and joyful learning are the major elements which provide quality.

What is quality?

Quality can be defined from various angles. In language education, ability to comprehends, ability to be creative, ability to express effectively constitute quality. (Keralla, 2001). In Nepal, school internal efficiency is said to determine the quality.

In fact, the concern for quality in education is the concern of the government, citizens, employers, students, parents, teachers and school administrators. The word "quality" comes from the Latin word *quails* meaning '"what kind of". Pfeiffer and Coote (cited in Nariwal, 2001) have remarked: “Quality is a slippery concept ”. It is slippery because it has a variety of meanings and applies to several contexts at the same time. Confusions have cropped up over the meaning of quality because it can be used both as an absolute and a relative concept. Quality in everyday conversation is used as an absolute – "this is the thing of quality". Quality in this sense is used to convey the meaning of status and positional advantage. Quality in technical sense is a relative concept – an attribute of a product or service. Quality in this sense is 'measuring against a specification" (Nariwal, 2001:2).

Pupils having completed a certain level of education are said to have acquired a certain level of knowledge and skill. The main factors of education are three: the teacher, the curriculum (content and methods) and learning materials. It is often difficult to determine exactly the role of each of these

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components because they interact to work as one single identity. Training is an expensive process and it is possible to obtain a product of better quality by combining various training inputs judiciously. Studies of the quality of the school inputs and processes are indispensable.

Nairwal (2001:2) expresses her views on quality in her Ph. D. dissertation entitled 'A study into the quality of primary education in rural West Bengal' she says that quality in education is a pervasive but elusive concept. It is multifacet and embraces three broad aspects: goals, processes and the extent of achievement. Quality, therefore, plays a dominant role not only in higher institutions of learning but also in primary schools where the education foundation of a child is laid (Nariwal, 2001; 2).

Present situation of children in Nepal

School is regarded as a holy place, as a symbol of social civilization. The primary school is the place where 6 to 10 year old children get formal education. Primary school students come from different cultural and economic settings. They belong to different castes/ethnicities and religious/language communities. In a developing country like ours children are faced with problems e.g. of topography and transport. For various reasons they drop out and repeat the grade, for various reasons. This causes decrease in the number of students. To stop this is not an easy task. Hence, teachers and community people should make the parents aware of this. Most of the parents in remote areas do not send their children to school because they are unaware. They use their children to earn for the family. They say that if the child goes to school the family income level will slide down. Because of their poor family economy, parents are busy meeting their basic needs such as food, shelter and clothing. They are compelled to engage their children in household works, e.g. take-care of siblings and animal grazing. (CERID, 1988).

Most primary schools of Nepal have children from ethnic minority groups. Without instructional materials and incentives it is indeed very difficult to create a child-friendly environment in the classroom. In this reference, Bruner, (cited in Karmacharya, 2003: 124) suggests," Though culture is man-made, nothing is culture-free; individuals are mirrors of their cultures." The classroom situation does not reflect the children's culture and social context. So students feel quite uncomfortable in the class and the teacher has much difficulty in adjusting with the cultural complexities. There is much difference in the socio-cultural contexts - of home and the school (Karmacharya, 2003: 124).

To reduce drop-out and grade repetition, the school should have teaching efficiency (teachers), effective leadership (head teacher), good management

(SMC), and regular monitoring and evaluation (supervisor appointed by DEO).

Development of Primary Education in Nepal

Jung Bahadur, the first prime minister, is said to have initiated the British system of education in Nepal. He opened an English school for children in the Dakhchowk of Thapathali palace in 1910 A.D. The school admitted only the children of the ruling Rana family. Jung Bahadur had imported some teachers from England. This was the beginning of Durbar High School of Kathmandu. Dev Shamshere was called a liberal Rana prime minister. He opened 150 primary schools and worked for educational expansion in the country in 1857. Dev Shamshere made the Durbar school open to the common people. At that time, Jaya Prithvi Bahadur Singh, the king of Bajhang, published Achharanka Shiksha, the first Nepali textbook, for the beginners. Dev Shamshere also established Bhasa Pathshalas.

The educational interest of Dev Shamshere was hostile to the family interest of his autocratic Rana brothers. To them, he looked dangerously progressive and after a conspiracy they put him to exile (after 113 days of his rule). The newly opened chapter of universal education was closed for nearly a half century. Most of the 150 schools were closed down. A source explaining the reasons for Dev's exile has been noted: he was considered over-liberal in the matters of education. Dev also started a newspaper, the *Gorkapatra*.

In the first five-year plan (1956 – 1960) eighty percent of the national budget was allocated to primary education. In 1951, the national literacy rate was only two percent (Shrestha, 2001).

In the next few years, the government did nothing remarkable. By 1910, there had been only 25 schools in Kathmandu including one for Sanskrit and one for Persian. These developments show that the foundation of education structure had been laid.

The structure consisted of lower secondary grades (1-2), upper primary grades (3-5), middle grades (6-8) and high school (9-10). In 1938, the structure was changed. It was now three years of primary, four years of middle and three years of high school. Before 1954, there were six types of schools in Nepal: English schools, Basic Education schools, Sanskrit schools, Gompas (Buddhist monastic schools), Madarsas (Persian/Arabic teaching schools) and Vernacular schools of the primary level. The Ministry of Education made of primary education of five years. The Nepal National Education Planning Commission (NNEPC, 1954) suggested a comprehensive national education system through its report entitled "Education in Nepal" (1956) and the recommendations of the report were

implemented. In 1960, a section was established in the Department of Education to look after the curriculum and textbook.

In 1961, the All Round National Education Committee (ARNEC) was formed. This committee recommended four things: (a) primary education should be made free and compulsory, (b) primary education should be of five years, (c) all education institutions should be placed under the control of the government and (d) a system of school supervision should be started for qualitative teaching. There were about 7275 primary schools in 1960 (Uprety, 1962).

They came the National Education System Plan (NESP, 1971– 1975). Schools followed a 3+4+3 system. In 1975, primary education was made free. Textbooks were distributed free of cost. The government defrayed the salary of all primary teachers.

Radio Education Teacher Training was started for primary school teachers. In 1981 primary education was again made of five years, lower secondary of two years and secondary of three years. In 1992 the National Education Commission was set up. Recruitment of at least one female teacher for a primary level became mandatory. In 1997 the master plan for Basic and Primary Education was updated in consonance with the Ninth Five Year Plan (1997- 2002). The plan emphasized the introduction of CPE and the launching of the National Literacy Campaign with the involvement of national and international agencies, local bodies and committees as a strategy for achieving the goal of Education for All (Shrestha, 2001:55).

Role of teacher

The success of a school depends largely on its teachers. Burton says, "Teaching is guidance, stimulation, direction and encouragement to learn." Teaching will become more effective if this definition is followed strictly. Only the teacher who stimulates and motivates learners and guides them to develop skills, attitudes and knowledge is said to be effective.

The teacher plays a major role in enhancing the quality of education. There should be good relationship between teachers and students. Sharing of ideas by teachers and students through interactions is essential for learning. “Thinking about thinking” has to be an ingredient of education. Hence, the teacher should not forget that children are knowledgeable and that they can think (Karmacharya, 2003: 122).

Here is a list of some important responsibilities of the teacher:

- To create an atmosphere in which children may come to school smiling and with enthusiasm

- To train children to learn besides learning from classroom teaching
- To develop in them the ability to observe, comprehend, analyze, differentiate, integrate and create
- To enkindle children's curiosity and help them to think and learn on their own
- To continuously evaluate their learning and development. Continuous evaluation must include evaluation of capabilities in games, sport, drama, debate and social behavior. A student who fails in Mathematics but is very good in sports should be declared a pass. Many schools grade activities but do not consider this while preparing the final result.
- To raise the awareness level of parents through home visits.

(Source: Krishnaji, 1996: 77 – 78)

Steps to achieve quality education

The following measures are suggested:

- Manage the school in line with the policy of decentralization
- Plan the school location for efficient control.
- Mobilize local or community people to the drive for quality education.
- Establish early childhood development centers.
- Enroll all girl children of school age.
- Increase women's participation in primary education.
- Improve classroom management.
- Develop teaching aids from local materials as far as possible (Most of the schools cannot afford imported materials.
- Develop in the students specific skills, attitudes and knowledge as per the general and specific objectives of the curriculum.
- Cut down repetition and drop-out rates by using quality instructional materials.
- Give children nutritious food for the development of their cognitive ability (Kenny, 2003:3).
- Organize refresher trainings (DEO) for teachers in order to help them produce new techniques that can motivate the students better.

- Provide incentives to active and intelligent students.
- Make the classroom environment child-friendly and learning joyful.
- Increase the volume of public contribution for games and recreational facilities (Shrestha, 2001).
- Give the head teacher a stronger role .
- Provide playground and toilet facilities.
- Distribute of workbooks to children.
- Supply safe drinking water - to combat intestinal infestations and to prevent diseases such as diarrhea that draw nutrition out of the body (Kenny, 2003: 3).
- Increase parent-teacher interaction.
- Develop a school improvement plan (SIP).
- Provide regular and quality supervision.

Last few words

Quality education should be provided to all children enrolled in primary grades. To enhance the quality of education, we need teaching efficiency, standard teaching, effective method, smaller class size, joyful learning environment, and efficient school management. Use of appropriate instructional materials and effective supervision are equally important. So in lack of effective teaching, the school cannot provide quality education. If the educational standard does not go up in perfect harmony with the developmental process of the world, the products of education would not be able to face the complex situations (Uprety, 2054 B.S.). Hence, in order to fulfill our country's needs, we must lay stress on providing quality education to all school-going children.

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Rural Education in China's Development

Roshan Bajracharya[8]

Background

China has been one of the economically fast developing countries for more than 20 years. The average Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth rate has been over 10% since the 80s. The GDP of the country rose to 8,205 billion yuan in 1999 from 362 billion as it was in the year 1978. The GNP per capita has reached more than $860. Similarly, China's life expectancy rate is on the increase. In 1998 the average life expectancy hadreached 71.2 years. China is also urbanizing very fast. It has been urbanizing by 24% in the fifty years (1950 to 2000). The rural population of 0.9 billion is also getting better off. All these are the fruits of rural education.

Development of rural education in China

China believes that education cannot be provided ideally by the private enterprises governed by market mechanism. As a result, the government has become the main, if not the sole, provider of education. Educationists, economists and social scientists agree that education, especially rural education, helps the country in its efforts for rapid rural transformation. According to Colin N. Power, UNESCO Deputy Secretary-General, China has always been on the lead in Education for All initiatives. In China, there are three factors which support the country's education development: effective policies, commitments by both central and local governments, and innovative initiatives.

Rural education is broadly defined as the education of rural population for the boost-up of rural economy and social development aimed at raising agricultural productivity and promotion of the quality of rural living. As rural people acquire education, new skills and technologies accelerate, the quality of rural life improves and the incentive to relocate urban areas for better work opportunities goes up.

In China, all formal, non-formal and informal education systems aim at expansion of rural education. Coordination between these systems has been properly maintained. Learners can transit easily from one system to another. The scope of rural education in China could be seen in the matrix given below:

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Scope of Rural Education

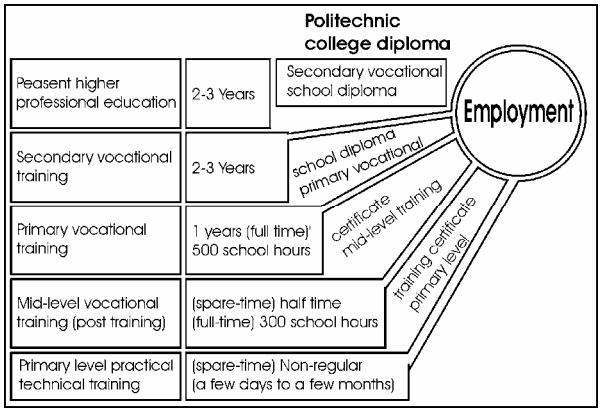
Civic education

Levels	Target group	Task and requirement	Integration	Organizational structure	
Elementary Education	Children, adults, (the key target population), drop-outs, girls, handicapped, women etc.	Universal basic education (the first level education), education for basic learning needs, elementary education for working skills		Formal education	Informal education
Secondary Education	Adolescents, teenagers, adults	Universal basic education (secondary education), education for basic learning needs, secondary vocational education			
Higher Education	Teenagers, adults	Higher vocational education (higher agriculture education, college for farmers)		Non formal education	

Right from the elementary level of education, civic education and entrepreneur education are integrated and delivered to learners. In rural education of the elementary level formal education plays the major role and non-formal education the subordinate role. At the secondary level both formal and non-formal education both play the same role, and at the higher secondary level non-formal education plays the major role.

Structural diversity

Rural education operates flexibly in achieving its educational and social goals. Its structural diversity can be illustrated as in the following diagram where rural education is organized in three categories of structure to offer three major types of programs of primary, secondary and tertiary levels.



Farmer training is an area involving difficulties and the key is vocational education. Vocational education is introduced in various types for different levels as shown in the following figure:

Of the five levels, the first is the primary level practical vocational training. Enrolment is open to everyone regardless of educational background, age or occupation. The training program conducted in agricultural schools (at township and village levels) or local middle or primary schools aims at providing practical skills to meet the urgent needs of agriculture, industry and commerce. The second is the in-service occupational training for people such as agricultural production managers (grassroots), specialized contractors, managers of village and township enterprises and young intellectuals returning to farming. Most of the programs are conducted in local agricultural schools or vocational training centers. The third is the primary vocational training for young farmers with junior high school education and chief members in agricultural production and management It includes both pre-service training and in-service training administered by vocational training centers (at county or township levels) or agricultural schools. The fourth provides secondary vocational education for intermediate level professionals. This program is now linked with vocational senior high schools, secondary television universities and rural vocational centers. The highest level there is higher education for farmers. In China, there are institutions of higher learning and television universities which provide specialized programs to meet the needs of rural people.

Formal education for rural development

Formal education has to work for the rural people. Some of the steps taken by China's formal education are summarily given below:

1. Basic education

a. Popularization of compulsory education

The Compulsory Education Law of 1986 brought the movement for making basic education nationwide. In the early 90s, the government declared that by the year 2000 China would reach the goal of popularizing 9 years' school education in areas with 85% of the population and that the enrolment rate for junior high school should reach 85%. By the end of 1999, 2428 counties, which covered more than 80% of the total population, attained the goal.

b. Primary education

China has a 6-year primary education system. The development of basic education in primary education has been a top priority. There are not only full-time primary schools but also part-time ones including boarding schools

and multi-grade schools. The main aim of a primary school is to provide basic literacy and functional education.

2. Secondary education

In China, secondary education is of 6 years. It consists of two levels - 3 years of junior secondary education and 3 years of senior secondary education. The first level is compulsory. So since the enforcement of Compulsory Education Law in 1986 there has been great increase in secondary education enrolment, especially in junior secondary.

Non-Formal education

The following non-formal education programs are the main pillars of China's rural education.

1. Adult and non-formal education

Rural adult education goes beyond reading, writing and arithmetic and it is intended to enable a person to earn for his/her family and contribute for the society and country. Over the last 20 years, school-based or village-based educational development has been encouraged. The "2 Three" policy of developing rural education combines three components: *basic education*, *vocational education* and *adult education.* It also coordinates three forces: *agriculture, science and technology* and *education.* The overall aim is to generate a situation favorable for the development of education together with the development of local economy.

