TRIBHUHAN UNIVERSITY AND ITS EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES IN NEPAL

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the University of North Texas in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements For the Degree of

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By

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The purpose of this study was to discuss the role of Tribhuvan University in the development of higher education in Nepal by examining the university's historical development and educational activities. Despite negligence and opposition to public higher education by the rulers of Nepal before 1951, Nepalese higher education began with the establishment of Trichandra College in 1918. From 1951 until the establishment of Tribhuvan University in 1959, several public as well as private colleges were also established.

The establishment of the university in 1959 marked the beginning of the government-controlled system of higher education in Nepal. As the first and only national institution of higher education, Tribhuvan University has played a significant role in developing a system of higher education in the country.

During its first ten years, Tribhuvan University did not operate as a comprehensive institute of higher education. The Tribhuvan University Act of 1971, however, altered the structure, organization, and functions of the
university and gave it additional roles and responsibilities. By the mid-1980s, Tribhuvan University had increased its number of colleges from 49 (1970) to more than 128. Moreover, these colleges have expanded their programs and levels of education.

This dissertation's six chapters describe the demographic, cultural, and historical setting of Nepal, the educational activities of Nepal before the establishment of Tribhuvan University, and the university's educational activities from its establishment in 1959 through the mid-1980s. The study shows that the university, in a 26-year period, had expanded its activities significantly and had proven its role as an important factor in the development of higher education in Nepal. The study also indicates that various governmental and non-governmental agencies have been actively involved in determining the educational activities of Tribhuvan University in Nepal.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The historical and educational development of Nepal's Tribhuvan University tells an important story about government and higher education to the people of Nepal as well as to the people of other countries, including the United States of America, the United Kingdom, Canada, India, and Japan, who have been involved in its development and organization. Established in 1959 after 104 years of hereditary dictatorship by the Rana family, Tribhuvan University had political origins, and its valuable contribution to the field of higher education in Nepal has earned Tribhuvan University an international reputation as an important and prestigious institution of higher learning.

The Nepal National Education Planning Commission (NNEPC), founded in 1954 to develop a comprehensive plan and policy on education, recommended at that time the establishment of a national university. This commission submitted its final report to the government of Nepal in 1955 with 26 recommendations on the missions, structure, organization, and operation of the proposed national university (College of Education, 1956). As the result of
NNEPC recommendations, Tribhuvan University was established in Nepal in 1959, with all existing colleges (5 government, 1 private) in the nation concurrently affiliated with it (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 1984). Thereafter, all academic matters, including the operation of academic programs of the already existing colleges, were prescribed by Tribhuvan University.

The early Tribhuvan University not only possessed a Senate, Syndicate, and Board of Studies, but had five schools (faculties) as well: arts, science, commerce, law, and agriculture. From 1959 to 1970, however, Tribhuvan University did not operate as a complete, autonomous, and comprehensive university in the country. During this period, the Ministry of Education in Nepal had complete control over the general, academic, and fiscal administration of the University. The University also did not offer any programs in medicine, engineering, or forestry.

With the implementation of the National Education System Plan (NESP) of 1971, the structure, functions, and educational activities of Tribhuvan University were reorganized. The production of various levels and types of manpower required for national development activities became one of the main goals of the University. For example, the existing five faculties were replaced by seven institutes,
and five new institutes were added (UNESCO, 1984). A new organizational chart of Tribhuvan University was developed to reflect and incorporate these new changes. According to this chart, three levels of hierarchy operated within the system: central level, institution or research center level, and campus level (UNESCO, 1984).

All of the other existing 49 colleges in the country were converted into branch campuses of Tribhuvan University and a campus chief was appointed to manage and administer campus-level activities (Ministry of Education, 1971a). The incumbent deans were appointed as academic as well as administrative officers of each institution, and a director was appointed for each research center.

The former syndicate and academic council of Tribhuvan University were also abolished in 1971 and the university senate was replaced by the university council. In an important change, the previous system of centrally controlled and conducted annual comprehensive examinations for all degrees was replaced by semester examinations conducted by the campuses.

Therefore, although Tribhuvan University was established in 1959, it did not begin to function as an important institution of higher learning until after 1971. The involvement, participation, and contribution of other countries, like the United States of America, the United
Kingdom, and India, were also important in the development and reorganization of Tribhuvan University. For example, the founding of the Center for Economic Development and Administration by the Ford Foundation of America, the College of Education by the University of Oregon, the exchange programs with Southern Illinois University, the Fulbright and East-West Center Scholarships for the faculty of the university, the assistantships in teacher training in health fields from Harvard University, and the assistance in the establishment of the Institute of Medicine by the United Kingdom, Canada, and Japan have all enhanced the present quality and status of Tribhuvan University.

As it incorporated educational influences from abroad, Tribhuvan University also became one of the best universities in the Southeast Asian region and a center for the cultivation of Nepalese education and identity. Further, through its educational activities, Tribhuvan University has contributed largely to raising the level of education in Nepal. By the end of the mid-1980s, Tribhuvan University has already proven itself to be the most important institution of higher learning in Nepal.

Statement of the Problem

This study examined and reported the historical development and educational activities of Tribhuvan
University in Nepal from its founding in 1959 through the mid-1980s.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study was to discuss the role of Tribhuvan University in the development of higher education in Nepal by examining its historical development and educational activities.

Research Questions

The research questions of this study were:

1. What was the status of the system of higher education in Nepal before the establishment of Tribhuvan University?

2. What were the factors influencing the historical development of the educational activities of Tribhuvan University from its founding in 1959 to the mid-1980s?

3. What were the characteristics of the educational activities of Tribhuvan University from its founding in 1959 through the mid-1980s?

4. What were the roles of government agencies in determining educational activities at Tribhuvan University?

5. What were the roles of non-governmental agencies, including influence from abroad, in determining educational activities at Tribhuvan University?
Background of the Study

The development of educational activities in Nepal has been influenced by demography, religion, culture, tradition, and politics. In other words, the Nepalese educational system is the outcome of the interaction and impact of land, people, and culture. Therefore, the establishment of Tribhuvan University and its educational activities have been closely related not only to the current setting of Nepal but also to the historical development of the country. Before discussing the educational activities of Nepal, it is appropriate to highlight the geophysical, socioeconomic, and demographic characteristics of Nepal as well as to briefly review its historical development.

Historical Development

Historical accounts, including archaeological and anthropological studies, indicate that mankind has existed in Nepalese territory for thousands of years. The historical records, artifacts, and printed grayware sites discovered in Lumbini, Nawalpure, and Kapilbastu, for example, can be dated from approximately the ninth to the sixth centuries B.C. Before 1767 A.D., Nepal was divided into several small principalities, each ruled by a king. Prithwi Narayan Shaha, the King of the Gorkha State, united several principalities and formed a united Nepal in 1768. Since 1768, Nepal has been ruled by the Shaha dynasty of
Gorkha. However, although the Shaha kings were still on the throne, the hereditary Rana dictatorship ruled Nepal for 104 years from 1846 to 1950. The end of the Rana rule in 1951, in fact, marked the beginning of a democratic government in Nepal. However, the multiparty or the parliamentary system of government was discontinued in 1962 and was replaced by the panchayat system (a system of government based on partyless principles). Since that time, Nepal has been ruled by the king under the panchayat system of government.

Historical accounts indicate that Nepal has undergone several changes politically, socially, and culturally. A review of the literature on the historical development of Nepal suggests that Nepal’s history may be divided into the following four major periods:

1. the early period (before 1767);
2. the period of political unification (1768-1845);
3. the period of Ranacracy (1846-1950); and
4. the post-independent era (1951 onward).

Chapter II ("Demographic, Cultural, and Historical Settings of Nepal") discusses in greater detail the current demographic and cultural setting of Nepal, as well as these four historical periods.

Educational Development

The educational system of Nepal, like that of many other countries of the world, is based on religious origins.
Hindu as well as Buddhist educational systems were dominant in the country for several thousands of years. In fact, the Sanskrit schools and Buddhist monasteries were the only institutes of learning in Nepal until 1883 when the Durbar School (Bhanu Madhyamic Vidhyalaya) was established to provide English education for the children of Rana rulers and their followers (UNESCO, 1984).