2. Literacy education

Since the 50s China has made great strides in eliminating illiteracy. According to a figure, over 206 million illiterates have become literate since 1949. The illiteracy rate of the total population had slided down from 80% in 1949 to 16.48% in 1995 and the illiteracy rate of young and middle-aged adults was 6.14%. Over 4 million illiterates became literate through literacy programs every year. Mostly girls and women greatly benefited from the literacy programs. Because of literacy programs over 110 million women in China became literate over the last 50 years. The activity called "Double Learning and Double Matching" significantly contributed to the improvement of literacy situation of girls and women.

The Double Learning (literacy skill and skill training) and Double Matching (matching work and social services) program combined literacy and income generating skills so that the learners could earn some money as well. Under the program, 20 million illiterate women became literate, 23 million women

received skill training in agriculture, 15 million women got into various adult schools for study and 15 million women received agricultural technician certificates.

3. Rural adult education

Rural adult education has also been playing an important role in rural development. Adult education institutions are generally for people who are working. These institutions provide both academic and non-academic education. Academic education includes all kinds and all levels of education, (primary, college and university). Non-academic education is the main task of adult education institutions, but some general secondary schools and higher educational institutions also provide non-academic education.

"Adult education is an important part of education in China. Functioning in the education system as a whole, it is as important as basic education, vocational education and higher education. Adult education is primarily for workers from every walk of life. It improves their quality effectively so as to upgrade the economic benefit and working efficiency." (The National Ministry of Education on the Decision about the Reform and Development of Adult Education).

Academic education in the rural adult education sector consists mainly of vocational and technical schools for agriculture and farming machinery, broadcasting schools for agriculture technology, tutoring classes for self-study examinations TV university for secondary and higher education, training classes for managers of the township enterprises, and so on. The whole realm of academic education is unified in the nation recruiting plan, which is guided by related government ministries such as Ministry of Education and Ministry of Agriculture and implemented by provincial (counterpart) departments. The educational management is taken care of by relevant institutes such as TV University, committees of self-study examination and broadcast schools.

At present, the rural non-academic education consists of the following types:

Education service provided by township culture technical schools for farmers is the basic form of non-academic education in the rural areas. It has the characteristics of systemization and multi-specification and is multi-form.

Training centers and vocational middle schools run by related departments of the county governments primarily train key personnel of technology and management for the development of rural communities and agriculture.

Short-term training on practical skills and technology of various kinds/levels conduct programs in hairdressing (beauty parlors), clothes making,

accounting, cooking, traveling, maintenance and repair of farming machinery, electronics etc. This kind of training takes in a large number of rural youths and adults and provides them trainings, which help them get transferred to non-agriculture work.

Training for rural adults through projects supported by government departments. Examples: The Xinhua Project implemented by the National Commission of Science and Technology, which is to explore new techniques in and for rural areas. THE HARVEST PROJECT implemented by the Ministry of Agriculture is to popularize new agriculture products and advanced techniques, THE LIAOYUAN PROJECT implemented by the Ministry of Education combines agriculture, science and education to provide training on practical skills and technology. The outstanding characteristic of this training is that it insists on investment by the national government, the local government and the beneficiaries themselves.

Various special trainings are initiated and implemented by unions or non-government organizations. For example, the Double Learning and Double Matching program managed by women unions at various levels, which focuses on the acquisition of new knowledge and the mastering of existing skills. This program greatly benefits women in the rural areas and plays an important role in helping them become prosperous. The cost of activities is borne from special funds of the government, subsidies from the agriculture department and donation from the society. The key function of the Women Unions is to organize and encourage women to take part in community activities and motivate them to learn from the model women who are praised for their excellence in learning and practical skills.

3. Vocational education

Besides the regular high schools, which provide general academic training, there are two types of schools providing vocational training and specialized skills. The first type is called “specialized secondary schools" which are closely linked to certain jobs and professions. The graduates of these schools, whether from urban areas or rural areas, have jobs as well as a non-agricultural living status in the household registration system. The vocational schools are basically the outcome of the educational reform of the 80s and after, although there had been some such schools in the mid 60s too. Vocational secondary schools have been the most prosperous in economically better urban areas, and in some cities the student enrolment rate of vocational senior high schools surpasses that of the regular senior high schools. Far back in the late 50s, agricultural and vocational schools were established all over the country. But the Cultural Revolution closed down the agricultural schools and for a dozen of years there were only secondary schools.

4. Agricultural education

Agricultural education is of utmost importance for rural development. Since China is a large agricultural country, it has been trying to educate farmers in new technologies of agriculture for more production. After 1978, the effort got stronger. Various agricultural (vocational) schools have been established all over country. Farmers' schools have been opened. As a result of these efforts, China's agricultural development is going on pretty fast. Agricultural productivity has increased significantly putting an ending to the history of food shortage. The food output increased by 200 billion kg over the past 20 years. The problem of food for a 1.2 billion population has been solved. Better regulations have been introduced for industry and labor employment in rural areas. Rural enterprises have emerged as a new employment force and 130 million surplus agriculture laborers have been absorbed by these enterprises. Since 1978, the production of food has steadily increased. Livestock production is increasing by 9.9% every year. Output of food has risen to 350 million, 400 million and 450 million tons in three stages and China has become the largest food-producing country in the world.

Changes in labor force structure

Rapid development of rural education and the quality of its management have quickened transformation of the rural labor force.

Changes in labor force structure 1952 -1998

Year	Agriculture		Industry		Service	
	GDP %	Employment	GDP %	Employment	GDP %	Employment
1952	50.5	83.5	20.9	7.4	28.5	9.1
1956	37.9	81.5	35.1	8.3	27.0	10.2
1957	32.4	77.1	45.7	13.3	21.9	9.6
1985	28.4	62.4	43.1	20.8	28.5	16.8
1995	20.5	52.2	48.8	23.0	30.7	24.8
1998	18.0	49.8	49.2	23.5	32.8	26.7

In the table above we can see that in 1952 the agriculture in GDP was 50.5% and the agriculture labor was 83.5%. They were 28.4% and 62.4% in 1985. In 1998 the share of agriculture in GDP was only 18.0% and agriculture labor was only 49.8%. In the same period, the labor force in industry and services had increased. In 1952, the share of industry in GDP was 20.9% only and the industrial labor force was only 7.4%, which increased to 43.1% and 20.8% respectively in 1985. They rose to 49.2% and 23.5% respectively in 1998. In the service sector in 1952 the total share of service in GDP was 28.5% and the service labor was only 9.1% which increased to 28.5% and 16.8% respectively in 1985 and reached 32.8% and 26.7% respectively in 1998.

Success of Chinese rural education

1. Courses

The contents of education should be need-based, localized and practical. What local farmers need is increase in productivity, knowledge, and techniques related to agricultural life. Schools of all levels give priority to local traits and characteristics in course designing and in the preparation of teaching materials. Contents related to local resources and industrial development and inputs related to economic development are included. Practicability is emphasized and courses are offered to promote students' creativity. A network has been set up to popularize science and technology in the rural areas.

2. Model role

Governments of all levels attach great importance to bringing the model role of vocational education into full play. Vocational schools provide benefits of technology, information, personnel and equipment. With the support of governments of all levels vocational schools have become incubators for agricultural revolution in the rural areas. In the process of socialization of education, vocational schools have departed from the traditional ways. In other words, their focus has switched from academic education to the improvement of the quality of farmers. The schools are not only administered by educational departments but also supported by Departments of Agriculture and Science and Technology. They also provide educational services to people outside school. Further, the vocational schools conduct research in agricultural production, serve as a technology medium and provide technical counseling. In recent years, a number of model vocational schools in different counties/cities of Pubei, Laibin, Lipu, Bobai, Hengxian, Guigang, Duan etc, have become pivotal in local economic development and they are playing an important role in promoting local economy. Vocational schools of the county level are leaders and major forces in sustainable development of local economy. For all this, vocational schools are well received by local people.

3. Promotion of commodity economy

Vocational education in the rural areas gives priority to the promotion of local commodity economy. Vocational schools frame courses in tune with the local economic development planning. In Hengxian county sugar, cement, papermaking, tea plantation etc. are the major industries. The vocational schools here conduct training programs for different industries. They run enterprises to help the transformation of local industries and upgrade the

quality of local products so that farmers can increase their income by supplying improved production materials for industries.

4. Coordination and integration

The Chinese government has realized that in order to increase agricultural production, agriculture and education should be integrated. To make agriculture more beneficial and education more effective, science and technology should also be integrated. For this, there must be a good number of educational organizations and a fare distribution of educational resources. Only then can education be made reasonably fruitful. For this purpose, governments at various levels have set up institutions coordinating agriculture, science and technology, and education, and also institutions of quality education by involving departments of education, agriculture, science and technology, labor, public finance, health etc.

5. Training for labor force migration

Because of limitedness of land and density of population in rural areas, migration of labor force to urban areas has been an important index for rural development. With the rapid development and expansion of their economy, urban areas need more and more manpower every year. Adult education and vocational education centers are conducting different skill training programs to facilitate the migration of the rural people. The programs have been designed with the cooperation of enterprises based in urban areas.

6. Strong research foundation

One of the strongest points of China's development is its strong research foundation. Regular and continuous research in rural education has greatly helped its educational development. Research on educational planning, teaching methodologies, psychological foundations, cultural values etc. have been carried out at higher level as well as at community level. In the research process community people are also involved. Research on new breeds, seeds, improved agricultural technologies etc. is regularly carried out. The rural adult and vocational education centers are technically equipped and trained in research activities. These centers establish close coordination with township, county or state research institutions in research matters. Based on the research findings, farmers and laborers are trained or educated through various channels. Higher education institutions including universities are also involved in research for rural development.

7. Self-instruction experiment zones

This flexible education was started to provide education to the rural people who can contribute for their community. Experimental zones have been established in each county and township. Farmers and other local people can enrol for different courses through the experimental zones. They do not have to go to school regularly. They can choose any type of program e.g. periodical class, self-study, correspondence etc. as per their interest or convenience. This type of flexible education provides both theoretical bases and practical-skills. The students are required to attain practical lessons. The theory-practical ratio is 4:6. Diploma or training certificates are awarded on completion of the course.

Challenges

In spite of the great achievements that have been made in the development of rural education, there still exists a yawning gap between the development of rural education, the learning needs of individual citizens and the socialist modernization drive. Today, along with the profound changes that have come up in various aspects of social life, the development of rural education is confronted with challenges.

Many people, especially those living in rural areas, do not understand the concept of lifelong learning. In a learning-based society of the 21st century, one must be able to learn before being able to be literate. However, many people today are still shackled by the traditional concept of one-shot education.

The shortage and unbalanced distribution of educational resources threaten with a widening gap between urban and rural areas, between eastern and western regions and between the rich and the poor.

Lack of emphasis on adult education, of an efficient management system and operation mechanism, of integration of adult education with economic and social progress, of enough financial investment and of new teaching content and methods has hindered construction of a learning-based society.

In the recent years rural vocational education and adult education have made much progress. But, generally, basic education (from primary to senior secondary) is dominated by general education. Problems still exist in rural education. For instance, there is no proper integration of basic education, vocational education and adult education, or agriculture and science and technology.

For a long time the college and university graduates have not gone out to work in rural areas. This phenomenon of unwillingness has resulted from both attitudes and policies. Nowadays the short-circle college graduates are finding it difficult to get jobs in urban areas. However, only a few of them are willing to work in rural areas. At the same time, rural areas demand a good number of educated and skilled laborers.

Conclusion

There is no doubt that the development of rural areas is the foundation of the development of the country. Without developing the rural areas a developing country cannot achieve as desired. South Korea was able to develop its rural areas together with urban areas. But it is remarkable that China could achieve a lot in the advancement of education despite several problems. Many countries did not do much for rural education and urban education at the same time. As a result, the urban education specified by private schools has become the standard for the rich people and the schools in rural areas have become forced asylums for the poor.

One of the reasons for the rapid development of rural education in China is the strong political commitment on the part of the government. The country is able to identify the real problems of the people and need-based educational programs are designed and implemented. Rural adult education and agricultural (vocational) schools are designing programs and activities, which help develop local economy. The fundamental way of carrying out services for the farmers is the re-organization of all kinds of resources and combining education, agriculture and science and technology. Coordination between different ministries and organizations is another strong point of rural education in China. Vocational education in the rural areas gives priority to the promotion of local commodity economy. Vocational schools design courses in accordance with local economic development planning. In China, rural education goes beyond reading, writing and arithmetic. It intends to empower a person to earn for his/her family and contribute for the society.

The strong research backstopping from universities, state or county level agencies and integration of science and technology at all levels of education has helped a lot to develop innovative programs.

Finally, the development of China over the last 20 years is really marvelous. A developing country like Nepal could learn a lot from China's rural education development, particularly in the fields of management, programme design, mobilization of resources, and investment in education.

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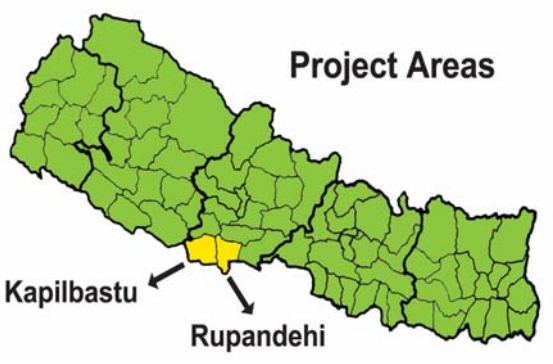
Community Learning Centers in Nepal

- T.M.Sakya[9]

Context



According to the Census Report (2001), the population of Nepal was 22.76 million (it was 18.49 million in 1991). The population growth rate was 2.25%. The same report said that the literacy rate of Nepal of Nepal (2000) gave the net enrollment at different levels of education as: Pre-primary Schools (8.9%), Primary Schools (80.4%), Lower Secondary Schools (33.3%), and Secondary Schools (20.0%).

It is assumed that only 30% of the children enrolled in the first grade of the primary level reach the fifth grade. This shows the survival rate of the children in primary schools.

It is well known that 80% of our population depends upon traditional agriculture for survival. It is obvious that the primary and subsequent levels of education are not at all related to the life and livelihood of the people, so much so that only 1.5% of the secondary school students receive skills training and vocational education. At the higher education level only 4.2% students receive technical education.

There are about 4.8 million youths in Nepal, but our technical schools operated by various ministries, universities and private training institutions provide vocational training to 14000 students only. One should not be surprised at the report that about 7 million youths are unemployed. They are seeking jobs inside Nepal as well as outside, (especially in India). A researcher wrote in the *Rising Nepal* (March 17, 1998) that approximately 38% of educated people in Nepal were unemployed and under-employed.

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Ex Co-ordinator of APPEAL/UNESCO

These facts underscore the importance of skill training, vocational education and technical education for employment and development. The country will need to provide vocational education to its youth and adults if it wants to develop, otherwise the downward trend will continue. I should leave this broader issue to the policy makers of the country.

I would now like to say how Nepal has been trying to provide basic education to 200 children, youths and adults, who were deprived of school education, through community learning centers (CLCs). The education provided to them should be relevant to their life so that it could help them to improve their quality of life and livelihood

Community learning centers in Nepal

People who do not go to school are generally poor people. They reside mostly in rural areas. Some of them belong to minority population groups and others are slum dwellers.

In view of the needs of the illiterate poor, the scopes of literacy programs and out-of-school programs for children were expanded, to cover not only the skills of reading, writing and arithmetic but also the use literacy and new knowledge to solve everyday problems of health, family welfare (more income), participation in the decision-making, and acquisition of newer skills. From the point of view of empowerment and capacity building the traditional school system is not suitable. The society needs peoples' institutions which offer literacy, post-literacy and general education combined with vocational education relevant to the day-to-day life of poor people living in the rural areas. In this context, we find community learning center as the most appropriate institution because it is set up and managed by the people. The people themselves decide the contents and methods of education and training in line with their needs and aspirations. Outsiders only work as helpers and advisers.