Nepal did not have any formal institute of higher education until 1918 when Trichandra College was established to provide higher education to the children of the ruling family. Trichandra College continued to be the only college in Nepal until the end of the Rana rule in 1951, when the establishment of a democratic government marked the beginning of modern higher education in Nepal. As a result, several public as well as private colleges were established. With the establishment of Tribhuvan University in 1959, the first definitive foundation for higher education in Nepal was also formed. After its establishment, Tribhuvan University began to prescribe the academic programs of all public and private colleges in the country. The number of colleges rose from 19 in 1959, to 49 in 1970, to 128 in 1985. Thus the role and functions of the university increased significantly. By the mid-1980's, Tribhuvan University has proved itself to be a prestigious institute of higher education in Nepal.
A review of the literature on Tribhuvan University and its educational activities has indicated the following three distinct phases of educational development in Nepal:

1. higher education before the establishment of Tribhuvan University (See Chapter III);
2. Tribhuvan University and its educational activities from 1959-1970 (See Chapter IV): and
3. Tribhuvan University and its educational activities from 1971-1985 (See Chapter V).

Significance of the Study

This investigation of the educational and historical development of Tribhuvan University offers a clear sense of the importance of the role that Tribhuvan University came to play in the development of higher education in Nepal. Because it focuses on the educational activities of Nepal before and after the establishment of Tribhuvan University, this study discusses how the educational activities of Tribhuvan University have played a significant role not only in educating the people of Nepal but also in actively contributing to and participating in the country's development programs. Education of future leaders, research activities, and public services continue to be the major functions of universities (Mills, 1959), and since its founding in 1959, Tribhuvan University has been involved in just such research and service activities. In other words,
the development and dissemination of advanced knowledge, as well as extensive research and public services, have been the major functions of this university. This concern by the Tribhuvan University of Nepal with the development of the country itself has been clear in its activities and in statements made at different times by its administrators and of the National Education Committee of the Ministry of Education and Culture.

In addition, while a review of the literature on the educational activities of Tribhuvan University indicates that various individuals have done studies on higher education in Nepal in general, none of the studies or books is wholly dedicated to the educational activities of Tribhuvan University. Thus, this dissertation is the first formal, focused study of Tribhuvan University and the first to cover the educational activities of Tribhuvan University in the context of the geophysical, socioeconomic, political, and cultural arena of Nepal before and after the university's establishment. This is the first study to shed light on the role of this university in the development of higher education in Nepal.

Definition of Terms

Certificate Level refers to the first level of higher education in Nepal to produce lower-level technical manpower, as prescribed in the New Education Plan of Nepal.
Diploma Level refers to the second level of higher education, after the completion of the Certificate Level, to produce middle-level technical manpower, as prescribed in New Education Plan of Nepal.

Degree Level refers to the third level of higher education, after the completion of the Certificate and the Diploma levels, to produce high-level technical manpower, as prescribed by the New Education Plan of Nepal.

Gorkha refers to one of the governing and political districts in the zone of Gandaki, west of Kathmandu. The term Gorkha is also commonly attributed to the fighting men of Nepal.

Government refers to His Majesty's Government of Nepal, unless otherwise specified.

Government agencies are those agencies which are administered, managed, budgeted, and controlled by the government. These agencies are financially accountable to the government.

Institute refers to one of the institutes set up under Tribhuvan University to impart higher education in specified disciplines.

King refers to His Majesty, the King of Nepal.

Non-governmental agencies are those agencies which are administered, managed, budgeted, and controlled by private groups or institutions. These agencies are not financially accountable to the government of Nepal.

Panchayat means council or assembly (Gaige, 1975), and refers to a system of administration or governance through councils based on an old and traditional system of village councils. The working theory of the panchayat system is that it provides democracy from below (Hedrick & Hedrick, 1972).

Rupee refers to the unit of Nepalese currency (U.S. $1 = Rs 22.00, approximately).

Tarai refers to the land at the foot of the mountains (Gaige, 1975). Tarai is a narrow strip of flat, fertile land lying slightly above sea level between the Indian frontier and the Siwalik hills (Hedrick & Hedrick, 1972).

Tribhuvan University refers to the university in Nepal which was established in 1959 and named after the late King Tribhuvan Bir Bikram Shaha of Nepal.

Methodology and Procedures

The study was historical in nature, applying a descriptive approach to an examination of the developmental educational activities of Tribhuvan University. This process of historical research, as Best (1959) puts it:
describes what was. It involves investigating, recording, analyzing, and interpreting the events of the past for the purpose of discovering generalizations that are helpful in understanding and predicting the future. The focus of historical research is on change, growth, or development of individuals, groups, practices, movements, institutions, or to go back to primary, original or first hand sources of information. (p. 12)

By means of the historical method, "the process of critically examining and analyzing the records and survivals of the past" (Gottschalk, 1950, p. 48), and of historiography, "the imaginative reconstruction of the past from the data derived by that process" (Gottschalk, 1950, p. 48), this study examined, analyzed, and reconstructed as much of the development of the Tribhuvan University of Nepal as was possible.

The study was accomplished by a systematic and comprehensive search of primary, secondary, and related sources that provided information relating to the establishment, expansion, and development of the programs of Tribhuvan University in Nepal. The primary and secondary sources included the legislative decisions, acts, statutes, regulations, charters, and written and printed materials relating to Tribhuvan University. The secondary sources included books, articles, dissertations, newspapers, reports, and other related materials. Other relevant, selected materials were also used. Where necessary, personal contact was used to verify, validate and supplement information. All sources were cross-verified for validation.
of the historical records to establish accurate dates, facts, and details on educational activities as they related to Tribhuvan University.

Information relating to the historical setting of Nepal was collected from the census reports of 1961, 1971, and 1981. These reports included information on the demographic characteristics of Nepal. In addition, People of Nepal by Bista (1967), A Study in Nepal Economic History, 1768-1946 by Regmi (1971), and Some Aspects of Cultural Policy in Nepal by Amatya (1983) also provided information on the historical setting of Nepal.

The focus of this study, the educational activities of Tribhuvan University, embraced all non-academic as well as academic programs of the university, including all other aspects of the education endeavor involving students, faculty, and the supporting staff. Therefore, information relating to Tribhuvan University and its educational activities was collected from government as well as institutional documents. The following documents provided information on the policies, programs, and other related activities of Tribhuvan University.

1. Report of the National Education Planning Commission (1956);
2. Tribhuvan University Act of 1959;
3. Tribhuvan University Act of 1971;
4. The National Planning Commission's Five-Year Plans:
   First Five-Year Plan (1957-62),
   Second Three-Year Plan (1962-65),
   Third Five-Year Plan (1965-70),
   Fourth Five-Year Plan (1970-75),
   Fifth Five-Year Plan (1975-80),
   Sixth Five-Year Plan (1980-85);
6. Tribhuvan University Budget Reports from 1959 to 1985;
7. Tribhuvan University Statutes from 1959 to 1985;
8. Tribhuvan University Regulations from 1959 to 1985; and the
9. Tribhuvan University Catalog.

In addition, information relating to Tribhuvan University and its educational activities was collected from the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), United States Department of Human Services, United States Agency for International Development (USAID), United States Information Service (USIS), and the Ford Foundation, which have all been involved in the development and operation of Tribhuvan University in Nepal.
CHAPTER II

DEMOGRAPHIC, CULTURAL, AND HISTORICAL SETTINGS OF NEPAL

Nepal's diverse geographic, cultural, and historical contexts make it a country attractive to a variety of peoples. To the world at large, Nepal is often known as the country of shangri-la, snowmen, yeti, the brave Gurkha warriors, and the tallest peak in the world, Mt. Everest. The fine hunting, tracking, and touring landscapes of Nepal make it attractive to visitors from far outside its borders.