At first, the potentials of literacy and non-formal education were explored after an analysis of the village situation. The key areas covered for intervention were development of self-esteem, economic self-reliance, increased participation in social activities, safe health, conservation of environment etc. To ensure effectiveness the teaching- learning process was improved by integrating new and scientific methods of delivery.

National Resource Center and Non-formal Education

It was the National Resource Center for Non-Formal Education (NRC-NFE) which pioneered the community learning centers in Nepal in 1996. Since

then NRC-NFE has been helping the Government, NGOs and local communities to set up CLCs.

NRC-NFE established four CLCs in Kavre District (Budol CLC, Mahendra Jyoti CLC, Ugrachnadi CLC and Kuttal CLC. These areas were selected because in them mass literacy campaigns had just been completed. The people needed CLCs to get benefits of literacy and basic education.

The CLCs in Kavre were able to show good results. NRC-NFE went to six villages of Lalitpur district: Sunaguthi, Thecho, Chapagaon, Khokana, Siddhipur and Bungmati, to set up CLCs.

In Kavre and Lalitpur CLCs were set up after approaching Village Development Committees, Municipalities and Rotary Clubs for resources.

UNESCO provided some help to the Budol CLC and for the set-up of two more CLCs, one in Simikot in the Far Western Region and the other in Ward No 18 of Kathmandu. Then a Community Learning Center National Workshop was organized (February 8–10 2001) by the Ministry of Education, in which NRC-NFE succeeded to convincing the Government that CLC was a very effective means of providing education with inputs of rural development.

In response the Government announced that within five years it would establish 202 CLCs in different parts of Nepal. The Government has already opened about 40 CLCs. Similarly, UNESCO Kathmandu has set up six CLCs on UN Human Security Fund for Nepal. In this project three parties, UNESCO the Government and NRC-NFE - worked together.

Definition of CLC in Nepal

The Government, UNESCO Kathmandu and NRC-NFE worked together to develop a community Learning Centre Manual in 2002. According to the Manual, a community learning center is an organization which provides functional education to the children, youths and adults of the community. The school curriculum is directed by the central government whereas the CLC curriculum is designed by the local people. A CLC is set up and managed by the local people according to their own needs and aspirations.

Objectives of CLC

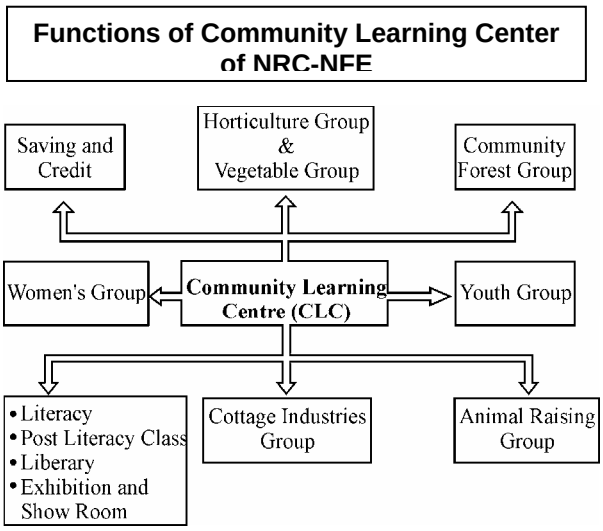
The Manual specified the objectives of the C LC as given below:

1. To provide basic education for all
2. To disseminate development information to the people in the community

3. To develop necessary manpower to carry out developmental works in the community
4. To work as a link agency between development agencies and local people

Functions of CLC

A CLC is a multi-purpose local institution, which carries out tasks related to education, skill development and empowerment. The following chart illustrates its functions.



Mobilization of resources through CLCs

Case study of R & K Project

To illustrate the local resource mobilization as done by the CLCs, the case study of the R & K project presented below:

The R & K Project has been implemented by a group of NGOs. Many NGOs in Nepal had been working with NFUAJ to open literacy and out-of-school classes since 1990 under the World Terakoya Movement. In the year 2000, NFUAJ decided to use an integrated approach to promote literacy and out-of-school education. Therefore, the Terakoya Committee of Nepal (WTM/TCN) decided to set up community learning centers in six villages of Rupendehi and Kapilbastu. The title of the project is “Literacy and Non-formal Education in Rupendehi and Kapilbastu - in brief, R & K Project. I will give the details of the R & K project later.

The following NGOs had formed the National Committee of Terakoya Movement in Nepal (WTM/TCN)

1. Agro Forestry, Basic Health and Co-operative Nepal (ABC Nepal)
2. Nepal Women Association
3. NGO Forum, Nepal
4. Jyotidaya Sangha
5. Center for Education for All (CEFA)
6. International Buddhist Society (IBS)
7. National Resource Center for Non-Formal Education (NRC-NFE), Nepal

The NGOs pooled up their resources to prepare a project proposal after undertaking field visits. During the project proposal preparation they contacted various government and non-government organizations including INGOs like NFUAJ, to enlist their cooperation and help.

Mobilization of resources

Similarly the R & K Project formed an advisory committee composed of representatives of the Ministry of Education, Social Welfare Council, UNESCO/Bangkok and UNESCO/Kathmandu. The advisory committee meets once every four months to discuss the program activities and the members are involved in the evaluation of the project performance at the end of every year. The advisory committee has also been instrumental in obtaining cooperation of the government offices and UNESCO.

A similar advisory committee has been formed at the district level. The committee is composed of representatives of District Administration, District Education, Health, Agriculture, Cooperative, and NGOs such as International Development Enterprises, and Small Irrigation Management Enterprise for the implementation of the project.

Establishment of Project Implementation Unit in the Field and surveys of local resources

To implement the R & K Project a Project Implementation Unit (PIU) with necessary staff and expertise has been set up at the project site.

The Project Implementation Unit conducted feasibility studies in a number of villages. The criteria for the selection of the villages for setting up CLCs were literacy level, accessibility, willingness of the villagers (and their leaders) to provide cooperation and support to the project activities. The following six villages were selected.

District	Selected VDCs
Rupendehi	Tenuhawa Madhubani Khudabagar
Kapilbasu	Phulika Patariya Rajpur

Detailed household surveys were conducted in the VDCs and the baseline survey details mentioned in the village profiles were studied.

Management committee

Each CLC has a management committee composed of local leaders and those that are committed to develop the village. In the formation of the management committee, people such as Village Development Committee members, teachers, local leaders and local entrepreneurs were involved.

After the formation of the management committees, capacity building trainings were organized. The members were trained in the concept, objectives and functions of CLC. The functions included mobilization of community and community resources, planning and management of CLC, organization of programmes and activities, needs assessment and accounting. The training was found very effective (in the opinions of the trainees). But in almost all the CLC, accounting was not properly managed. The members were in need of more training on supervision and monitoring.

Capacity building of CLC management committee

The main topics of the training workshop were:

- CLC management
- Identification of community needs
- Mobilization of local resources
- Networking and coordination with GOs, NGOs and the development agencies
- Preparation of need-based micro and action plans
- Program implementation
- Proposal writing
- Report writing

- Bookkeeping
- Record keeping
- Supervision, monitoring and evaluation

Construction of CLC buildings


Madhubani CLC Building

Under the project, 6 CLC buildings, one in each project-implemented VDC, were to be constructed. So far, two buildings, one for the Patariya CLC and the other for the Madhubani CLC, have been completed. Two buildings, one in Khudabagar and the other in Rajpur, are under construction. Two other CLCs buildings are also going to be constructed very soon. In the construction, 10% of the total cost was contributed by the local community. Four out of six CLCs received land from the Village Development Committees free of cost. Two CLCs (Patariya and Rajpur) received donation of land from philanthropic people. The community people, learners, and farmers said that, since they had contributed for the construction, they loved the buildings more than their own houses. The community people carefully supervised the construction work.


Patariya CLC Bulding

Impact of literacy and post-literacy classes All the CLCs are organizing 3-4 literacy and post-literacy classes each year. In discussion sessions in Tenuhawa, Madhuvani and Khudabagar the learners said they came to know about the program through the CLC members, friends and neighbours. They added that CLC members visited their houses to describe the CLC activities and explain the importance of literacy. When they joined the class, they expected to be able to read, write and perform simple arithmetical operations and know about the importance of sanitation, health and hygiene. The learners were happy with their achievements.


Learners of OSP Class

The literacy learners established saving and credit funds and also participated in the vegetable training. They commented that some of the contents of the textbook were not relevant to their daily life. But supplementary materials such as Snake and Ladder (game), balanced food (pie chart), cleanliness and other materials used in the classrooms were relevant and easy to understand. The learners said after they joined the class they had been actively involved in community development activities such as cleaning of the village, awareness building rallies, renovation of village roads, participation in folk song competitions etc. organized by CLC.

The community people also expressed great satisfaction over the achievements of the learners and said this had a positive impact on the community too. The learners and community people said that changes could be seen in the learners and community people after the start of the literacy and post-literacy classes.

Impacts on Learners	Impacts on Community
• Learners developed the ability to read, write and do simple arithmetic. • They understood the importance of education and started sending their children to OSP classes. (Some also sent their children to school). • They became able to state their problems and discuss on them with the community people and in the meetings, without any hesitation. • Women, especially those of the Muslim society, who used to keep themselves within their houses, now started to go out to the market and participated in community development activities and the training programs conducted by other organizations. • Learners' attitude and behavior with regard to sanitation, health and hygiene has changed. They are aware of health and hygiene. They organize village cleaning programmes once in a week. • The learners in Khudabagar, Patariya and Rajpur also constructed pit latrines in the backyards of their houses. Now they believed that having latrines inside the house was very bad. Construction of latrines is getting popular in the project areas.	• Community people thought that literacy was not necessary for women. But now they feel that literacy empowers women. Those who were apposed to sending their children to school began to participate in educational programs. • The community people also joined the cleaning campaigns initiated by literacy learners. • Now there is a good learning environment in the village. They consider being literate as a pride. • There is sanitation, health and hygiene awareness in the community.

There was a provision of mid-term and final achievement test of the learners. The average drop-out rate in the adult literacy classes was about 10.5% and about 6% were not able to pass the final test. The enrolment pass co-efficient was about 83.5%. About 90% of the literacy graduates joined post-literacy classes.

Case study 1

Raising of awareness in community women

Balariya, a village of Khudabagar VDC (now covered by the Khudabagar CLC), is a Muslim village. When Puspa was appointed literacy facilitator, she came to the village. She learnt from statistics that Balaria had 90% of its girls and women illiterate. She soon found that nobody was ready to come to attend the literacy class. She convened a meeting of the village elders who saw no meaning in the education of girls and women. They indirectly pointed out that the schools (both formal and non-formal) were Hindu institutions. Puspa and CLC members tried to explain to them the importance of learning. Learning meant not only recognizing letters. It also meant getting knowledge about the benefits of cleanliness, which helped prevent diseases like cholera and fever which were common in the village. They also could acquire skills for income generation.

After great persuasion, they allowed the CLC members to visit their houses and talk to their daughters and wives, who, in the beginning, hid their faces when talking.

The facilitator and CLC had started home visits. They found that some of the boys who had returned from Arab and other countries looked quite modern. The CLC members and Puspa convinced them about the importance of literacy programs. The women realized the importance of education of girls and women. So they encouraged the boys to persuade their fathers and brothers. Finally, a few girls and women from respectable families agreed to join the literacy class. Then others said, "If they come, we will certainly come too."

After the class started, the learners realized the benefits of literacy classes. They were very regular and willing to learn. So they finished the household

work sooner and came to the class. Senior men and women were happy that their girls had become very active. Puspa told them about the importance of cleanliness, garbage management, vaccination against diseases etc.

One or two girls told Puspa that they were facing problems of latrines. Puspa told them that they could construct a latrine by digging a pit and covering it with a plank or concrete slab. They could construct a simple hut to enclose the latrine. Nagarine and Khatun told the class that they would construct latrines. They made latrines with the help of their brothers and sisters. Other girls followed the suit. Now nearly 80% of the houses have latrines. When other girls asked them where they learned about the importance of latrines and methods of making them, they said that they all learned it from the teacher (facilitator). Now they know why they should clean their hands and feet before eating, bathe the babies, keep the environment clean, plant flowers and trees.

Learners in literacy and post-literacy classes regularly clean their houses and environment. They take their babies for vaccination, boil water during the rainy season, and prepare dehydration solutions themselves.

Formation of functional groups

CLCs have formed different functional groups and conducted skill training programmes especially on agricultural technology. When asked, ten vegetable group leaders from Rajpur, Patariya and Phulika CLCs expressed happiness at the progress of group activities.


Exhibition of Honey

The training package included inputs in vegetable plantation, of treadle pump installation, animal husbandry, bee keeping etc. The groups also established saving and credit funds (of the group). It was found that the literate members were able to apply the knowledge and skills acquired from the training faster and efficiently. The members stated that in the groups they were learning new technologies of agriculture and group management on one hand and the methods of saving time and money on the other. The members seemed happy at the increase of their income. They said that earlier they earned only NRs. 2000-3000 per Kattha in one season. Now they are earning NRs.7000-8000. There is active participation of women in IGP, and men who used to think women's place was inside the home, have realized that women also could work with them for income generation.

Benefits of functional groups and vocational training


Vegitable Farm

- Farmers' knowledge of improved seeds and their technical capacity have increased.
- They have learnt about facilities (e.g. free distribution of seeds) and subsidies provided by different organizations.
- Earlier, the farmers individually went to market to buy necessary tools, seeds and fertilizers. Now they buy them collectively at cheaper rates, which saves them time and money.
- JTAs from District Agriculture Centers felt it uneasy to go to farms to provide technical assistance. Now, since the learners are in groups, it is easy for them.

Impacts

- The CLC learners are using pesticides (in proper doses).
- They have developed the habit of discussion and planning (for farming) in regular meetings and interaction sessions.
- Farmers have installed treadle pumps for irrigation.
- The income level of farmers has increased, resulting in sufficient food and better health conditions.
- Some farmers have started sending children to school.
- They have developed saving habits.

Case study 2

Mr. & Mrs. Saving and Vegetable Group

When the CLC members of Rajpur VDC went to Mohammad Nagar (Ward No. 9 of the VDC) to form groups and to organize literacy programmes, most of the village women did not come out because they felt shy and uncomfortable. So the CLC decided on a different approach.


Mr. & Mrs. are both busy in their Farm

The CLC members talked with the males of the community about forming the Mr. & Mrs. group (which would include both husband and wife). The males accepted the idea and talked with their wives. Finally, the Mr. & Mrs. Saving & Vegetable Group was formed (10 pairs or 20 members). The group started saving in the group. The members were provided improved vegetable farming training. After training, husbands as well as wives started working actively in vegetable farming. Earlier, though wives also contributed to farm work, their contributions were not counted. Now because of group formation and team spirit they are taking count of women's contribution. While working in the group, the illiterate members, especially women, felt the need of education (for more benefits from group work). So they are also attending literacy classes.

Now women do not hesitate to talk even with outsiders and go to market to sell their vegetables. They say that because of numeracy skills they are able to calculate income, saving, interest and loan. The income of the group members increased by NRs.8000–10000 per season (3 months) on the average. They also realize the need of education for their children. So they are also sending their children to the OSP classes organized by the CLC. Some send their children to primary schools.

The group has been registered with the District Agriculture Office of the government, which has made it easy for them to receive technical support from the office. The group has also opened a separate bank account.

One remarkable thing is that the group members have developed the habit of group decision-making and division of work.

Empowerment of girls and women

In order to empower girls and women, special women saving and credit groups and women empowerment trainings were conducted. There are altogether 9 saving and credit groups in the 6 CLCs. The number of group members range from 5 to 35. The group members have received loans and started small enterprises such as grocery, vegetable farming and bee keeping.

The members were given training on women empowerment in which 2-3 members from each group participated. After the training, the participants shared the outcomes of their learning in groups. The participants were trained in group roles (and responsibilities of group members), women's problems (and their causes), discrimination against women (and their causes), art of tackling problems, leadership development, preparation of group plans (and action plans), involvement of women in income-generating

activities etc. The participants also developed plans of action for activities such as:

- Regular meeting
- Organization of literacy classes
- Village cleanliness campaign
- Construction of pit latrines
- Women awareness activities through folk songs and home visits
- Road renovation
- Others

Impacts

- Women developed saving and credit habits.
- They are involved in decision-making both at home and in the community.
- Increase in participation of women in community development activities increased.
- Women got involved in income-generating activities

Awareness building

Awareness activities such as celebration of the International Literacy Day, cleanliness campaigns, literacy rallies, home visits, folk song competitions, video shows on social evils like child marriage, and campaigns pertaining to health, sanitation and education are organized. Literacy learners, community people, group members and leaders are involved in such activities. According to the community people, such programs help to increase participation in literacy and OSP classes, keep the village clean etc. These programs also provide information about the health camps going to be organized by the CLC.

Contribution of community

The community people were involved in the project from its very beginning. They were involved in base line surveys, needs identification, development of local curriculums and learning materials. The other areas of contribution were:

- Donation of personal land for the construction of the CLC building (Patariya and Rajpur)
- Space for classrooms (rent-free) for literacy and OSP classes
- High participation in awareness raising activities organized by different groups and CLCs.
- Free office room provided for CLCs

Case study 3

Road constructed in Patariya

When the Patariya CLC started identifying the needs and problems of the VDC, most of the people laid stress on the need of a road in the village. In the rainy season it was very difficult for the villagers to take their agricultural products to the market. Hence, the Patariya CLC gave top priority to the construction of a road. As the CLC started to implement its activities, the community interest in CLC activities increased. Along with the interest, participation and involvement increased too. When the CLC put forward the idea of road construction, the villagers got ready. They decided to mobilize different resources for it. The CLC obtained hume pipes worth NRs.90,000.00 from the Village Development Committees. The local people contributed labour equivalent to NRs. 70,000.00. The total length of the road is about 2 km. The local people feel very proud of having the road constructed on their own effort and contribution. The road has facilitated the transportation of local agricultural products to nearby markets.

Case study 4

Case study of vegetable production group in Madhubani CLC

The residents of the Buddanipur Village near the Madhubani CLC are now very happy that the farmers who joined the vegetable production group formed by the Madhubani CLC earn more than NRs. 8000 per Kattha of land in a year. Previously they earned NRs 2000 per Kattha every year by cultivating rice and wheat.

When the Madhubani CLC was set up, the CLC supervisor told the members that education and training would improve their

income. Most of them did not believe her. But later they formed the vegetable production group as planned by the CLC. Some group members are learning in the literacy class and others are already literate. As soon as the vegetable group was formed, a JTA posted in the village came to them. She told them that she would organize a training program in which herself and some more experts from International Development Enterprise (IDE) would teach them how to cultivate seasonal and off-season vegetables.

On 15 August 2002, the CLC organized a training program for the vegetable group. (Some of the members got enthusiastic). In the training they were taught how to keep a vegetable nursery, how to transplant the saplings, how to make organic fertilizer from cattle dung, husk and grass. The training also taught them how to prevent plant diseases.

But the land lacked water for irrigation. The agriculture expert told the members that they could install a foot pump. The IDE expert told them that it would install two foot pumps for those who would be willing to pay the installation cost of NRS. 200. One very active member, Mr. Ram Yadav, came forward and offered for the cost. Thus, four members started cultivating vegetable in about 6 Katthas of land. In the beginning they cultivated seasonal vegetables such as cucumber, lady's finger, bean.

When they harvested the vegetables, they were happy that they got more vegetable than expected. They took the vegetables to the local market where they were quickly sold. Each farmer got about NRs. 6000 for a Kattha of produce. They became encouraged. Following their example, other farmers started to cultivate vegetables. Some more farmers joined the vegetable group and cultivated vegetables. (Now altogether 20 farmers are cultivating in about 60 Katthas of land). The farmers were very happy that they formed the vegetable group at the CLC's encouragement.

They produce cucumber, lady's finger, Karela, beans, tomato, pumpkin in the summer season and cauliflower, radish, carrot etc. in the winter.

Some farmers keep green-houses to produce off-season vegetables. Now almost all the CLC vegetable group members have installed foot pumps. Experts from the Agriculture Department and IDE come to supervise their work and give necessary advise to them regularly.


Vegetable Farm

Now the vegetable group has a saving-credit fund to which each member subscribes nearly

NRs. 50 per month. The fund gives loans to those who are in need. The group sometimes borrows money from the revolving fund of the CLC. The illiterate farmers joined the literacy class because while in the market to sell their vegetables they should know how to read and write and do simple arithematic. Now women help their husbands to cultivate vegetables in their farms and to sell the vegetables in the market. They are learning more. They are sending their girl children to school. The Case Study demonstrates how the CLC has transformed the life of poor farmers in Buddhipur village.

Case study 5

Case study of Banana Group under Kudhabagar CLC

Jagadish Lodhe, Sri Ram Chaudhari, Hari Yadav and Mrs. Maya Gurung were learners in a literacy class run by the Kudhabagar CLC. They learned to write simple letters and they could read sign-boards and ordinary newspaper stories. In the literacy class they had heard: "If you were literate, you would read booklets on vegetable farming and fruit farming". One day the CLC supervisor came to the class and told them that Lumayi village had formed a vegetable group. Two learners had heard that banana farming was more profitable. They expressed their wish (to start banana farming) to the supervisor. The supervisor requested the District Agriculture Office to help them.. After some days Mr. Laxman Pandit came to the village with the supervisor. He was a banana expert in the District Agriculture Office. He told them that, if 6-7 farmers could earmark 4/5 Katthas of land, he would to teach them how to cultivate banana. On consultation with their friends, about 10 farmers formed a banana produce group under the Kudabagar CLC. The CLC organized a one-week training program for the members of the banana group. The agriculture expert also brought young banana plants from the agriculture office for distribution. In the training they learned how to plant banana, how to water the plant, and how to manure it.

In the village the farm could not be left open for fear of stray cattle. So the group decided to appoint one member for the day and another member for the night, to keep the stray animals away. Now their banana plants are about one year old. They have grown very well. If there is no natural disaster, they would to get the banana harvest ready within two years.

It is predicted that each plant will yield them an income of NRs. 5000. The farmers who have 100 plants would get NRs 50,000 per year. Banana produce is economically much better than cereal produce. If they produce rice and wheat in one Kattha of land, they would earn only NRs 5000. They are waiting for the banana to be ready. For irrigation they have one artisan well and some foot pumps.

Now more and more farmers are getting interested in joining the group. Mr. Ram Tharu has become the leader and supervisor of the group. The group has made a rule that those who like to join the group should be literate. So many farmers are joining literacy classes. The group has also started a saving and credit group. To the saving-credit fund, each member contributes NRs. 40 per month. The group is thinking of increasing the size of the contribution. It is also thinking of cultivating other fruits like lichee and mango in other farms.

Re-Positioning Females in the International Educational Context:
Theoretical Frameworks, Shared Policies and Future Directions

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This volume asks pertinent and important questions about current trends in the field: Where is the comparative and international study of education heading in the 21st century? What are the current theoretical issues, problems, and practices that need to be reviewed, discussed, and debated? How have specific sub-fields fared over the past decade? Accordingly, in terms of offering some answers, the purposes of this chapter are: to position the topic of female education in terms of Women in Development (WID) and Gender and Development (GAD) frameworks that typically structure current development initiatives; to provide an overview of the ways in which Education for All (EFA)—one of the most widely recognized educational policies in the world—has addressed female education; to analyze the policy in terms of those development frameworks; and to suggest some future directions for the field based on existing knowledge and its perceived efficacy and inadequacy.

This chapter begins by examining the two leading frameworks, WID and GAD, that have guided the development field. The WID approach, based on early feminist thought, provided a framework for development initiatives for females from the 1970s through the early 1990s. The advocacy and implementation of WID pre-dated the Education for All conferences. It remained popular through 1990, the year of the first EFA conference, by which time GAD claimed ascendancy in the field. From the late 1990s through the present, GAD has tended to provide the basic theoretical structure for female development initiatives, which exerted influence in both the 1996 EFA meeting in Amman, Jordan and the 2000 EFA conference in Dakar, Senegal. The overview of WID and GAD will be followed by a survey of the EFA documents for references to female education in the 1990, 1996 and 2000 conferences, using content analysis. The ways in which the EFA texts reflect the theoretical premises and epistemological origins of WID and GAD frameworks will be revealed. Lastly, the chapter proffers some new directions for the field, suggesting that educational policy can benefit from the same rigorous and critical consideration of current development thought

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International Perspectives on Education and Society
David P. Baker and Alexander W. Wiseman, Editors
Published by Elsevier Science Ltd

concerning females. In particular, it argues for the need for research on girls in order to enrich and complement future EFA policies.

Women in development (WID) approach

WID emerged in reaction to the failure of the modernization development policy based on the notion that every individual has equal access to opportunities for achieving goals and objectives deemed reasonable by society. It sought to provide a more comprehensive framework within which the goals of better living conditions, wages and education could be achieved by all individuals.[10] Specifically, given the fact that females in emerging countries lag behind males in terms of economic prosperity and education, WID addressed their advancement through development projects and programs.

WID's origins can be traced to the growth of both liberal feminist theories of modernization and socialization theory of sex roles. Liberal feminists argued that women's exclusion from the public sector occurred because a socially sanctioned sexual division of labor contributed to their inferior status and low social position. Hence, liberal feminists sought to subvert and redefine the social norms that conditioned and affected the traditional roles thereby re-structuring economic opportunities for women and men. In their early works, WID theories optimistically increased availability of diverse occupations for women.[11] In terms of educational policy research, the liberal feminist perspective attributed the lower enrollment and attainment of girls to negative socialization messages in both the family and the school, which the state has not been able to correct. But, as Stromquist (2001) reminds us, it does not explain the underlying causes of the different processes of socialization of men and women.

Another cornerstone of WID was Marxist feminist theories.[12] Classic Marxism, which identifies capitalism as a source of class inequity, explains women's oppression in terms of an economic order that supports males in superior positions, and women in inferior positions.[13] Women's confinement to domestic labor, whose jobs offer little financial gains and limit their ability to engage in economic endeavors that generate power, is a commonly used

[10] See Jaquette & Staudt (1988) and Young (1993).
[11] See Upadhya (1996) and Young (1993) for discussion of the early WID framework.
[12] Readers written or edited by authors such as Maggie Humm (1992), Josephine Donovan (1998), Linda Nicholson (1997), Ülku Ü. Bates, Florence L. Denmark, Virginia Held, Dorothy O. Helly, Shirley Hune, Susan H. Lees, Sarah B. Pomeroy, Carolyn M. Somerville and Sue Rosenberg Zalk, (1995) and Lynda Stone (1994) provide discussion of numerous categories of feminist thought, including, for example, Marxist feminism. It should also be noted, however, that since, the categorization of feminism that identifies a single cause for women's oppression has been criticized.
[13] See Hartmann (1979), Eisenstein (1979) and Walby (1990).

example of the cause of women's oppression.[14] Transposed to the domain of educational policy, the Marxist-feminist view asserts that inequitable economic demands on females' time prohibit or at best drastically impede their educational obtainment.

Related to the Marxist feminist theory is the Socialist feminist perspective. While this stream of Marxist theory emphasizes the relationship between women and the proletariat, a fundamental facet of modernization theory, Socialist feminism recognizes the distinction between wage or non-wage earners, especially when men assume the role as wage earner (Donovan 1998; Hartmann, 1981). By simply using (or spending), a husband's earnings without access to individual earning potential neither provide women with power nor access to it (Donovan 1998). In addition, "family wage," paid to the male, is often viewed as money that is earned by either the husband or the wife, but that is equally shared and used by both. Failing to recognize women's monetary contributions to the family perpetuates the myth that males are the providers for the family. In both cases this differentiation of roles and income by sex sets up both a figurative and literal hierarchy where women rank lower than men. Thus, in educational terms, the socialist feminist perspective focuses on the ideological messages of economic roles and rules in order to explain the inferior educational participation and attainment of females. A gendered (and hence ideologically driven) division of labor that prohibits or discourages females from wage-earning positions consigns them to an economic order that exploits their work and limits their educational opportunities.

Yet another stream of feminist thought that has guided WID is dependency feminism, which is based on sex role. Dependency feminists attribute the perpetuation of women's oppression to patriarchal domination, which is both the cause and result of the economic order that deprives women of power. Patriarchy here refers to the social values and practices in a hierarchically ordered world where females have far fewer social and economic opportunities than males. The application of dependency feminism in educational policy helps explain the social system that supports males in dominant positions in the household where educational decisions are made.

The pragmatic application of these academic feminist theories have yielded a number of policy approaches to designing and implementing development programs and initiatives to raise the status of women in society, usefully re-shaping the traditional practices of development agencies.[15] Caroline Moser (1993), a leading figure in the development literature who extended Buvinic's work (1983), classified development initiatives during the WID era in terms of

[14] See Hartmann (1979) and Walby (1990)

[15] The absence of attention to the plight of girls will be made throughout this chapter.

five approaches—the welfare approach (1950-1970), the equity approach (1975-1985), the anti-poverty approach (1970s and beyond), the efficiency approach, and the empowerment approach (1975 onwards). The welfare approach strove to include women in development initiatives consistent with their roles as wife and mother through participation in food aid and family planning programs. The equity approach, based on the early work of Esther Boserup (1970; 1986), identified women as equal partners in the development process and supported an affirmative action-type policy whereby political and economic autonomy for women heightened their status. The anti-poverty approach, which emerged as a result of the backlash from the equity approach, cited poverty as the main cause of women's oppression, and thus addressed it by supporting women's participation in small-scale income-generating projects. The efficiency approach focused on women as equal contributors to the world economy and emphasized increased economic efficiency and effectiveness as a result of women's contributions. The empowerment approach strove to promote women's self-reliance with the help of grassroots organizations. Self-reliance was based on the realization that women experience oppression differently according to their race, class and colonial history. The goal of empowerment begins with the examination of women's lives in the context of the social parameters that define them.

In sum, WID explained women's oppression in terms of both economic inequity in the market place and social inequity in the household.[16] It held that entry into the public sphere would reduce and perhaps even eliminate women's artificially induced inferiority. It depicted women as oppressed individuals whose situation was defined by the universally accepted notions of hierarchy, based on sex, in the socio-economic systems that determine status. Efforts to battle women's oppression were attempted on several fronts by different entities: large international non-government interest groups such as the World Bank and IMF; national governing bodies within country systems; and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) from local communities. These agencies offered pragmatic solutions. Feminist scholars in academic circles contributed theoretical perspectives and analytic insights. Their combined efforts led to educational programs that aimed to engage women in learning so as to increase their skills in the work place, thereby enhancing their economic status and correspondingly social status. Given the justifiable criticism of the realistic causation of female oppression offered in the WID framework, and the questionable long-term success rate of programs that sought to accomplish its goals, a shift in development thinking occurred.