Nepal also embraces a multiplicity of cultures within its borders. Religiously, for example, Nepal is home to Hinduism, Buddhism, and Islam. The birthplace of the Hindu gods Brahma, Bishnu, Maheswar, Krishna, and Rama, Nepal is also home to The Pashupati Nath Temple, built by King Sumati Jaya Malla in 1682 A.D., which has attracted millions of Hindus over the years (Hedrick & Hedrick, 1972). The temple itself, according to John Sanday (1982), dates from 1696, but its history goes back to 1359 A.D. when Shivalinga was reestablished on the present site in the Kathmandu Valley. Many Hindus believe that one visit to the Pushupati Temple will help the visitor receive heaven. Similarly, Lumbini, the birthplace of Buddha in West Nepal, attracts millions of Buddhists each year. The rich cultural heritage suggested
by these details indicates that a closer look at the land, people, and culture of Nepal will shed light on its historical development.

The Land, People, and Culture

Nepal is an independent country situated between two countries in Asia: India on the South, East, and West, and China on the North. Located on the southern slopes of the Himalayas, extending from $26^\circ 15'$ to $30^\circ 30'$ north latitude and from $80^\circ$ to $88^\circ 15'$ east longitude (Ministry of Health, 1983), Nepal, about the size of the state of Illinois, occupies a total area of 140,640 square kilometers.

Geophysically, Nepal is a land of great diversity. Dense forests, rich rice-clad valleys and plains, black alpine highlands, and towering snowpeaks create a varied and unique topography (Karan & Jenkins, 1963) (See Appendices A and B). Based on this geophysical structure, Nepal is divided into the following three geographical regions: (a) the mountain regions, (b) the hill region, and (c) the plain region (Rose & Scholz, 1980).

The mountain region lies in the northern part of the country at altitudes above 12,000 feet. This region covers about 35 percent of the total land area. The high Himalayan region is always covered with snow, and the snowline is 17,500 feet above sea level. The Great Himalaya Range, ranging in elevation from 14,000 feet to more than 29,000
feet, contains eight of the world's ten highest peaks—Mt. Everest, Kanchanjunga, Lhotse, Makalu, Dhaulagiri, Manaslu, Chooyu, and Annapurna (Nepal, 1987a)—all of which are above 26,000 feet above sea level. Large rivers like the Koshi, the Gandaki, and the Karnali flow from this region to the southern part of the country. Since the climate is quite cold and the land is not suitable for cultivation, this region is thinly populated.

The hill region occupies the largest portion of the country's land. With an altitude varying from 1,000 feet to 12,000 feet above sea level, this region includes two mountain ranges: the Churia Hills and the Mahabharat Range. The Churia Hills range from 2,000 to 3,000 feet above sea level, and the Mahabharat Hills range from some 50 miles in width with an elevation of 8,000 to 14,000 feet above sea level (Nepal, 1987a). Kathmandu, the capital city of the country, is located in this region. The important cities of Pokhara, Surkhet, Dipayal and Dharkuta are also located in this region, which is heavily populated.

The plain region is the lowland area located in the southern part of the country. This region occupies about 17 percent of the total land area of Nepal, with altitudes varying from 200 feet to 1000 feet above sea level. The Terai is a low, flat, and fertile land extending between 16 to 20 miles from the Mahakali river in the west to the Mechi
river in the east (Nepal, 1987a). The Charkose Jhari is eight miles of forest belt, including many kinds of wild animals. This region is quite fertile.

Politically, Nepal has been an independent country. Although its political history extends back prior to 1768, Nepal has been a kingdom under the Shaha dynasty from 1768 to the present time. In terms of political power and authority, Nepal's political history can be divided into the following periods: (a) royal supremacy from 1768 to 1845, (b) Ranacracy from 1846 to 1950, (c) non-elected governments based on democracy from 1951 to 1959, (d) parliamentary democracy from 1959 to 1960, and (e) panchayat democracy under the royal leadership from 1961 to the present time.

The first written constitution was delivered by the Rana prime minister, Padma Shamser, in 1948 (Baral, 1977). But since the constitution recognized the premiership in the Rana family, King Tribhuvan, the political leaders, and the people who opposed the Rana rule did not accept this constitution. The second written constitution was adapted in 1951 after the end of the Rana rule. The constitution of 1951 marked the beginning of an independent constitutional kingdom. In 1959, a new, revised constitution was adopted (Chauhan, 1971). The Constitution of 1959 provided for two houses: Pratinidhi Sabha (the house of representatives) and Rajya Sabha (the council of states). However, on December 15, 1960, King Mahendra invoked Article 55 of the
Constitution of 1959 and dissolved the cabinet and the parliament (Chauhan, 1971). King Mahendra then assumed the entire responsibility of administering the country. Later, in 1962, a new constitution based on the Hindu ideology which states that authority should be vested in the King was adopted. This constitution adopted the panchayat system of government based on partyless, one house, and indirect election characteristics. Nepal is now currently adapting the Constitution of 1962, and is divided into five developmental regions, 14 administrative zones, 75 political districts, and about 5,000 town and village assemblies (Ministry of Health, 1983). (Appendix C provides maps of political divisions.)

Economically, Nepal is an agricultural country, with agriculture providing the main source of living for more than 95 percent of the total population in Nepal. However, agriculture engages most of Nepal's population and accounts for more than 50 percent of the country's exports (Nepal, 1987b). Only one fourth of the total land of Nepal is cultivable (Pant, 1962). This has limited the prospect for agricultural expansion.

Regional differences in economic development and uneven distribution of national and local resources can be attributed to the lack of adequate means of growth and development in Nepal (Poudel, 1977). Nepal is a landlocked
country and lacks resources for economic development. For example, Nepal's mineral resources are small, scattered, and barely developed. Therefore, trade and industry have been a concern for Nepal from the beginning. Jute, sugar, and cigarette factories are some of the major industries. Others include rice, oil mills, brick, tile, paper construction materials, food, grain, beer, and liquor production. Tourism also represents a small but rapidly expanding industry.

Despite these industries, almost 50 percent of the developmental budget of Nepal comes from external sources. Although Nepal's main trade partner is India, attempts have been made to develop and expand trade with Pakistan, Bangladesh, the United States, Poland, China, and the Soviet Union, as well (Nepal, 1987b). In fact, Nepal has opened the door for trade and economic cooperation with all the countries in the Asian region, Middle East, Europe, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand.

The total population of Nepal is over 15 million (Ministry of Health, 1983). According to the 1981 population census, the annual rate of increase of population in Nepal has been 2.66. If this rate of increase continues, Nepal will face an additional 15 million people in less than 30 years. Structurally, Nepal's population forms a wide-based pyramid, with 41 percent of the population 0-14 years
old, 53.7 percent 15-49 years old, and 5.3 percent 50 years old and above (Central Bureau of Statistics, 1974).

It has been reported that the first official census was conducted in 1911. Thereafter, a population census was carried out every ten years. However, the population census was carried out on a scientific and systematic basis only after the 1952-54 census. The total recorded population in different population censuses since 1911 is given in Table 1.

Table 1 indicates that there has been a growing trend in population only after 1941. The growth rates have increased from 1.7 in 1961 to 2.1 in 1971 and 2.66 in 1981. Table 2 indicates the area and population by developmental regions, showing that the Tarai regions in the east and central part of the country are heavily populated compared to the Western Tarai region.