[16] For articles that examine the WID movement with regard to women's education in the governmental sector of nations, see Nelly P. Stromquist (1998).

Gender and development (GAD)

Whereas the WID movement utilized a microscopic perspective, narrowly defining universal sexual inequity in terms of economic and social status, and specifically developing targeted programs for women to counteract it, the GAD era employed a macroscopic perspective to understand female oppression. GAD broadly positioned gender inequality in the wide-ranging historical, political, economic, social and cultural contexts in which women and men live.[17]

Two schools of feminist theory in particular offer the philosophic underpinning of GAD—radical and socialist feminism. Radical feminism asserts that the social system legitimizes patriarchal hierarchy, the source of women's oppression. Drawn from the earlier works of MacKinnon (1987) and Jagger and Rothenberg (1984), radical feminists claim that male domination over women—especially in efforts to control women's reproductive capabilities—accounts for their reduced role and status in society. When used in educational research, the radical feminist perspective usually underscores how women's reproductive capacities and associated responsibilities constrain the opportunities for their education. Moreover, patriarchal control of women's sexuality and the definition of women primarily as mothers and wives affect parental decisions concerning their daughters' schooling (Stromquist, 1998). The radical feminist perspective sees the state as a key agent in the perpetuation of women's subordination because of its strong defense of women as mothers and the family as the fundamental unit of society. The state presumes the family functions according to traditional roles performed by both men and women. Men serve as the breadwinners of the family; women provide childrearing and childcare.[18] The appropriateness of women's role is repeatedly reinforced by the society's informal and formal systems of education.

Socialist feminism explains women's oppression by coupling patriarchy with class oppression in the forms of production, reproduction, socialization, and sexuality. For example, Hartman (1981) shows how capitalist economics creates gendered divisions of labor within a patriarchal system. Socialist feminism offers a comprehensive perspective of female oppression by positioning the individual in broad social systems that define a strict set of rules for social, economic and political participation. Its application in educational research ferrets out the ways activities and responsibilities associated with traditional gender roles for women and men contribute to the unequal levels of participation in school.

[17] Moser (1993). Also see Lather (1991).
[18] Although women often earn an income, this role is usually not considered their primary responsibility.

In sum, the GAD ideology consists of several key propositions. First, GAD endorses a holistic conceptualization and analysis of the problems women face in order to explain their unequal status.[19] By examining gender relations embedded in prevailing organizational, institutional, political, economic and social norms, GAD casts a wide net in its quest for the causes of women's oppression. Another key GAD proposition holds the state and local communities equally responsible for promoting women's emancipation. GAD points to the dual role of the state as employer of labor and distributor of economic capital. It also emphasizes the duty of the state to provide social capital, in other words, the social expenditures for education, health, and training for the care and maintenance of the future generation. Thus, GAD stresses foremost the need for enhancing women's education, but specifies neither particular programs nor curricula that targets gender inequality. Overall, GAD is more interested in a fundamental re-examination of social structures and institutions that are perforced gendered, than in offering pragmatic solutions that seemed to characterize the traditional approaches of the WID era.

Whatever their merits or demerits are, WID and GAD have been the most influential theoretical frameworks and arguments dedicated to the advancement for women in the emerging world, of which education is part and parcel.[20] What follows is a content analysis of the Education for All conferences, focusing on Preamble and Framework for Action from the 1990 Jomtien conference, the Preamble and Affirmation from the 1996 meeting in Amman, and the Introduction and Commentary, and Regional Frameworks from the 2003 conference in Dakar. The content analysis positions these texts within the WID and GAD premises so as to reveal the extent to which paradigmatic thinking in the global issue of development has informed practical educational policy.

Some considerations of content analysis

Content analysis was selected for this work because it allows us to examine text in a logical and informative way. Moreover, it is a very helpful tool to investigate and probe the meanings of the language of policy. Four steps were followed in the analysis of the contents of the EFA policies of 1990, 1996 and 2000. First, all documents were perused in an effort to develop a general understanding of their structural, narrative and rhetorical form.[21] Second, the selected documents were read again specifically for the purpose

[19] Moser (1993)

[20] Recognition of the overlapping similarities of feminist theories over the years has been noted in the edited collection of Bates, et al. (1994).

[21] The particular documents were selected from each of the three conferences because of their similarity in form that contributes to the validity of a content analysis.

of establishing familiarity with their contents. Third, key words central to the notions of both WID and GAD were pinpointed and counted for frequency, not merely existence, since only three sets of documents were used. Words were coded exactly as they appeared in the texts, but derivations (e.g., child, child's children) were clustered with each root word.[22] Fourth, a series of charts were developed to summarize the frequency with which each item appeared.

The following words and terms, selected because they capture the fundamental concepts of the WID and GAD frameworks, were counted in the documents' content analysis: children (child); boy(s); girl(s); youth; adolescent(s); adult(s); men; and women. In addition, the terms social(ly) and political were counted for frequency. In the category of economics, the terms economic; poverty; finance; financial; budgeting; and expenditures were counted. The terms culture(al), as well as the terms value(s); moral(s); spiritual, and religion (religious) in the religion category were also tallied. I did not differentiate the frequency of the terms used in the categories of economics and religion because of the infrequency of their appearance. In addition, I also counted the frequency of the terms: gender and gender gap; gender stereotyping; gender discrimination; gender disparity(ies); gender equity; gender issues; gender-sensitive; gender awareness; gender bias; gender parity; and gender responsiveness.[23]

There are commonly known and interrelated limitations in this and other content analyses. It is restricted to quantitative examinations which yield only some insights while disguising others. Most notably, it lacks the ability to test causal relationships between variables. The information generated from such analyses is only useful for indicating the frequency of terms and comparing those responses between and amongst documents over time.

Conferences as the context: international policies on education for females

In spite of the achievements since the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948, countries around the world still struggle with the issues of providing access to and obtainment of schooling for children, and functional literacy and marketable skills for adults. Hence, the converging of international educational conferences, which furnish the appropriate venue in which representatives from state and national governments, international and

[22] The term childhood was not counted when used as an adjective with early, to suggest early childhood education, a topic related to but not directly included in this content analysis.
[23] I recognize that these terms are not always evident in the GAD literature. They were selected for use in this review, and counted because of their inherent implication of a socially constructed, gender-related relationship between the sexes.

national non-government organizations gather to discuss the current state of affairs and future challenges in the education field, have become regularly established meetings. The World Declaration on Education for All and Framework for Action, held in Jomtien Thailand in 1990, was the first large-scale conference to address educational access and achievement for both children and adults. The purposes of the conference, as listed in the Articles of the Framework, include: "meeting basic learning needs;" "shaping the vision" (for education for all); "universalizing access and promoting equity"; "focusing on learning"; "broadening the means and scope of basic education"; "enhancing the environment for learning"; "strengthening partnerships"; "developing a supportive policy context"; "mobilizing resources"; and "strengthening international solidarity." Four years later, the Mid-Decade Meeting in Amman Jordan (June 16-19, 1996) reviewed progress made since the Jomtien conference, and addressed persistent problems and new challenges. The most recent conference, The World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal (April 26-29, 2000) was "convened to assess progress toward EFA since Jomtien, to analyse where and why the goal has remained elusive, and to renew commitments to turn this vision into a reality" (World Education Forum, 2000, p. 7). These Conferences generated a series of documents that provide a guide to improving education worldwide. They were selected because they are the most widely recognized educational policy for girls and women world-wide, and offer the possibility for the most consistent comparison of documents produced during EFA's ten-year history.

Here, I specifically examine how the policy documents generated at those conferences deal with female education by way of a content analysis of the Preamble and Framework from the Jomtien conference, the Preamble and Affirmation from the Amman Mid-Decade meeting, and the Introduction and Regional Frameworks from the Dakar conference. The first part of the analysis shows the frequency of individual descriptors (the terms children, boys, girls, youth, adolescent(s), adults, women and men); the second part reveals the frequency of gender- and structure-related terms.[24]

Individuals' descriptors

I begin the content analysis by recording the number of times individual descriptors (children/child; boy(s); girl(s); youth; adolescent(s); adult(s); men; women) appear in the documents. These terms are typically associated with the WID literature.

[24] The terms "youth" and "adolescent" do not appear in all documents. I included the total number where applicable. "Structure-related" terms refer to macro-social maintenance systems of economics, politics, culture and religion.

Jomtien, 1990

The seven-page Preamble and seventeen-page Jomtien Framework for Action mention the term children twenty-six times. The term girls is mentioned six times. Boys are not indicated. Youth are cited eight times and adults nineteen times. Men are noted twice and the term women is used twelve times. The term adults are noted twelve times.

Amman, 1996

The two-page Preamble and the four-page Affirmation for the meeting includes similar terms found in the Jomtien Preamble, but with different frequency. The document references children eighteen times, compared to zero times for boys and two times for girls. The term adolescent appears in this document five times. Adults, men and women are mentioned eight, one and seven times, respectively. Similar to the Jomtien Preamble, reference to adults occurs more frequently than reference to either men or women, although women are mentioned seven times as many times as men, who are not referenced in the policy.

Dakar, 2000

The Dakar meeting's Introduction also refers to the same words found in the earlier documents. The content analysis of its Introduction reveals the use of the term children forty-six times. The term girl(s) appear more frequently than the term boy(s), twenty-two and six times, respectively. The term youth is used seventeen times. The terms adults and women are mentioned twenty-two and twelve times, respectively. The term men are used four times.

The Dakar conference also includes a component not included in the proceedings of the previous meetings. This conference generated a Regional Framework for Action, Education for All: Meeting our Collective Commitments statement. The Regional Framework's portion of the document is divided into six geographic regional sections: Africa; the Americas; the Arab States; Asia and the Pacific; Europe and North American, and the E-9 countries.[25]

The terms children (child/child's), boys, girls, youth, adults, men and women occur at different frequencies for each region's Framework. The term children are mentioned most often in the Arab States, Asia and the Pacific, Europe and North America, and African regional reports. The E9 countries'

[25] The E9 countries, defined by the EFA conferences include Bangladesh, Brazil, China, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Mexico, Nigeria and Pakistan

document mentions the term twice.[26] The term girls outnumbers the term boys in all documents. The Africa and the Arab States' reports mention girls nineteen and ten times, respectively. In addition, five of the six reports show that the term girl(s) is used twice as often as the term boy(s). The term youth appears most frequently in the report on the Americas (twelve times), but also in all the other reports except the E-9 document.[27] The term adults exists most frequently in the Africa and Arab States reports, with each mentioning the term twelve times. The term women occurs more frequently in most reports. Men are only mentioned in the Europe and North American report.

Gender- and structure-related terms in the EFA policies

The next part of the content analysis includes the gender- and the structure-related terms frequently associated with the GAD literature. These gender-related terms include: gender; gender gap; gender stereotyping; gender discrimination; gender disparity(ies); gender equity; gender issues; gender-sensitive; gender awareness; gender bias; gender parity; and gender responsiveness. In addition, I counted the structure-related terms: social(ly); political; and terms in the economic category, including economic; poverty; finance; financial; budgeting; expenditures. I also noted the frequency of the terms culture(al), and the terms religion(ous); value(s); moral(s) and spiritual in the religion category.

Jomtien, 1990

The Jomtien's Preamble and Framework for Action documents mention the term gender-sensitive once. The term gender occurs two times in the EFA documents. The term gender-stereotype occurs once. No other gender-related terms appear. The documents utilize the term social thirteen times. Political appears five times. The category of economy has twenty-one references; culture appears twenty times. The term religion is noted six times.

Amman, 1996

The Preamble and Affirmation from the Amman document contains the term gender gap three times. All other gender-related terms are not found in the two documents. References to the terms economic and cultural appear once and twice, respectively.

[26] It should be noted that the E9 Regional Framework was considerably shorter than all other region's frameworks. An explanation is not provided.
[27] The series of documents neither define nor differentiate between adolescents and youth is not made. It is not clear if these terms reference the same individuals?

Dakar, 2000

The gender-related and structural terms appear more frequently in the Introduction statement of the Dakar conference than in the earlier EFA documents. For example, the terms gender, gender discrimination and gender disparities are noted one, three and four times, respectively. Gender equity is mentioned six times and gender issues noted once. Gender sensitive appears two times; gender awareness is noted once and gender bias is stated two times. Gender sensitive, gender awareness and gender bias occur twice, once and twice, respectively. The Introduction also includes structural terms. Social and political occur six and three times, respectively. Nineteen references to terms in the economic category are noted. Culture appears seven times and religion appears twice in the document's Introduction.

The Regional Frameworks part of the Dakar document also mentions gender-related terms. The term gender is used twice in the EFA policies of the African, Americans, and the Arab States. Gender gap is mentioned in the Arab States and Asia and the Pacific documents twice and once, respectively. Gender discrimination is noted in the Americas report once, and in the Arab States document twice. It is not mentioned in the other countries' Regional Framework report. Africa, the Arab States, and Asia and the Pacific country documents mention the term gender disparity. African mentions it twice; the other cases note it once. Gender equality is mentioned twice in the African document, and once in the E9 document. The term gender sensitive appears twice in the Africa and once in the Europe and North America documents. Gender awareness is used once in the Africa Regional Framework. The Arab States Framework uses the term gender bias once. Gender parity appears in the Africa and Arab documents once and thrice, respectively. Gender responsiveness is mentioned three times in the Africa document. The terms gender stereotype and gender issues found in the earlier documents are not cited here.

If we tally the total number of times the gender-related terms are found in each region's documents, we note that Africa and the Arab States reports mention these words most frequently, fifty-one and forty-nine times, respectively. The Asian and European reports use the terms fifteen and twelve times, respectively. While we cannot establish causation, we can speculate that gender-related issues regarding female education are more pertinent to these countries, thus their relative frequency in the documents. However, it must be noted that the E9 countries do maintain unequal participation rates for males and females, and this is a widely recognized fact. Yet attention to this situation in terms of gender-related language is not evident in this document.

The structure-related terms also appears in each region's document, with the exception of the E9 piece. The term social appeared ten times in the Africa and Arab documents, seven times in the Americas document, and five and four times respectively in the Asia and Europe documents. The term political appears one time in the Africa document, two times in the Asia document, and one time in the Europe document. It does not appear in any of the other documents. The term economy (and its related terms) appears most often in the Arab document (11 times). Economy-related terms appear ten times in the Africa report, five times in the Americas report, and one time in both the Asia and Europe reports. They does not appear the E9 report. The term culture (and its related terms) appears most often in the Africa report (12 times), half that number in the Americans report (6), and a third that number in both the Arab and Asia reports (4). The terms are noted in the Europe document three times. Religion (and its related terms) is the least frequently cited structural terms, appearing in Africa's document four times, the E9 countries three times, Arab States twice, and in the Americas, Asia and Europe documents one time.

Educational policies and their links with WID and GAD

How may we situate and locate EFA policies in the development theories and rhetoric of WID and GAD? What is the extent to which the three conferences' documents align with the past and current trends in the educational development field? EFA policies indeed reflect the tenets of both WID and GAD but not necessarily in ways that we expect.

The Preamble documents from both the Jomtien conference and the Amman meeting emphasize the need for adult education, stressing education for women rather than men. This reference to women, an admittedly underserved population, supports the WID ideology in that it focuses on the individual, and not the gender relations that cause the inequity. It reaffirms the liberal feminist view that women do not have equal access to, nor do they participate in education at the same rate as men. Even though the documents were written during the GAD period, there are few references to gender in terms of the social structural elements that influence female education. In other words, even though the documents use the terms social, political, and economic, these terms refer to facets of a community. While they are necessary and important in any examination of education, they are neither used in the context of gender, nor do they relate directly to ways we understand how the social structural elements influence educational opportunities for women. A content analysis does not provide the reasons for this omission. We may speculate, however, that the lack of awareness of existing development literature, or disagreement regarding the context in

which women's education should be addressed, may have been a cause for its exclusion.

Jomtien's Framework for Action is a template for national governments, international aid organizations, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) to formulate plans of action for implementing the World Declaration on EFA (2000, p. 8). The Framework clearly outlines the "principles of action" that guide countries through the process of providing, engaging and evaluating educational opportunities. For example, priority action at the national level includes assessing needs, developing policies, improving organizational capacities and information, and building partnerships in country. The regional level's priority action plan notes the need to exchange information, experience and expertise. The priority action plan at the world level encourages cooperation among and between regions. Its wording resembles the GAD position that local, national, regional and international cooperation is crucial to the fulfillment of stated educational goals and objectives.

The governing bodies recognize that cooperation amongst all levels is not guaranteed. Attempts to encourage countries to support the Framework when unconditional support is not forthcoming are addressed in the "Building Partnerships and Mobilizing Resources" part of the action plan. This section notes that

women and girls especially may be deterred from taking full advantage of basic education opportunities because of reasons specific to individual cultures. Such barriers to participation may be overcome through the use of incentives and by programmes adapted to the local context and seen by the learners, their families and communities to be "productive activities." (pp. 9-10)

This statement targets females who have not enrolled in school, or those whose schooling has been interrupted. It suggests the use of inducement and enticement. Whereas the statement offers evidence of one of the GAD foci, that is, integrated effort at local, state and regional levels in education, it also seems to expose WID ideas. For example, in WID, recognizing that females have their inferior status in the community, plans are offered to elevate their status by launching initiatives and programs that would redress the inequity. The language in this document suggests that females require special incentives to promote their participation. Alternative considerations, such as community discussions of social and cultural expectations of their lives as wives and mothers, which do not permit time to attend class, are not considered as a response to women's lack of participation. The ideological bent of the document is apparently built on the assumptions of liberal feminism, which regard the state as an essentially benevolent institution that

will both design and implement initiatives to ensure women's equal access to education (Stromquist, 1998; 1999; 2001).

Similar findings are evident from the Mid-Decade Meeting in Amman six years later. The Preamble comprises six sections, each of which targets a different area. In the Affirmation, sections entitled "Gains Achieved," "Shortfalls," "The Road Ahead," "Emerging Challenges," and "Renewing the Pledge" refer to the selected key terms. The headings themselves provide a roadmap of sorts to understanding ideas associated with the terms in question. Children were the focus on the "Gains" section. Under "Shortfalls," gender gap is mentioned, even though the text did not consider the context in which inequity occurred. Instead, the document illustrates that children, adolescents and adults failed to reach benchmarks, thus emphasizing the sexual division of educational inclusion. In the **"**Road Ahead and Emerging Challenges" section, no reference to sex or gender is made. Instead, reference is made to the role that society plays in the education of citizens. Although the texts in these sections hint at the social organizational structure that influences educational choices and chances, no reference to gender is made. Given this exclusion, we can only speculate that the authors may have noted the relationships between social structures and education, but did not connect them to the education of females, or that they simply chose to exclude the connection from their consideration. In the "Continuing Challenges" section, women and girls are once again highlighted as problems, thus reaffirming WID's main argument that sex itself is a more important reference than the larger constructs in which the individual is located. In sum, even though the mid-decade meeting fell squarely within the period when GAD predominated in academic discussions, policy does not reflect its main tenets.

The Dakar meeting's Framework for Action uses gender-related terms more frequently than the Jomtien document, but this observation requires careful interpretive qualification. Although the term gender appears in the Dakar documents, other common GAD terms such as gender gap, gender stereotyping, gender issues, gender awareness, gender bias, and gender responsiveness appear three times or fewer in the entire Dakar document. Moreover, references to sex (males and females) appear more frequently than references to gender. Other terms that appeared more frequently, such as gender responsiveness and parity, neither appear in all the documents, nor provide a strong context for a focused discussion of female education.

There is no increase in reference to structure-related terms (social, political, economic, cultural and religious) in the Introduction statements, comparing the two from Jomtien in 1990 and Dakar in 2000. In fact, the use of all structure-related terms decreased in frequency. This revealing finding suggests that little, if any, attention was paid to GAD literature when the

Dakar document was produced. The terms social, political, culture(al) and religion(religious) occur more frequently in the earlier Jomtien documents. The only term that is used slightly fewer times in the Dakar documents than in the Jomtien documents is economy. This may tell us that not only is less emphasis put on the social, political cultural and religious facets of educational policy, but also that economics is still the most prevalent concern of policy makers.

Having said this, we should not assume that references to gender automatically mean paying proper attention to the social structural elements that define gender. If we look at the context in which those terms are used, we uncover an equally interesting scenario. The Comparison of Gender- and Structure-Related Terms chart shows the frequency of the structure-related terms used in reference to gender. To tally this number, I totaled the gender-related terms for each region (Africa, the Americas, the Arab States, Asia and the Pacific, Europe and North America and the E9 countries). Then, I charted the frequency with which the structure-related terms appeared in each region's Framework.

This chart shows that Africa and the Arab States both used gender-related terms more frequently than any of the other regions. In fact, these areas of the world chose to use these words twice as often as the Americas, Asia and the Pacific, Europe and North America, and the E9 countries. They were used approximately fifty times in both the Africa and Arab States documents, half that number in the Americas document, and a fraction of that number in the remaining plans. The Comparison chart also shows the frequency with which the structure-related terms are used in the documents. Africa may lead the pack here, with ten references to social, economic and cultural, but that number is far fewer than the number of gender-related terms in the same document. In other words, though gender-related issues are included in the documents, they are not necessarily related to the structural social, political, economic, cultural and religious references emphasized in the GAD literature. In the cases of the Asia, Europe and the E9, not only are few references made to gender in the documents, but they are not couched in the social-structural terms of the GAD literature. Whereas the authors of the documents may be aware of the social, political, economic, cultural and religious contexts within which females struggle for educational chances and opportunities, they make no direct linkage between those contexts and females' educational chances and choices in their texts.

The cases of Africa and the Americas yielded the same observation. Africa mentions gender-related terms over fifty times, but the combined use of the terms social, political, economic, cultural and religious are tallied at barely half that rate. The Americas' document mentions gender-related terms over twenty times, but the terms social, economic, and cultural are referenced

only a quarter as often. The terms political (not mentioned), and religious (noted several times), did not appear to play a role in the document's conceptualization of inferior female educational status. A greater discrepancy is noted in the Arab States report. Although gender-related terms appear almost fifty times, only social and economic references are made, and these occur at one-fifth the rate. This tells us that although social and economic forces may figure in the educational plans for the Arab States, they are not made explicitly in reference to female education, or even gender and education. The case is the same for the European report. Although we know that gender and education form a field that is squarely positioned in the social context in which it occurs, this report, like the others, fails to note the vital connection. The E9 is the most puzzling report. Documented evidence clearly shows that females lag behind and below their male counterparts at all levels of education, but this discrepancy is not noted. While we cannot explain why the E9 document largely excludes discussion of the existing social, cultural and religious structures that are closely related to gender, we must begrudge the document's dereliction.

The foregoing content analysis demonstrates that the language in the EFA policy documents of 1990, 1996 and 2000 predominantly reflects the ideas commonly associated with the WID literature. Attention to the individual dominates the discourse. Numerous references to WID tenets are somewhat surprising, since its popularity in the development field has already diminished by 1990, and yet they figure prominently in the Jomtien conference proceedings. Indeed, the WID ideology continued to loom large in the mid-decade meeting in Amman, as well as the 2000 meeting in Dakar, albeit to a lesser extent. Thus, the conclusion seems to be that the EFA documents have not aligned current scholarship with policy. While gender-related words appear in the documents, they claim neither ideological affinity nor policy commonality with GAD positions. In short, the use of gender-related terms on their own, without recognition in the social, cultural, political and economic contexts in which they function, will do little to re-structure policy whose purpose is to redress gender inequity in education.

Yet another observation about EFA policy and its link to WID and GAD should be noted. We found that EFA policy addressed education for females by integrating, to varying degrees, fundamentals from the WID framework to explain women's oppression in terms of sexual identity, and the GAD framework to describe women's oppression in terms of the macro-social circumstances, situations and conditions of their lives. However, the EFA policy allocates a substantial portion of its rhetoric to education of girls. Whereas the WID and GAD frameworks may be helpful to illuminate the connections between self, society and education for women, we do not have a framework that explains girls' positions in the macro-social constructs that

shape and influence their lives. Feminist thought has, to this point in time, applied the theories and ideas of both WID and GAD to the case of girls.

In sum, this content analysis revealed a disjunction between the current GAD research and EFA policies. It also illuminated the need to examine girls' lives, and the causes of the oppression they experience. We hope findings of this nature illuminate the need to encourage future research that hinges on the very integration of sound feminist development theory into actual educational policies. Thus, the final section of this chapter suggests several future directions in which the field may move to accomplish this goal.

Future directions

Needless to say, educational policy—written by representatives from global, regional, and national arenas—constitutes the fundamental underpinning for the development, implementation and evaluation of programs that seek to achieve the goals of forging literacy among citizens. Sound policies are the cumulative outcome of collaborative efforts among educational specialists around the world to create comprehensive plans that truly benefit the citizens they aim to serve. Therefore, future work in the field must focus on three areas for both women and girls: the acknowledgement of the macro-structural constructs of women's lives; the particular facets of girls' lives that shape the chances for their educational participation; and the successful attempts by females to gain an education that serves their needs in the contemporary diaspora.

This review shows that EFA policy may be peppered with the academic jargon of the 1990s but it is largely based on inadequate ideology of the 1970s. Therefore, one future direction of the field must include the construction of policies that recognize the educational needs of women in terms of the traditional social, cultural, political and economic constraints. By examining the education of women from a macroscopic perspective that includes the real world in which they live and work, that is, by assimilating the insights and findings of the academic theories such as GAD into educational policy, we may realistically remove their obstacles of enrollment in and completion of educational programs. This must include the study of how gender influences educational choices for women. In so doing, we may not regard gender as a problem, as Stromquist puts it (1998, p. 98), but rather as an act of life from which there is not escape.[28] It figures in any rigorous and comprehensive examination of the lives of women in general and their

[28] Nelly Stromquist (1998, p. 98), referencing WID units in emerging countries, states, " Through this approach, the state discourse successfully weakens the resolution of the problem of gender by failing to acknowledge the power asymmetry between women and men and concentrating instead of the problems of poor and destitute women."

educational participation in particular. Until the powerful force of gender is written into policy, we will fail to achieve the educational objectives of strengthening female education. In other words, by appreciating gender, situated as it is in the social structures that define opportunity, failure, and achievement, we may finally free educational policy from an essentialist framework that sees the female or the male, as a taken-for-granted, static force or entity. In short, we must retool policy to reflect the social environment in which educational opportunities inhere. No individual has the ability to make decisions and complete tasks without the consideration and consent of others. Decisions are made within the social systems that allow them, and so, the social conditions that govern women's education chances must be explored and considered in future educational policy.

To be more specific, let us briefly consider how educational policy may fruitfully take into account the challenges to educational participation with reference to the social structures of the family, the community, and the state. Since families play a significant role in the education of women, we must then ask: What are the concerns of the family unit that promote and prohibit education for women? How do the economic needs of the family dictate education for women? How can we integrate these matters into educational policy for women?

The community, of which families are a part, may have needs and demands that affect education for women. Again, policy formulation requires the posing and answering of a series of questions: What are the community's needs? How are they brought to bear on women's chances for and completion of educational programs? How can the community promote the education of women, while meeting its needs and should the needs not be modified? In the community where a local school exists, how do the teaching staff and curriculum promote the retention of adolescent girls? To what extent does the staff encourage regular attendance in class? To what extent does it provide a safe and comfortable environment for female students? To what extent does it encourage secondary and higher education? How does the curriculum influence the retention of females? Is it appropriate? Is it comprehensive? In short, are the questions of leadership and curriculum, being fundamental elements of the schooling experience, fully addressed?

Existing educational policy is written at the national (and sometimes, regional) level. The policies' rhetoric may be based, in large part, on the agendas of the international agencies that devote considerable funding to countries that subscribe to their initiatives. But are the needs of the country carefully considered prior to the funding agency's offer of resources? To what extent do the goals of the local government align with the goals of the fund-granting multi-national organization? To what extent is there commitment to a collaborative process that honors the needs of both the

funding agency and the local government? Yet another facet of the creation of policy is the voice of those who shape it. To what extent is equal representation of all groups accounted? In other words, does the dominant governing body project a louder, and more powerful voice than one of the minority ethnic groups? If so, what modifications can be made to address this inequity? Do women contribute to policy formulation at the same rate as men? Is there an attempt to recognize inequity and modify process to correct it?

A second future direction for the field must recognize the particular plight of girls. Girls, and young women, depending on their cultural, linguistic, economic, political and national affiliations, confront different situations, reside in various conditions and are exposed to different circumstances as dictated by the unique social, religious, economic and political environs of a community, and their roles as daughters and sisters. While WID and GAD offered general paradigms and theories that my have considerable cross-cultural resonance or even practical applicability, they do not always identify and consider local factors of girls. When educational policy is written, it must sensitively take into account those very native situations, conditions, circumstances that have direct bearing on girls' education in any one locale. In short, WID and GAD were no doubt written for and about women and their arguments and diagnoses of women's problems have much validity. But the lives of girls may be varied in multitudinous cultural settings, and they must be carefully and critically examined in order to complement any scholarship, including the WID and GAD models, that contribute to future educational policy.

Lastly, we need not question the need for a coordinated effort between the scholarly community that addresses gender-related issues, and practical design and implementation of policy (Stromquist, 1998). But as our study has shown, such coordination is not always achieved. In any event, academic theorizing must not take precedent over or ignore the actual effort to improve the lives of females. We must study the complicated amalgam of facets and layers of social life to complement our ameliorative effort to address the needs of females and their educational opportunities and pursuits. Sound educational policy that translates scholarly theories based on understanding social structural elements into functional, pragmatic programs that lead us toward equal education for all remains the ultimate goal of all who are involved in educational research.

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The Need of Moral Education in Schools Based on Buddhism

Anil Bajracharya[29]

A child's mind is clear like crystal, free from all pre-conceptual elements. A child's mind is in the absolute form, void of all impacts, whether of the virtue side or of the evil side. The present turbulent environment of the world created by terrorism, violence and corruption is affecting the child mind. The school is the first place where a child gets exposed to worldly material and inputs associated with science and theories.

The knowledge which helps build up self-respect through right action, right vision, right consciousness, right mindfulness and right livelihood is very essential for the production of high-profile characters or personalities. One may ask: What sort of knowledge is this? Where to find it? How to grasp it? I mean the knowledge which is so powerful, meaningful and creative - the knowledge that can lay the foundations of thoughts which ultimately direct life towards prosperity. This knowledge is no other than the eight-fold path of Buddhism. Moral education as an essential part of any knowledge or thought enhances individual ethics, and on the strength of this ethics one can deliver what one has achieved.