A high percentage of the Nepalese population is illiterate. The literacy rate was less than 30 percent up until 1985. Today, 78.6 percent of the primary age children and 21.4 percent of secondary age children are attending the schools. (United States Government, Bureau of Public Affairs, 1987). Currently, Nepal has one university and approximately 60 colleges.
Table 1

Population Growth of Nepal Since 1911

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Census Year</th>
<th>Total Population</th>
<th>Intercensal Increase</th>
<th>% Increase</th>
<th>Average Annual Growth Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>5,638,749</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920</td>
<td>5,573,788</td>
<td>64.961</td>
<td>-1.2</td>
<td>-0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930</td>
<td>5,532,574</td>
<td>41.214</td>
<td>-0.7</td>
<td>-0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1941</td>
<td>6,283,648</td>
<td>751.075</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1952-53</td>
<td>8,256,625</td>
<td>1972.976</td>
<td>31.4</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>9,412,996</td>
<td>1156.371</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>11,555,983</td>
<td>2142.987</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>15,020,451</td>
<td>3464.468</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>2.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Developmental Regions</th>
<th>Capitals</th>
<th>Area Sq. Miles</th>
<th>Population 1981 Census</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Mountain Hill</td>
<td>Dhankuta</td>
<td>10,987</td>
<td>3,708,923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>338,439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1,257,042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2,113,442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Mountain Hill</td>
<td>Kathmandu</td>
<td>10,583</td>
<td>4,909,357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>413,143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2,108,433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2,387,781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Mountain Hill</td>
<td>Pokhara</td>
<td>11,351</td>
<td>3,128,859</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19,951</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2,159,939</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>957,969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Midwestern Mountain Hill</td>
<td>Surkhet</td>
<td>16,362</td>
<td>9,955,611</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>242,486</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1,042,365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>670,760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Far Western Mountain Hill</td>
<td>Dipayal</td>
<td>7,544</td>
<td>1,320,089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>288,877</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>604,336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>426,876</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>56,827</strong></td>
<td><strong>15,022,839</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1,200 high schools, and 11,000 primary schools (UNESCO, Regional office, 1984b; Agrawal, 1974). With regard to higher education institutions, the number of colleges grew from 2 in 1951 to 33 in 1961. There were 49 colleges in 1970 before the implementation of the New Education Plan of 1971 (Agrawal, 1974).

The population of Nepal, which consists of mainly Mongoloid groups that migrated from Tibet and of Indo-Aryan people from Northern India, has produced a diverse linguistic, ethnic, and religious pattern. The Nepalese Indo-Aryan ancestry comprised the people of the Southern plains, and Mongoloid groups settled along the northern border with the Tibet province of mainland China. According to the population settlement pattern, Nepal can be classified into: (a) the Tarai people, (b) the middle hill and valley people, and (c) the northern border people.

The Tarai people, who live in the southern part of Nepal, consist of Brahmin, Rajput, Tharu, Danuwar, Majhi, Dorai, Rajbansi, Bado, Dhimal, Satar, and Musalman groups (Bista, 1967). The culture and traditions of the Tarai people have been close to those of the Indian people residing across the southern borders.

The Brahmin and Chhetry populations, which comprise the dominant group of people in all aspects of Nepalese life, live in the middle hills and valleys of Nepal. In addition
to the Brahmin and Chhetry groups, Newar, Kirati, Tamang, Magar, Susnwar, Gurung, Thakali, Panchgaunle, and Chepang also live in the middle hills and valleys. Historical accounts state that the Brahmin community, one of the dominant castes, came to Nepal from India for the first time during the 12th century when they were dislodged by the Muslim rulers in many parts of India (Bista, 1967). In Nepal, the Brahmin first met the Khas, the predominant race in the West of Nepal, and the Khas and Brahmin shared their cultures, traditions, and languages with each other. The Khas were given a title called Chhetry, which was next to the Brahmin caste. Newar, the next most dominant group, lived mostly in the Kathmandu valley.

The entire northern border of Nepal is with the Tibet province of mainland China. The northern border people include Sherpa, Bhole, Lhomi, Thundam, Topke, Gala, Tamor Valley, Lopa of Mustang, Baragaunle, Dolpo, Mangba, and Larke people (Bista, 1967). Their settlements range between 5,000 feet to 16,000 feet above sea level (See Table 3).

Religiously, Nepal is one of the Hindu countries of the world with more than 89 percent of the total population subscribing to Hinduism. Nine percent of the total population is Buddhist, while Christians and Muslims form a total of less than 3 percent of the total population (Ministry of Health, 1983). The distribution of religions according to the census of 1971 is given in Table 4.
Table 3

**Major Ethnic Groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major Group</th>
<th>Sub-Groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Northern Border People</td>
<td>1. Sherpa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Topke Gala People</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Tamor Valley People</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Lopa of Mustang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Baragaunle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Dolpo People</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Manangba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Larke People</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Middle Hill and Valley People</td>
<td>1. Brahmin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Chhetry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Newar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Kirati</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Rai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Anrung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Magar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Limbu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Sunwar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. Phakali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11. Chepang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12. Panchgaunle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13. Jerel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14. Tamang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Tarai People</td>
<td>1. Rajput</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Majhi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Maru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Danwar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Dhimal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Bodo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Rajbansi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Sarat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Darie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. Musalman</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4
Religious Distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regions</th>
<th>Populations</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hinduism</td>
<td>10,330,000</td>
<td>89.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buddhism</td>
<td>867,000</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islam</td>
<td>7,983</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>351,000</td>
<td>3.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Religious distribution is also given in the map of Nepal (see Appendix D).

The spread of Hindu civilization throughout most of South Asia has taken place over many centuries. An important aspect of this process has been the manner in which the Hindus have interacted with the local communities. Military conquest and migration for various reasons have contributed to the spread of the Hindu religion in Nepal (Caplan, 1970). Since Nepal has been declared a Hindu kingdom, the philosophy, principles, and practices of the Hindu religion have had great influences in the political, socio-economic, and educational life of Nepal.

Hinduism evolved over a period of thousands of years mainly from the Vedas, hymns composed by the ancient aryans to propitiate their gods. The social and traditional system followed by the Aryans later became the basis for the caste
system. The Brahmins, the priestly class, were regarded as the custodians for Sanskrit education, responsible for performing all religious ceremonies. After Brahmins came the Kshatriyas, who were regarded as the rulers or warriors, followed by the Vaishayyas, or the merchants, traders, and farmers. According to R. Sharma (1983), at the bottom of the caste structure were the Sadras, a non-touchable caste created for the purpose of serving all of the three upper castes.

The Hindu philosophy is based on Karma, the acceptance of reincarnation, on Maya, the belief that all worldly life is mere illusion, and on the Moksha, or the possibility of attaining life by freeing oneself from the endless cycle of birth and rebirth. In addition, the principal Hindu epics, Ramayan and Mahabharat, govern the entire moral, ethical, and religious thinking and practices of the Sect (Sharma, 1983).

Although Nepali is considered to be the country's official language of communication, only 52 percent of the total population view it as their mother tongue. The languages spoken by the people vary according to the area and correspond to the languages spoken in the neighboring parts of India to the south and Tibet to the north. Second to Nepali is the Maithili language, which is spoken by 11 percent of the people. The Bhojpuri is the third major language, spoken by 7 percent of the total population.
(Ministry of Health, 1983). Besides these, the Newari and Hindi languages are also spoken in Nepal.

The East Tarai people speak Bengai, Maithili, and Bhojpuri, and West Tarai people speak mainly Hindi and Urdu (Bista, 1967). According to the census of Nepal in 1961, 51 percent of the total population in Eastern Tarai speak Maithili, 26.1 percent speak Bhojpuri, and 4 percent speak Tharu language. Similarly, 75 percent of the people in the Midwestern Tarai speak Bhojpuri, 9 percent speak Awadhi and 5.9 percent speak Tharu language. However, more than 62 percent of the population in the far Western Tarai speak the Tharu language, followed by 31.8 percent who speak Awadhi (Department of Statistics, 1961).

Brahmin, Chhetry, and most occupational caste people who live in the middle hills and valleys speak the Nepali language. The Newar people, who are regarded as the indigenous inhabitants of the Kathmandu valley, speak the Newari language. In addition, a number of other languages and dialects are spoken by the people in the middle hills and valleys. These include the Kirati, Lindel Tamang, Gurung, and Chepag languages (Bista, 1967). Magars throughout the country speak a Tibeto-Burman dialect called Magarkura (Hitchcock, 1980).

The Northern border population, which includes Sherpa, Lhomi, Thundam, Lopa, Baragaunle, Dolpo, Manangla, and Larke
peoples, speaks mainly Tibetan, Sherpa, and other dialects.