The philosophy of Buddhism, which is synonymous to moral education, emphasizes moral boost-up of the individual. It can be used as the very basics of moral education for school children, the future of the nation. In a developed country like Japan moral education based on Buddhism is compulsory, right from the elementary level of education. This Buddhist country strongly believes that educating children in positive thoughts and high morals is the most effective instrument for the eradication of social crimes. This belief has been proven hundred percent rights by the fact that Japan's crime rate is the lowest in the world. Following the example of Japan, the land of Vajrayana, other countries are imparting moral education to their kids in the schools.

But the children of Nepal, which is the birthplace of Buddha, are still deprived of the valuable knowledge of Buddhism. It is very unfortunate that the school curriculum of Nepal does not include this knowledge. It only includes the life-history of Buddha as depicted in the history books. Buddha had clearly stated that his personal life was not so significant as the knowledge that he achieved after 'he got the light'.

[29] PGD Buddhism, M.Sc. Geo, Universal Academy of Medical Science - Nepal.

Because of the increase in criminal activities and internal conflict in recent years Nepal is in greater need of moral education in the school and beyond. One can claim with confidence and pride that the principles of Nepal's own philosopher, Lord Buddha, is the best option.

Buddhism strongly puts emphasis on the middle-path theory for prosperity in life. This theory advocates avoidance of two extremes, the extreme of the indulgence (in the pleasures of the materialistic world) and the extreme of the ascetic world. Both extremes are painful and profitless. By avoiding these two extremes can one pursue and practice the mid-way and transcend worldliness. This middle path theory of Buddhism consists of eight sectors collectively known as the 'eight noble paths'. Today this theory is very popular all over the world, specially in developed countries like US, Canada, UK, Japan, Germany and France. It is popular because it helps promote vision, judgment and wisdom and leads to the path of enlightenment or Buddhahood. It is also the path to the cessation of all sufferings.

Eight noble paths

The eight steps of the noble paths can be summed up as follows:

1. Right understanding

This is the first step in the practice of the noble paths and is very important. Right understanding empowers a person to see things as they really are and not as they appear to be. This prevents a person from imbibing false thoughts and develops in him right views through the acquisition of knowledge of practical and result-oriented aspects. It also underlines the understanding of four noble truths: presence of suffering, cause of suffering, cessation of suffering and means to the cessation of suffering.

2. Right thinking

Right thinking is composed of three virtues, namely, good will (or non-hatred), non-violence and non-indulgence in sensual pleasures. Mankind should practice love and compassion for all living beings.

3. Right speech

Right speech is associated with the rejection of four unwholesome actions that are done through speech, namely, telling lies, speaking harsh and slandering. Buddha once said: "There is no evil that cannot be done by a liar, who has transgressed the law of truthfulness and who is indifferent to a world beyond."

4. Right action

Right action is concerned with the abstinence from three evil deeds: destroying life, stealing other's thoughts and properties and sexual misconduct. Right action is also considered as the first of the three moral precepts of the Panchashila.

5. Right livelihood

Right livelihood is shunning five anti-social activities: trading of arms and lethal weapons, trading of humans and animals, trading of intoxicants, trading of poisons, trading of unproductive thoughts.

6. Right effort

It emphasizes four endeavors: promotion of what is good, development of creativity, prevention of evils and discarding the evil.

7. Right mindfulness

Right mindfulness refers to constant vigilance or contemplation on the four foundations of mindfulness: body, feeling, mind and mind object. Practising 'insight into oneself' helps one see things as they at bottom are. Buddha has said: "This is the sole way to the purification of the mind, to the overcoming of sorrow and lamentation, to the annihilation of pain and grief, to entering the right path, and to the attainment of Nibbana (Nirvana)."

8 Right concentrations

The main function of right concentration is to keep undisturbed during the practicing of the eight paths. It needs one-pointedness. Under this there are forty types of meditations that one can practice for one-pointedness.

a)	Devices	10 types
b)	Impurities	10 types
c)	Reflections	10 types
d)	Divine Abidings	4 types
e)	Perception	1 type
f)	Analysis	1 type
g)	Immaterial states	4 types

Further, the eight-fold path can be summed up as (a) morality (which consists of right speech, right action and right livelihood), (b) avoidance of mental distraction (which consists of right mindfulness, right effort and right

concentration, and (c) wisdom of higher level (which consists of right understanding and right thought).

There is no doubt that the eight-fold path was propounded by Buddha to create a non-discriminative, crime-free and liberal society. This theory can strongly address the necessity of moral education for the present world.

Thus, it can be suggested that the educational institutions and authorities of Nepal should develop a curriculum on moral education for school kids, which should start right from Grade 1. This curriculum should focus more on practice than on class lecture. Some of the curriculum inputs should be such that they could be practised at home also. On the other hand, teachers should be exposed to knowledge and skill necessary for this type of education through refresher or other training programs. Now, it is time to realize the implication of moral education for the betterment of the Nepalese society.

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Cultural Factors and Beliefs Influencing Transfer of Training in Nepali Organizations

Dr. Bhawani Shankar Subedi[30]

Background

For the purpose of this study, it was necessary to identify and study the cultural factors and beliefs that are predominant among people in the organizations that collectively represent norms and worldviews pertaining to training and performance. In other words, the purpose of he study revolves around the research question. In the organizational culture of Nepal, what are the factors and beliefs influencing transfer of training?' and seeks to identify cultural concepts and beliefs held by managers, supervisors and employees that could influence the process as well as the outcome of transfer of training in the context of civil and corporate sector organizations of Nepal.

Cultural factors and beliefs

The following aspects of organizational culture and beliefs about transfer of training were specifically included in the theme of the research question:

Defining a 'perfect training'.

Perceived 'value of training'.

Employee 'selection' for training.

'Reasons' for sending people to training.

Outcomes and discussions in this area of interest in this research were based on the data pertaining to the identification and an assessment of such factors and beliefs in the organizations believed to influence transfer of training from the perspectives of the managers, supervisors and employees.

Data Sources for Cultural Factors and Beliefs

Two different instruments were used to collect data for the identification and assessment of cultural factors and beliefs about transfer of training:

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Semi-structured personal interviews.

On-site survey using the employee training effectiveness questionnaire.

Results from Personal Interviews

By using semi-structured personal interview questions, 51 out of 299 cases (managers, senior supervisors and randomly selected employees) were personally interviewed. These interviews consisted of questions and supplementary probings leading to the identification of factors about organizational culture and beliefs that were likely to influence the effectiveness of employee training in terms of transfer of training in the organizations of Nepal. Respondents were asked to give specific suggestions to improve the effectiveness of employee training in Nepal.

Beliefs about perfect training

By using Kirkpatrick's four levels of training evaluation and adding to it the concept of 'return on investment', factors guiding the beliefs about the notion of 'perfect training' were identified and ranked in terms of frequency of responses. Because the interview questions allowed for multiple responses, two to three responses from each participant were recorded for each of the main question included in the semi-structured interview questionnaire.

Table 1 presents a summary of factors about the definition of a perfect training. With the question 'How do you define a perfect training?' 36 (70.58 %) responses were recorded for 'transfer of knowledge, skills and attitudes' from the training to the job. This factor ranked number one. Similarly, 'gain in knowledge, skills and attitudes' was rated second in the rank with 26 (50.98%) responses recorded for that factor. 'Better organizational results' ranked third as a criterion for defining a 'perfect training' that receiving 21 (41.17%) responses. A perfect training must be 'enjoyable' as identified by 19 (37.25%) of the frequencies recorded for this factor, which ranked fourth in terms of priority.

Table 1
Defining a Perfect Training

Defining criteria	Frequency of responses	Percentage of response occurrence	Rank
Transfer of knowledge, skills and attitudes back on the job	36	70.58	1
Gain in knowledge, skills and attitudes	26	50.98	2
Better organizational results	21	41.17	3
Enjoyable	19	37.25	4
Return on investment	4	7.84	5

These results indicated that managers, supervisors and employees generally believe 'transfer of training' (70.58%), 'gain in knowledge and skills' (50.98%) and 'better organizational results (41.17%) as the three most important features for a training to be called perfect. Interestingly, only 4 (7.84%) responses out of a total of 106 were received for the concept of 'return on investment' as a criterion for defining a perfect training, which was ranked fifth as marked by the frequency of responses.

Perceived value of training

Managers, supervisors and employees were asked 'What is the value of training for you or for your organization'? The probing questions focused on how they perceived the value of training in the context of their organizations.

As illustrated in Table 2, 'need for performance improvement' was perceived as the highest value for training. This value ranked 1 with 31(60.78%) responses out of 114 occurrences rated by 51 cases. Second in the rank was the perceived value of training as an instrument for 'achieving organizational goals' that received 28 (54.90%) responses. Likewise, value of training as a 'means of rewarding good performers' was rated third with 27 (52.94%) responses. Training as an aid for 'promotion to higher positions' received fourth rank with 16 (31.37%) responses followed by 'means of providing financial incentives' that received 12 (23.53%) responses.

Table 2
Perceived Value of Training in Organizations

Factor Statements	Frequency of responses	Percentage of response occurrence	Rank
Need for performance improvement	31	60.78	1
Instrument for achieving organizational goals	28	54.90	2
Means of rewarding good performers	27	52.94	3
Aid for promotion to higher position/s	16	31.37	4
Means of providing financial incentives	12	23.53	5

Results showed that cultural norms and organizational practices seem to have shaped perceptions and values of training among managers, supervisors and employees about what is good and bad, right and wrong, true and false, honest and dishonest about training and development.

Employee selection for training

'How are employees generally selected for training from your organization?' In response to this question, managers, supervisors and employees of the civil and corporate sector organizations reflected a mix of interests.

Table 3 presents a summary of results about factors that were identified as having an influence on the selection of employees for training. From the perspectives of managers, supervisors and employees 'organizational needs' as a basis of staff selection for training received 40 (78.43%) responses and was placed in rank 1 followed by 'job or performance requirements' as the second important basis of trainee selection that received 36 (70.59%) responses in an average.

Table 3
Factors Influencing Employee Selection for Training

Criteria	Frequency of responses	Percentage of occurrence	Rank
Organizational needs	40	78.43	1
Job or performance requirements	36	70.59	2
Internal rotation or turn	28	54.90	3
Individual needs	18	35.29	4
External pressure	4	7.84	5
Internal bias	4	7.84	5

Interestingly, 'internal rotation or turn' was identified as an emerging factor that ranked third with 28 frequencies (54.90%) in the list of criteria of employee selection for training. Likewise, 'individual needs' as criteria received 18 (35.29%) responses that ranked fourth. 'External pressure' and 'internal bias' both ranked fifth with an equal score of 4 (7.84%) responses. Results indicated that the selection of staff to be sent for training was largely affected by informal criteria in addition to formal criteria and procedures.

Results from on-site survey

The Employee Training Effectiveness Questionnaire consisted of questions designed to identify and assess factors influencing employee selection for training. The results supplemented findings from the data collected by means of personal interviews with the managers, supervisors and employees. The questions focused on values and beliefs about the 'reasons organizations send people to training' and 'common bases of employee selection for training'. These two questions focused on 'why' and 'how' respectively, but the results of one reinforced the results of the other.

Reasons for sending people to training

How do supervisors and employees perceive the reason for sending employees to training? The purpose behind this question was to identify and assess reasons why organizations send their employees to training. Five reasons were given in the rating scale using a four-point scale ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. In the given open slots 29 persons added 'to meet the training quota' as one of the reasons for sending people to training. Likewise, 10 persons added 'to upgrade staff competence' as the reason in the agree category of responses.

Table 4 presents a summary of results for the identified reasons of sending people to take part in training. Those reasons were ranked in terms of frequency of responses in the 'agree category'. This category was the combined frequencies from the 'strongly agree' and 'agree' columns. Distribution of 'agree' and 'disagree' frequencies for the 54 supervisors and 96 employees of the civil and corporate sector organizations were analyzed.

Table 4
Reasons for Sending People to Training

Reason for sending people to training	Responses in 'agree' category	Responses in 'disagree' category	Rank
Achieving organizational goals	141 (94.00%)	8 (6.00%)	1
Performance improvement	131 (87.33%)	16 (12.67%)	2
Rewarding good performers	80 (53.33%)	70 (46.67%)	3
Promotion to higher positions	77 (51.67%)	72 (48.33%)	4
Providing financial incentives	23 (15.33%)	127 (84.67%)	5

'Achieving organizational goals' was ranked 1 as a reason for sending people to training. One hundred and forty-one (94%) of the respondents

reportedly agreed to this factor as the main reason for sending employees to training. Similarly, 87.33% (131) rated 'performance improvement' as the second most important reason for training people in organizations. 'Rewarding good performers' was ranked third with 53.33% (80) of the supervisors and employees showing an agreement to this factor. Likewise, 51.67% (77) persons agreed that people are sent to training for ensuring their promotions to higher positions. However, 'providing financial incentives' was not a strong reason for sending people to training, although 15.33% (23) of the respondents agreed to this factor as a reason for provide training.

Interestingly, 29 persons added 'to meet the training quota' and 10 persons added 'to upgrade staff competence' as important reasons for sending employees to attend training. Overall results of this analysis indicated a strong belief in 'organizational results' and 'performance improvement' as the most valid reasons for sending people to training. This finding was found consistent with the findings from previous research on transfer of training.

Basis of employee selection for training

Results of the on-site survey provided six common bases of employee selection for training in a four-point rating scale ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. Supervisors and employees were asked to indicate how far they agreed or disagreed with those bases of staff selection for training in their organizations. One more basis was added in the given open slots, 'to increase staff morale and motivation'. This was identified as an additional basis and reported by 16 of the respondents.

Table 5 presents a summary of the data on the identified bases with total frequencies of responses in the 'agree' and 'disagree' categories. The 'agree' category includes combined frequencies of responses in the 'strongly agree' and 'agree category. Similarly, frequencies in the 'disagree category' indicate the total combined responses of 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree' columns.

Table 5
Basis of Employee Selection for Training

Basis of employee selection for training	Responses in 'agree' category	Responses in 'disagree' category	Rank
Organizational needs	130 (86.67%)	20 (13.33)	1
Job or performance requirements	125 (83.33%)	25 (16.67%)	2
Internal rotation or turn	120 (80.00%)	30 (20.00%)	3
Individual needs	79 (52.67%)	71 (47.33%)	4
Internal bias	30 (20.13%)	119 (79.87%)	5
External pressure	30 (20.13%)	119 (79.87%)	5

Detailed classification of the data collected from supervisors and employees of the civil and corporate sector organizations in response to common bases of employee selection for training identified 'organizational needs' as the primary base. This was identified by 86.67% (130) of the respondents as the most common basis of employee selection for training. 'Job or performance requirement' was rated second in the rank by 'agree' category responses with a score of 83.33% (125). Interestingly, 'internal rotation or turn' was identified as the third most common basis of employee selection for training by 80% (120), followed by 'individual needs' that ranked fourth in the 'agree' category of responses with 52.67% (79) of the respondents agreeing to it.

'External pressure' as a basis of employee selection for training received 20.13% (30) responses. This factor which ranked fifth in the agree category and was defined in the given instrument as political or organizational pressure from the higher rank, source-force or 'bhansoon'. With an equal score of responses 20.13% (30) in the agree category, 'internal bias' specified as 'afnoo manche' and 'chakadi' also ranked fifth as a basis of employee selection for training. The need to increase staff morale and motivation as a basis of employee selection for training was an additional factor identified and reported by 16 of the respondents in response to open question in this category. The terms used in the instrument were defined and examples were given for clarity.

Summary of Results on Cultural Factors and Beliefs Influencing Transfer of Training

Comparison of the results from personal interviews and on-site survey revealed some important cultural factors and beliefs that might be influencing transfer of training in Nepali organizations. Interview results showed that most of the managers, supervisors and employees perceived the valuable of training for performance improvement (60.78%), for achieving organizational goals (54.90%), and as a means of rewarding good performers (52.94%). Likewise, most supervisors and employees believed that the reason for sending people to training was for achieving organizational goals (94%), for performance improvement (87.33%), and for rewarding good performers (53.33%). These three factors were found consistent in both the types of results.

Managers, supervisors and employees who were interviewed identified the following three factors as the three most important criteria for any training to be called perfect:

Transfer of knowledge, skills and attitudes from the training to the job (70.58%).

Gain in knowledge, skills and attitudes (50.98%), and

Achieving better organizational results (41.17%).

However, the concept of 'return on investment' was ranked last with only 4 (7.84%) responses marked out of a total of 106 occurrences in this category. The implication of this finding could be an obvious lack of awareness among Nepali managers, supervisors and employees that the training they received should have an impact and return on investment for the organization.

Results of the on-site survey showed 'organizational needs' as the most important criteria used in employee selection for training. Forty (78.43%) of the persons interviewed (51), and one hundred and thirty (86.67%) of the persons surveyed (150) identified 'organizational needs' as the most important criteria for employee selection for training and a basis of such selection. This finding is consistent with findings from previous research on transfer of training.

Some other important bases of employee selection for training identified in order of priority included 'job or performance requirements (83.33%)', 'internal rotation or turn (80%)', 'individual needs (52.67%)', 'internal bias (20.13%)' and 'external pressure (20.13%)' in the context of organizations in Nepal.

Suggestions to improve employee training effectiveness in Nepal

In response to an open question asking for suggestions to improve the effectiveness of employee training in Nepal, 52 meaningful suggestions expressed in 135 statements were recorded and then clustered for clarity into 9 themes according to the meaning they conveyed.

Table 6 presents a classified summary of those suggestions to improve the effectiveness of employee training in Nepal. The theme statements are presented with frequency of occurrence, percentage of occurrence and rank of importance. Most of the suggestions were to improve training-job relevance, trainee selection, training plans and workplace support system to improve the effectiveness of employee training in Nepal.

Not all statements were suggestions as such but all of them provided some clues to the problems and prospects of employee training in Nepal. Fifty-two statements indicating those problems and prospects were derived from a frequency of one hundred and thirty five statements recorded from the interviews with the managers, supervisors and employees of the civil as well as corporate sector organizations. Those themes were then clustered into nine groups (Table 6) with corresponding frequency, percentage and rank.

Table 6
Suggestions to Improve Employee Training Effectiveness

Theme Statements	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Provide only job-related and need-based training. Similarly, job after training must be training related.	32	62.74	1
Avoid biasedness in staff selection for training to ensure right person for the right training.	26	50.98	2
Work out a well defined HRD policy and transparent plans to make staff training effective.	24	47.06	3
Require employees to improve performance after training. Create a supportive workplace environment in the organization.	16	31.37	4
Discourage the tendency to take training as a means of financial gains or relief from work.	13	25.5	5
Design and deliver training that is practical and responsive to real workplace problems.	9	17.64	6
Do not overuse training as the solution to all kinds of workplace problems.	7	13.72	7
Conduct post-training follow-up to help to increase training effectiveness.	4	7.84	8
Use training as a means to facilitate better job performance in case of organizational or job changes.	4	7.84	8

Suggestions to improve the effectiveness of employee training in Nepal included the above themes categorized into training-job relevance, trainee selection, training policy and plans, workplace support, perceived value of training, training design, non-training problems, post training support and purpose of training.

Summary of findings about cultural factors and beliefs

Managers, supervisors and employees all expressed their needs to be clear about training-job relevance, trainee selection, training policy and plans, workplace support, perceived value of training, training design, non-training

problems, post-training support and purpose of training for improving the effectiveness of employee training in Nepal.

Results showed that managers, supervisors and employees perceived the valuable of training for performance improvement (60.78%), for achieving organizational goals (54.90%), and as a means of rewarding good performers (52.94%).

Likewise, supervisors and employees believed that the reason for sending people to training was for achieving organizational goals (94%), performance improvement (87.33%), and for rewarding good performers (53.33%).

The 78.43% (40) of the persons interviewed (51), and 86.67% (130) of the persons surveyed identified 'organizational needs' as the most important criteria used in employee selection for training.

'External pressure' (political or organizational pressure from the higher rank, 'source-force' or 'bhansoon') 7.84%, and 'internal bias' ('afnoo manche' and 'chakadi') also 7.84%, were identified as the other factors influencing selection of employees for training.

Managers, supervisors and employees identified 'transfer of knowledge, skills and attitudes from the training to the job' (70.58%), 'gain in knowledge, skills and attitudes' (50.98%), and 'achieving better organizational results' (41.17%) as the most important criteria for any training to be called perfect.

The concept of 'return on investment' was not recognized as an important criterion for a training to be perfect (only 7.84 % (4) of the cases reported this as a criterion).

Suggestions to improve the effectiveness of employee training in Nepal included the following themes derived from a total of one hundred and thirty-five statements of suggestions collected from managers, supervisors and employees who received training within one year:

Provide only job-related and need-based training. Similarly, job after training must be training related (62.74%).

Avoid biasedness in staff selection for training to ensure right person for the right training (50.98%).

Work out a well defined HRD policy and transparent plans to make staff training effective (47.06%).

Require employees to improve performance after training. Create a supportive workplace environment in the organization (31.37%).

Discourage the tendency to take training as a means of financial gains or relief from work (25.5%).

Design and deliver training that is practical and responsive to real workplace problems (17.64%).

Do not overuse training as the solution to all kinds of workplace problems (13.72%).

Conduct post-training follow-up to help to increase training effectiveness (7.84%).

i. Use training as a means to facilitate better job performance in the context of organizational or job changes (7.84%).

Conclusion

Organizational culture and beliefs held by the managers, supervisors and employees about training and development are likely to influence the process as well as outcome of employee training in Nepal.

The stakeholders do not yet recognize the concept of 'return on investment' as a critical success factor in the context of employee training in Nepal.

Training as a 'means of rewarding good performers' is identified as an emerging basis of employee selection for training in both the civil and corporate sector organizations.

Value of training as an aid for 'promotion to higher positions' among the civil sector employees is overriding the importance of training for better performance and better organizational results.

In spite of the awareness about the value of training as the 'need for better organizational results' and 'performance improvement', training opportunities are not adequate for those employees who exhibit a tendency to perform better in their current as well as future job.

Current practices of employee selection for training indicate a situation not much in favor of utilizing training for better performance and better organizational results.

Since 'training and job relevance' is identified as the most important factor in the case of employee training in Nepal, objectives and content areas of training courses with higher 'training-job irrelevance' rates need revision or else exclusion from the courses to improve the effectiveness of employee training in Nepal.

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Reengineering T.U. Management

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Brought up with a glorious history of intellectual pride and academic prestige, Tribhuvan University at present suffers from crises, perceivably getting submerged into the change-resistant management default. In the current world dynamics where an accelerated process of change accompanying enormous needs has been an order of the day, the relevance of the classical mode of management such as 'management by objective' seems insignificant. Therefore, initiating changes in the existing management system with focus on the following factors will hopefully help to gear up reforms.

First of all, as a start point of reform a high gravity visioning exercise, which projects TU in a position of an imminent institution with ever-growing fame and prestige, needs to be carried out. Visioning essentially means what one imagines something to be, but translation of that 'to be' into actual form is equally important for which a front line management system with a pro-active stance holds higher. With such a management system in place a breakthrough in the constrained reality of TU is possible. Some examples of what initiatives will be pertinent in this respect are as discussed below.

At financial front

The government's inability to meet T.U.'s growing financial requirements has further intensified its financial crisis. T U cannot carry along this crisis *sine die*. Therefore, in order to dispel this crisis TU administration should diagnose the existing financial management system, identify the ailments, and decide on viable measures of treatment to be followed. Some action steps in this connection could be as follows.

TU's real state possession, as it is claimed, is impressively large but has remained idle due to the lack of enterprising efforts for more profitable returns. Lease contract of property seems to be the only way followed to draw benefits from such a possession. There might be some other profitable schemes, which might generate impressive returns. In order to uncover such schemes interactions with business houses, leading managers, visionary planners and administrators as well as with international funding agencies will be a meaningful exercise. A reflection on this idea by the T.U. authorities will not be unreasonable or impractical.

TU administration suffers from a chronic problem of bearing liabilities of most of its constituent campuses. Essentially, these liabilities must be transferred to the respective campuses themselves. For this purpose execution of the

decentralised management system should be emphasized, without any compromise or reservation. In other words, the respective campuses should be mandated to take full autonomy of all roles and responsibilities including financial. However, as regards financial support to them, a lump sum grant on the basis of the teacher-student ratio and logistics needs would be a good step.

Another critical area for reflection on the part of TU authorities is the undesirable and unwarranted recruitment. Drainage of scarce resources as a result of such recruitment has further aggravated TU's financial crisis. Therefore, the concerned authorities must not hesitate to trim down unnecessary employees size.

Similarly, it may sound prudent to revisit the existing fee structure, which is hardly justifiable since it is based neither on cost sharing nor on cost recovery. No logic will apply to continuing the prevailing fee structure at TU. Decision even for a marginal increment has not been ventured for a long time. Psychological fragility apparently inherent in TU authorities seems responsible for this situation. On the other hand, the TU system must not overlook the need for the delivery of quality education, which makes a strong case to argue for revising the fee structure.

An equally relevant idea concerning resource generation for university financing relates to establishing mutually beneficial relationship between university (ies) and business/industrial sectors. As a matter of fact, universities by virtue of their being the producers of knowledge and skills, exist as the most potential institutions to serve the needs of business and industries. By conducting research with the aim to generate efficiency-raising and productivity-enhancing inputs universities can contribute substantially to bring good fortune to them. In return the business/industry sectors reciprocate universities with financial support. A mutually enabling partnership such as this may serve best to treat TU's financial ailments.

TU has the legacy of being a great contributor in terms of producing high-level human resource. Many reputed scholars, planners, administrators, managers, entrepreneurs, industrialists and business magnets had received their higher education at TU. Undoubtedly, they make a potential group of people who can capacitate TU in various ways, depending on their strengths, resources and wisdom. Until now TU has overlooked this strength. So an immediate action to consolidate them with the objective to mobilise resources by establishing a structure needs to be started. To this end, TU can strive for forming alumni associations, like universities in the West and elsewhere have done.

The ideas presented above actions will fetch no meaning if they are not translated into action. Therefore, in order to get them materialized into

reality a shift in the management style is warranted. This is possible only when an orginazation or an institution attempts to come out of its conservatively defined boundary. In other words, the modern concept of management requires an organization to act as a 'boundary spanner.' TU needs to recognize the importance of such a role.

At academic front

TU cannot remain an exception so far as the need to emerge as a centre of academic excellence is concerned. Advancement in this direction is a desired process. For this to happen TU should strive for coping with the accelerated change occurring in the global context, which is generating new knowledge and ideas incessantly. As it is seen at present, TU seems to be moving ahead sluggishly, which, in fact, has further reduced its capability to emerge as a competitive university. (It should be noted, however, that not all institutions and faculties of TU are equally incapable.) A prompt initiative, therefore, will be to scan the changed context globally and develop perspectives as to how the best process of change at the academic and professional fronts can be set in. An example in this respect can be derived from the curriculum development process. Unlike the traditional approach, which basically focuses on consumption function of education, the current dynamism influenced by technological invention and innovation necessarily calls for the production function. Realisation of this function is likely to happen only when the curriculum is developed along the frontline system. Adoption of this approach will add dynamism to the curriculum, making it capable to catch up with the pace of change and meet the needs arising there from. Consequently, the products (successful graduates) will acquire efficiency and competency that will enable them to face the challenges in the competitive global market.

Associated with the frontline curriculum system is the need to transact it equally effectively in the learning environment. Teacher effectiveness, on the other hand, stands as the most essential factor for this to happen. Again, without an emphasis on teachers' professional development teacher effectiveness cannot be assured. Besides, teachers' job commitment, and their motivation and regard for professionalism are other equally important factors.

Likewise, leadership quality counts a lot in creating an enabling learning environment, which, again, is crucial for the effective transaction of the curriculum. In order to foster enabling leadership qualities the concerned leader(s) should keep abreast of the dynamics of the internal and external environment and construct as well as enforce compatible operational modalities.

Another significant factor contributing to teacher effectiveness relates to pedagogy. Dominance of teacher-centred approach and heavy bookish orientation is less likely to foster the students' cognitive capability. On the contrary, enforcement of student-centred approach with emphasis on participatory method and research focus would contribute to evolving a joyful learning environment, which would tend to upscale the students' learning achievement. This pedagogic approach would lead both the students and the teachers to a 'win-win' situation.

At international relation front

The frontiers of the world of knowledge are expanding every moment. Those who fail to keep pace with this expansion will be losers with implications of backwardness, underdevelopment and incompetence. In order to be able to run alongside with others who are in an advanced position it is inevitable to construct pertinent strategies and one significant strategy to this end is to bring TU to the international academic arena. For this purpose, aside from the massive operationalisation of information technology in establishing knowledge network, exploring opportunities for expanding bilateral and multi-lateral relations with universities in several countries of the world will be more meaningful. Not that TU does not have relations with universities of other countries but the scope of activities seems to be limited in the main to exchange of visits. The purpose of the relationships should cover a wider scope of activities for professional growth. Some examples to this end may include joint visioning for academic enhancement, undertaking joint research studies, interacting through ideas for more professional achievement and disseminating knowledge through joint publications. Similarly, the focus of the relationships should embrace the need for further study programmes for TU's students, for short-term and long-term training opportunities for the professional, administrative and managerial staff, for building library capacity and efficiency, and, not the least, too empowering TU with IT capability. TU's academicians may, on the other hand, involve in identifying areas of learning with potentials to attract foreign students. Moreover, the management system should work out hassle-free administrative processes for motivating foreign research scholars and students to come to Nepal and do scholastic work. This might need the TU management to negotiate with the government, have the government make a pertinent decision and subsequently work out a practical strategy.

At physical front

The need for an amicable learning environment in an educational institution should not be kept aside or overlooked. For creative brainworsk chaotic, constrained and cumbersome environment becomes counterproductive. A

well-managed workplace with the availability of all essential materials and with a pleasant physical set up serves as a pull factor engendering motivation to work. It is not that TU management is ignorant about the importance of a well-built physical infrastructure and lovable working condition; the problem lies, however, in its inability to construct and enforce norms for constant maintenance, protection and preservation. There is also the need for evolving a culture of caring for and beautifying the physical property of TU in all concerned constituencies. The TU management has to present itself strongly to see that the norms are being equally observed by all. Vandalism and miscreancy, which inflict damages, must not get room for play. Further, a continuous planning for physical development basically with the intent of adding to what exists now should be in place so that the physical set up may peer up with the standard of international universities.

Fairness and honesty inspired by sincere loyalty to and profound regard for the concerned institutions - TU is the case here - and combined with commitment to the management process, institutional development must gain strength as well as momentum. An antithesis to this seems to have wrapped TU mainly because the concerned authorities that are selected for high offices (as like-minded cronies) by the political leaders in power invariably tend to look after the political interest rather than institutional needs. Their management style almost entirely builds on political bias. If TU is to recuperate from this ailment, a bold shift from the existing regressive management to a pro-active one is more than urgent.