As has been shown, Nepal is comprised of a diversity of ethnic groups (about 75 of them), languages, and traditions. For at least two millennia, Nepal has offered shelters to migrants, primarily of either Mongoloid or Indo-Aryan origin. The ethnic identity of most Nepali people is apparent by their dress, language, habits, and facial features. Traditionally, each Nepali individual identifies himself or herself with the name of his or her ethnic group, but, in fact, few groups have lived in complete isolation. Many of these ethnic groups have shared their values and traditions, with a great deal of social interaction, economic interdependence, and cultural reciprocity among the various ethnic groups (Bista, 1967).

Despite its many ethnic groups with different cultures, languages, and traditions, Nepalese people can be divided into two categories: (a) those who speak Tibeto-Burman languages, have Mongolian facial features, live at higher altitudes in the northern parts of the country, and observe and practice the Buddhist religion, and (b) those who speak Sanskrit-derived languages, have Indo-Aryan features, live at lower elevations in the southern regions, and practice the Hindu religion (Rose & Scholz, 1980).

The Tibeto-Burman groups are believed to have migrated at various times from the East and from the North, including the Tibet province of mainland China. These groups comprise
approximately 45 percent of the total population of the country. The Newars, who primarily settled in the Kathmandu valley, were involved in trades and scattered in all parts of the country.

Raies, another of the Tibeto-Burman groups, settled in the middle of the Eastern hill country. Limbus, yet another such group, settled in the far East hill region. The Tamang group settled in the central hills and the Sherpas in the Northwest part of the country. Two other major Tibeto-Burman groups, the Gurung and the Magars, settled in the Western hill country and in the Southwest of the country, respectively. In this way, all of the hill and mountain regions of the country were settled by the Tibeto-Burman ethnic groups.

The most important of the Indo-Aryan groups in Nepal are the Brahmin and Chhetries, who are still regarded as the most influential, educated, elite groups in the country. The Tarai people, who comprise approximately 25 percent of the country's total population, consist of Indo-Aryan groups such as Brahmin, Rajput, Tharu, Danwar, Majhi, Darie, Rajbansi, Dhimal, and Satar. Table 3 presents Nepal's ethnic groups by regional classification (also see Appendix E).
Historical Development

Historically, Nepal has undergone several political, social, economic, and demographic changes. A review of the literature on the historical development of Nepal indicates the following major periods: (a) the early period (before 1767), (b) the period of political unification (1768-1845), (c) the period of Ranacrac (1846-1950), and (d) the post-independent era (1951-1985).

The Early Period (before 1767)

Archaeological as well as anthropological discoveries in Nepal have proven the existence of mankind in the Nepalese territory for several thousands of years. In Eastern Nepal, Janakpure, the place of Goddess Seeta (Ram's wife), has linked Nepalese history with the great Hindu epic Ramayan (Amatya, 1983). Places like Butawal (Lumbini), Kot-Tandi (Nawalpure), and Tilaurakot (Kapilbastu) also have been linked with the history of Nepal. The records, artifacts and printed grayware sites discovered in these places can be dated approximately from the ninth to the sixth centuries B.C.

Although Nepal's history goes back to the pre-historic era, Prithwi Narayan Shaha, a King of Gorkha, united several principalities and established the country of Nepal in 1768. There were four principalities in the Kathmandu valley alone, which was what was known as Nepal before 1767. These
principalities, Kathmandu, Patan, Bhadgoun, and Kirtipure, were ruled by different royal dynasties. The recorded history of Nepal has been dominated by that of the Kathmandu valley from the earliest times. Kathmandu has been the central part of Nepal’s history in terms of political as well as cultural factors.

Chronicles and legends speak of many ruling dynasties in the Kathmandu valley, whose authenticity has not yet been proven by facts. Stories speak about Gopals, Mahisapalas, and Kiratis, all of whom were believed to have lived in the Kathmandu valley at different times. However, the first authentic record of the Lichivis rule in the fifth century B.C. are the pillar-inscriptions of Mana dev in Changu Narayan of Kathmandu (Amatya, 1983).

The rule of the Kshatriya King Amsu Varma around the seventh century A.D. was very important in the history of Nepal. Chinese and Tibetan history also mentions Amsu Varma as a very prosperous ruler in Nepal. Bhrikuti, daughter of Amsu Varma, was married with Strong-Tsan Gampo, the well known ruler of Tibet (Amatya, 1983). Some of the Lichivi rulers, Mana Dev, Amsu Varma, and Narendra Deva, were the known heroes of Nepal during the fourth to the seventh centuries A.D. (Hedrick & Hedrick, 1972).

Around 1200 A.D., a new dynasty of Malla rule came to power in the Kathmadu valley (Amatya, 1983; Hedrick & Hedrick, 1972). The Malla dynasty had contributed to the
development of art and culture as well as to political, social, and economic stability. However, towards the end of the 15th century A.D., the kingdom of Nepal was divided into 3 principalities by the sons of Yakshya Malla. Control over the Tibetan trade, interstate strife, and misunderstanding were regarded as the main reasons for this division. Thus, historically, before 1768 the territory of the present kingdom of Nepal was divided into a number of principalities, each ruled by a king. There were more than 46 such principalities west of Kathmandu, the present capital city of Nepal (Regmi, 1971). Similarly, the land east of Kathmandu was also divided into several principalities. Kathmandu itself was divided into four major principalities: Kantipure, Patan, Bhaktapur, and Kirtipur.

Before 1616 many western and northern places were ruled by local tribal chieftains. Gorkha, for example, was ruled by the Magar chieftain. In 1616, a prince of the royal dynasty of Lamjung supplanted the Magar chieftain of Gorkha and established a new Hindu kingdom of Gorkha (Regmi, 1971). Gorkha during this period was a relatively poor state. Francis Hamilton (1819) wrote

The chiefs of Gorkha being cut off from any direct communication with either the low country or Tibet and having no mines nor other productions as basis for commerce, were considered as insignificant. (p. 245)
The Gorkha kingdom was surrounded by rich and powerful kingdoms like Kaski, Lumjung and Tanahu in the west and south, and Newakot, Rasuwa and Kathmandu in the north and east. On April 3, 1743, Prithwi Narayan Shaha, at the age of 20, became the King of Gorkha (Regmi, 1971). From the very beginning, Prithwi Narayan Shaha was interested in conquering the Kathmandu valley and the neighboring states. The kingdom of Newakot was finally annexed in 1744, which forced the rulers of the Kathmandu valley to accept the trade route with Tibet set by the Gorkha state. Prithwi Narayan Shaha next annexed the Sindhu palchok and Kabre Palchock states in 1748. He then conquered Makawanpure, in September of 1762, in the southeast region of Gorkha. These conquests prepared the way for Prithivi Narayan Shaha's final capturing of the Kathmandu valley, which he accomplished with a takeover of Kirtipure in March of 1768, thus establishing his superiority in the valley. He then took control of Patan, Kathmandu, and Bhadgoun in 1768 (Regmi, 1971). Prithwi Narayan Shaha immediately shifted his capital from Gorkha to Kathmandu and thus laid the foundation of the present kingdom of Nepal (Rose & Scholz, 1980).

The Period of Political Unification (1768-1845)

The period between 1768 and 1845 marked the expansion and political unification of Nepal. By 1768, Prithwi
Narayan Shaha had already annexed the Rasuwa, Nuwakot, Sindhu Pal Chok, Kabre Pal Chok, Patan, Bhadgoun, Kirtipure, and Kathmandu states. After 1768, Prithwi Narayan Shaha continued his conquests, diverting his entire attention to the southwest, out of fear that the new kingdom might fall apart to the rising British power in India. In a very short time, Prithwi Narayan Shaha successfully annexed all the kingdoms and extended his territory to the Kankai river in the plains and to Sikkim in the north (Amatya, 1983).

The establishment of the Kingdom of Nepal was thus due, primarily, to the nationalist spirit of Prithwi Narayan Shaha. He always dreamed of one great nation and devoted his life to establishing it. He was a man of great courage and determination.

Prithwi Narayan Shaha always believed that the country's progress and security would be assured if it was kept free from the influence of European and other colonialists (Regmi, 1971). Although he was successful in political unification by annexing several states, there were several obstacles in bringing all kinds of people together for common national goals.

Social policies of this time were designed to reinforce the existing caste system. Prithwi Narayan Shaha declared Nepal to be the land of Hindu with 4 varnas and 36 castes (Gupta, 1964). The four varnas included Brahmin, Chhetry, Baisya, and Sudra. Prithwi Narayan recognized the supremacy
of the Brahmins and granted them immunity from capital
punishment. Birtas and Guthi (endowments) were created
exclusively for religious purposes, with Brahmins placed in
charge of such endowments.

At the time of his death in 1775, Prithwi Narayan Shaha
had already annexed the whole of the eastern plains (Morang,
Sunsari, Jhapa, Saptari, Siraha, Sarlachi Mahohari, Dhanusha,
Bara, Parsa, and Rautahat), the eastern and central areas,
inner Tarai (Sidhuli, Udayapru, Chisapani, and Makwanpura),
the whole of the Kathmandu valley (Patan, Bhadgoun,
Kirtipur, and the Kathmandu), the eastern hill region up to
the Tista River bordering Sikkim, and a small part of the
western hill region (Newakot, Dhading, Gorkha, and Jajarkot)
(Regmi, 1971).

After the death of Prithwi Narayan Shaha, attempts to
expand and unify the country continued under his successor,
Bahadure Shaha (Gupta, 1964). By 1789, the Choubise and
Baise principalities in the western region had all been
annexed and thus the frontier extended to the Mahakali river
in the west (Regmi, 1971). By the end of the eighteenth
century, a new border of Nepal reached to the Mahakali river
in the west and Tista river in the east (Amatya, 1983).
However, Nepal fought a war with China in 1791, and the
issue was settled by an agreement that Nepal would not move
to the north beyond the existing northern boundary.
Afterwards, Nepal gave up the idea of the north, south, and
east and focused its strength instead on conquering several states in the west beyond the Mahakali river.

During this expansion, Nepal was involved in a conflict with British power in the south and with Sikh troops in the west. This conflict was settled in 1816 in an agreement called the Treaty of Sugauli. According to this treaty, Nepal lost all of its conquests beyond the Mahakali River in the west and the Mechi river in the east (Amatya, 1983). Appendix F indicates these losses as well as the present territory of Nepal as it was settled in 1816. Thus, the expansion of the territory stopped and rulers organized their forces for the unification of the country by combining the socio-economic and political components within the country. One unfortunate result of the Anglo-Nepal conflict was that it led indirectly to a weakening of royal power and authority and to the rise of the nobility. Historical accounts indicate that prime ministers Bhimsen Shapa, from 1811 to 1839, and Mathabar Singh Thapa, from 1843 to 1846, were particularly powerful (Hedrick & Hedrick, 1972). After Mathabar Shing Thapa, Junga Bahadur Rana, one of the noble family members, came to power and established the hereditary premiership of the Rana family in 1846.

The Period of Ranaocracy (1846-1950)

When Junga Bahadure Rana established the inherited premiership in Nepal in 1846, the whole effort of the Rana
ruler and his family members was devoted to maintaining their authority over the king as well as over the people of Nepal. Jung Bahadure Rana institutionalized the Rana family as a part of the political structure in Nepal, a feat achieved in 1856 when King Surendra Shaha reluctantly submitted to the hereditary premiership of the Rana family (Rose & Fisher, 1970). The Royal Decree of 1856 provided the legal basis for the Rana rule, granting Jung Bahadure and his successors absolute authority in civil and military administration, justice, and foreign relations (Rose & Fisher, 1970). Another important feature of the 1856 Royal Decree included the proclamation that the Rana prime ministers had the right to ignore the commands of the king if the commands were perceived to be contrary to the national interests or were considered inappropriate. In return for this Royal Decree of 1856, the Shaha kings were styled by the title of "Maharaja Dhiraj" (king of kings) with no sovereign powers.

Prime Minister Jung Bahadure Rana spent most of his remaining time in developing schemes for maintaining the power and authority he had captured from the king. The number of Rana family members grew gradually, and some members of the Rana family expressed their dissatisfaction in the arrangements for Rana successors. To overcome this problem, Chandra Shamsher, another Rana prime minister in
the early part of the twentieth century (1903-1929),
introduced the class system which divided all Rana family
into A, B, and C categories based on marital status (Rose &
Fisher, 1970). Thus, each male member of the Rana family
was given a rank based on his A, B, or C class.

The A class was composed of children of Ranas and wives
of equally high-caste families. They were allowed to dine
with the Ranas. A male of class A Rana would automatically
become major general at age of 21. Then, he could advance
to commander-in-chief. Mothers in the B class Rana were
legitimate wives but with families of good caste though not
high caste. The families of B class Ranas were allowed to
take part in Rana social occasions but were not allowed to
dine with the Ranas of higher caste. The male B class ranas
became lieutenant colonels at age 21 but could never rise
above the rank of full colonel. However, the offspring in
the C class were born to mistresses, whose families, being
of the lower caste, were not allowed to dine with the Rana
at all. The C class Ranas were not permitted to hold any
significant high rank in the Rana administration.

However, since class C Rana family members were at the
bottom of the ranking scale and were not allowed to hold any
position in the administration, they were dissatisfied with
the Rana rulers. This forced Juddha Shame Sher Rana to
remove all C class Ranas from the roll in 1934. Juddha
Shamsher Rana then appointed all C class Ranas to positions
in the district administration outside the capital city (Rose & Fisher, 1970). The policy of Juddha Shamsher Rana to send all C class Rana outside the city did work for a while, but many of the C class Ranas eventually joined with other political leaders of Nepal to overthrow the Rana rule in 1951.

All of the nine Rana prime ministers (see Table 5) and their families regarded the whole country as their private property (Hedrick & Hedrick, 1972). The Rana family was organized as an administrative structure, the eldest male being the Maharaja (prime minister), the second in line the commander-in-chief of the armed forces, and so forth down to any office of significance. There was no civil service as such. All of the 30 administrative districts were administered and controlled by the Rana Badahakim (great officers).

Rana relationships with the public were worse than a master-servant relationship. The public was supposed to obey them without question. The Rana rulers held the belief that they could rule the country as long as the people remained ignorant and subservient to the established authority. For them, therefore, education for the public could be dangerous and was forbidden. Transportation and communication were also virtually absent. Public services were not developed, and the Rana rule was
Table 5

Rana Prime Ministers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jung Bahadure Rana</td>
<td>1848-1877</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ranodeep Singh</td>
<td>1877-1884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bir Shamser Rana</td>
<td>1885-1901</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dev Shamser Rana</td>
<td>1902-1902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chandra Shamser Rana</td>
<td>1903-1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhim Shamser Rana</td>
<td>1929-1933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judha Shamser Rana</td>
<td>1933-1946</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Padma Shamser Rana</td>
<td>1946-1948</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mohan Shamser Rana</td>
<td>1948-1951</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Source: Hedrick and Hedrick, 1972, p. 133.

characterized by the lack of any economic and political infrastructure. Sharma lists the main characteristics of the Rana period as involving: (a) usurpation of power from the king, (b) conception of the state as a private state, (c) organization as an administrative structure, (d) opposition to public education, (e) top-down or one-way communication, (f) a master-servant relationship with the public, and (g) the inability of the public to hold any significant position in the administration (Sharma, 1983).

The crisis of the Rana dictatorship began in Nepal during the 1930s when some political organizations began to oppose the family's existing regime. However, during Juddha Shamsher's period (1933-1946) opposing leaders like Dharma Bhakta, Dasrath Chand, Ganga Lal, and Sukra Raj Shastri were
executed by the Ranas (Hedrick & Hedrick, 1972; Sharma, 1984).

Anti-Rana activity was carried on by the Nepali youth who were aware of the democratic movement in India. The work of the underground organization (praja parishad) established in Kathmandu in 1936 was one such example of anti-Rana activity (Baral, 1977). The praja parishad movement, according to Lok Raj Baral (1977) had three distinctive features: (a) it was the first organized movement by the people against the Rana, (b) it indicated the beginning of a new opposition tradition in the history of Nepal, and (c) it showed that in an autocratic regime, where peaceful means of political opposition were outlawed, a violent method was the only means to overthrow it.

The anti-Rana movement was further strengthened when the Nepali Congress party was established in 1947. The prime minister at that time, Padma Shamsher, felt pressure, both internally from the anti-Rana movement, and externally from the new government in India. As a result, he provided a written constitution in 1948 with limited or restricted fundamental rights, still maintaining the chief role of Ranas in the system. Although this constitution was never fully realized and implemented, on January 26, 1948, Padma Shamser Rana, Prime Minister, promulgated the first written constitution of Nepal, the Government of Nepal Act, 1948 (Chauhan, 1971).
Another gesture in the direction of planned economic development was made during the closing years of the Rana regime. In 1949, a National Planning Board was established and instructed to prepare a 15-year plan (Rose & Fisher, 1970). However, this board disappeared after the end of the Rana rule in 1951.

The revolt of 1950 against the Rana regime involved a concerted effort by several factions in the country. Some of the prominent C class Ranas like Subarna Shamser Rana and Mahabir Shamser Rana joined the Nepali Democratic Congress with a view to overthrowing the Ranacracy, then under the rule of Mohan Shamser Rana, who succeeded Padma Shamser Rana in 1948. In 1950, the Nepali National Congress and Nepali Democratic Congress parties merged with the Nepali Congress Party, which resulted in a very strong, popular, and united anti-Rana movement.

King Tribhuvan, sensing the unrest, fled to India with all the members of the Royal family on November 6, 1950 (Baral, 1977). This event gave the Nepali Congress an opportunity to start an armed insurrection against the Rana rule. The congress launched attacks on several government headquarters in the Tarai (Chatterji, 1967).

To justify and continue existing Rana rule, Mohan Shamser Rana even proclaimed Prince Gyanendra the King of Nepal. Despite all possible measures taken by the Rana prime
minister to restore peace in the country, however, Mohan Shamser was finally pressured to submit to the king and the people of Nepal. On January 8, 1951, Mohan Shamser announced the following reformatory measures:

1. The setting up of a duly elected constituent assembly no later than 1952;
2. Recognition of King Tribhuvan as the King of Nepal;
3. Formation of an interim cabinet comprising 14 members, 7 of which would be popular representatives;
4. Amnesty to all political prisoners; and
5. Freedom to political parties to operate within the bounds of law (DevKota, 1960).

It was on February 18, 1951, after the agreement among King Tribhuvan, the Indian government and the revolting political parties, mainly the Nepali Congress, on the proposed measures made by Mohan Shamsher Rana, that the Tribhuvan Bir Bikrau Shaha appointed a new government. Tribhuvan's Royal proclamation on February 18, 1951, officially terminated the 104 years of Rana monopoly of political power and this, in fact, was the beginning of a modern and independent kingdom of Nepal.

The Post Independent Era (1951-1985)

Nepal's first constitution was based on the democratic principles of the Interim Government of Nepal Act of 1951 after the country's inherited Rana dictatorship came to an
end (Shaha, 1982). The people, the political parties and their leaders, and the king of Nepal had all contributed to the establishment of a new Nepal. Politically, Nepal went through several changes from 1951 to 1985. A review of the literature on the historical development of Nepal indicates the following phases of the post-independent era: (a) the period of political instability (1951-59), (b) the parliamentary system (1959-1961), (c) the emergence of the panchayat system (1962-1980), and (d) the post-referendum era (1981-1985).

The period of political instability (1951-59). The collapse of the Ranacray in 1951 cleared the way for some basic changes in the political institutions and processes in Nepal. However, inter-party rivalry, intrigues by the Ranas, political confusion, the politics of opportunism, and a conflict between the king and the political leaders were common characteristics of the political life in Nepal between 1951 and 1959 (Chauhan, 1971). In other words, the basic feature of this period was political innovation and instability. Frequent changes in the cabinet (see Table 6) between 1951 and 1959 indicated such political instability.

The role of the king, according to the Constitution of 1951, was relatively liberal. The increasing struggle for power among the political leaders forced King Tribuvan to make several amendments in the Constitution of 1951. The Amendment of the Constitution in 1954 stated that
Table 6

List of Cabinets (1951-1958)

1. The Rana-Congress Coalition, February 18, 1951.

2. The Nepali Congress Cabinet under the Prime Ministership of M.P. Koirala, November 16, 1951.

3. The Royal Councillors' government, headed by the King, August 14, 1952.


5. The National Coalition Cabinet, under the Prime Ministership of M.P. Koirala, February 18, 1954.


the inherent sovereignty of the monarch and his special prerogatives over the executive, legislative, and judicial wings as the supreme head have been handed over to us by the tradition and custom of the country . . . . The supreme authority of all affairs now rests on us. (Nepal Gazette, v.s. 2011, p. 123-6)

A year after this, King Tribhuvan died and his son, King Mahendra, succeeded him. In view of the existing political instability, King Mahendra considered it his exclusive prerogative to award the constitution of the
kingdom of Nepal as a royal gift to the people. The constitution provided the provision of a parliamentary type of government responsible to the elected members. But it was difficult to see how this would bring stability in terms of the power between the king and the government. The preamble of the constitution mentioned "the efficient monarchical form of government responsible to the wishes of the people" (Constitution of Nepal, 1959, Preamble). This constitution provided for a wide range of powers to be held by the king. Article 55 of the constitution, for example, provided him supreme power and authority over the elected prime minister and the parliament.

In spite of political instability, the period between 1951 and 1959 indicated the establishment of the basic political as well as economic infrastructure of the country. This period could be characterized as follows:

1. Various ministries were established and were put in charge of developing plans and programs in their respective areas.

2. Public education from elementary to the higher levels was reorganized and expanded. Hundreds of primary and secondary schools were established in different parts of the country. Several public as well as private colleges were also established.

3. Health and social services were made available for all Nepali people irrespective of caste and creeds.

5. During this period, Nepal began to receive technical as well as financial assistance from foreign and international agencies in its developmental programs, including aid from the Indian Aid Mission (1956), the United States Overseas Mission (1952), Nepal-China Aid (1956), the Soviet Union (1959), Canadian Assistance (1958), Swiss Technical Assistance (1956), and the Ford Foundation (1954) (Pant, 1962).

6. For the first time in the history of Nepal, a five year plan (1956-61) was drafted and presented to the country in 1956 (Rose & Fisher, 1970). This plan formed the foundation for a planned economic development of the country.

The parliamentary system (1959-60). A general election was held in the early part of 1959 for the first time in the history of Nepal. The whole country was divided into 109 political constituencies based on geographic as well as population factors. One member from each of 109 constituencies was to be elected to the parliament at the national level.

There were altogether 786 candidates from various political parties (including independent candidates) contesting for 109 parliamentary seats. The Nepali Congress
party, headed by Bisweswar Prasad Koirala, won an unexpected 74 seats from the 109 parliamentary districts (Rose & Scholz, 1980). The Gorkha Parishad Party, which was supported by the Ranas, won 19 seats. The results of the 1959 general election, the names of the parties, seats contested and won, votes secured, and the total percent of votes for each party are given in Table 7.

Thus, in July 1959, the king confirmed the parliament's choice of Nepali Congress leader Bisweswar Prasad Koirala as Nepal's first elected Prime Minister of Nepal (Rose & Scholz, 1980). The congress spent considerable time and effort to minimize conflicts and opposition and to maximize developmental activities. Congressional members attempted to establish the newly adopted political system in the country. They also attempted to expand their party base in the country. With regard to economic development, many friendly countries as well as international agencies were involved in providing Nepal financial and technical matters. A summary of the total foreign aid in 1960-61 indicates this active involvement (see Table 8).

However, the political system in 1959 was still in an infant stage. The conflict of power and authority between the king and the elected government became an issue in the country. The opposition parties and their leaders, like Dr. K.I. Singh, Man Mohan Adhikari, and Bharat Samsher, were inclined toward the authority of the king. King Mahendra,
Table 7

The Results of the 1959 General Election

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Party</th>
<th>Seats Contested/Won</th>
<th>Votes Secured Total</th>
<th>% of Votes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nepali Congress</td>
<td>108/74</td>
<td>666,898</td>
<td>37.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gorkha Parishad</td>
<td>89/19</td>
<td>305,111</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Dem. Party</td>
<td>86/5</td>
<td>177,508</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal Com. Party</td>
<td>47/4</td>
<td>129,142</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Praja Parishad (Acherya)</td>
<td>46/2</td>
<td>53,063</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Praja Parishad (Mishra)</td>
<td>36/1</td>
<td>59,820</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal Tarai Cong.</td>
<td>21/0</td>
<td>36,107</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rastriya Congress</td>
<td>20/0</td>
<td>12,707</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prajatantrik Mahasabha</td>
<td>68/0</td>
<td>59,896</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independents</td>
<td>268/4</td>
<td>291,149</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>786/109</td>
<td>1,791,408</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Source: Gupta, 1964, p. 146.
Table 8

A Summary of Total Foreign Aid 1960-61 (in Thousands of Nepalese Rupees)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>31,06,31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>21,26,09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>3,50,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ford Foundation</td>
<td>2,99,74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USSR</td>
<td>1,61,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>11,20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>21,02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>11,20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>21,33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHO</td>
<td>37,73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Germany</td>
<td>5,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNO</td>
<td>1,02,53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


however, in view of the rising popularity of the elected government and the rising dissatisfaction of the opposition parties and their leaders, took a drastic turn and dissolved the cabinet and the parliament and kept all the leaders in political detention. On December 15, 1960, in his speech broadcast to the nation, King Mahendra proclaimed that he invoked Article 55 of the Constitution and dissolved the
Cabinet along with both houses of parliament and assumed the entire responsibility of administering the country until such time as might be required for the installation of an alternative arrangement (Shaha, 1967). This action marked the end of the parliamentary system of government of Nepal (Baral, 1977).

The emergence of the panchayat system (1961-1980). The end of the parliamentary system of government in 1960 marked another event of political instability in Nepal, from which the country was to take more than 20 years to recover. The period between 1961 and 1980 was characterized by reorganization and reconstruction in the political as well as economic infrastructure in the country, activities informed by a new constitution based on the panchayat character which was introduced in 1962.

The Constitution of 1962 recognized the king both as the leader as well as the head of the state. The Constitution of 1962 provided the following main features.

1. A panchayat framework consisting of the town or the village, the district, the zonal and national panchayats;

2. A class organization structure including the women's organization, peasant's organization, labor organization, youth organization, and ex-servicemen's organization; and

3. A Ministry of National Guidance to supervise the working and affairs of the panchayats and class
organizations (Shaha, 1978).

Structurally, therefore, the panchayat system, according to the 1962 Constitution, was based on a pyramid, having a four-tier structure: (a) village or town panchayat, (b) district panchayat, (c) zonal panchayat, and (d) national panchayat. However, the constitutional amendment of 1967 abolished the zonal panchayat. Currently, after a third amendment, there is a three-tier system: village/town, district, and national panchayats with direct election at all levels based on adult franchise. The Constitution of 1962 also provided for a Raj Sabha (State Council), a body whose main role was to provide advisory functions to the king while discharging the constitutional duties. All the members of the Raj Shabha were nominated by the king.

The Rastriya panchayat, according to the 1962 Constitution, was given an odd place in the country's government. It was not really a legislative body with the power to question the executive. The role of the national Rastriya panchayat during the whole panchayat period from 1962-1980 became inevitably subservient, having little or no power to restrict the executive branch. Even the major acts like the Naya Muluki Ain [New Legal Code] of 1963, the Land Act of 1964, and the New Education Plan of 1971 were enacted by executive order (Baral, 1977). The composition or
representation of the Restriya panchayat is given in Table 9.

The Constitution of 1962 was amended for the first time on January 27, 1967. The first amendment included:

1. Abolishment of the zonal panchayat;
2. Founding of an election commission in order to conduct the elections at all levels; and
3. Limiting the tenure of the prime minister to a period of five years (Baral, 1977; Shaha, 1978).

The Constitution was further amended in 1975 after King Birendra succeeded his father, King Mahendra. The 1975 Amendment to the Constitution increased the number of district panchayat from 11 to 13, and of the Restriya panchayat from 125 to 135 (Shaha, 1978). The Back to the Village National Campaign (BVNC) was given authority to control elections from the village, district, and Restriya panchayat levels. The BVNC also had authority to control the representation from class organizations. Each candidate running at the village/town or district or Restriya panchayat level had to obtain permission and clearance from the BVNC. Thus, the BVNC became the most powerful instrument in the panchayat system in Nepal from 1975 to 1980. These changes of 1975 further restricted and closed the Nepalese political system to popular participation. In other words, the second amendment of the Constitution in 1975, which created a strong and powerful structure in the
Table 9
National Panchayat Electors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rastriya Panchayat Representatives</th>
<th>Electors</th>
<th>Position of Electors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>90 115 825</td>
<td>All 21 or over Members of District Councils (11 x 75 = 825)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>All 21 or over Members of National Councils³</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 -- 75</td>
<td>-- Members of National Councils³</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 25 1 1</td>
<td>King Nomination King Nomination</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 -- 5,400</td>
<td>College Graduates --</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tot.125 140</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Source: Gaige, 1975, p. 140; and Shaha, 1982, p. 201.
³Members of National Councils of class organizations (15 members x 5 class organizations).

BVNC system, further restricted popular or democratic participation. All the banned political leaders, like Bisweswar Koirala, K. P. Bhattarae, and Ganeshman of the
Nepali Congress, Mana Mohan Adhikari of the Communist party, and many others organized the anti-panchayat movement in order to establish the popular democratic system in Nepal. Many popular panchayat leaders who opposed the BVNC as an additional layer of artificial control were screened out and could not contest the elections. As a result, they joined the opposition groups.

A second amendment of the Constitution in 1975 proved to be even more unpopular. The political unrest in the country increased significantly from 1975 to 1979. In view of the rising dissatisfaction over the panchayat system nationwide, King Birendra announced on May 24, 1979, that Nepal would hold a national referendum on whether to continue its partyless panchayat system or to change to a multiparty system. Accordingly, the referendum was held on May 2, 1980. Almost 67 percent of the electorate voted in the referendum. More than 54 percent of the total voters supported the partyless panchayat system while 45.21 percent supported a multiparty system (Shaha, 1982). The majority of the abandoned political parties and their leaders welcomed the referendum and accepted its result. In addition, the following features were also introduced into the Constitution in 1979:

1. Universal adult suffrage as the basis for elections to the national panchayat;
2. The appointment of the prime minister on the legislature's recommendation; and

3. The responsibility of the Council of Ministers to the legislature (Shaha, 1982).

The royal declaration of December 16, 1979, declared that:

from now on, all elections to be held to the national legislature shall take place solely on the basis of adult franchise. Similarly, the convention to appoint our prime minister on the basis of the recommendations of the national legislature shall be followed in the future. Besides, the Council of Ministers will be made responsible to the national legislature for their line of conduct. (Constitution of Nepal, 1980, Third Amendment)

This proclamation indicated that the king was aware of the political instability in the country. Accordingly, he made necessary changes to include the people's participation and involvement in the system. Therefore, the national referendum and the third amendment of the Constitution of Nepal indicated the end of almost 20 years of political struggle, unrest, opposition, and dissatisfaction over the panchayat system with indirect election. The third amendment also indicated the beginning of a popular and democratic system of government in Nepal.

The post-referendum era (1981-85). After the successful implementation of the historic political referendum in 1980, Nepal's political situation entered a new era. King Berendra, after the comfortable win of the panchayat system over a multiparty one, declared a general
election of the members of the National Panchayat in 1981. Accordingly, the election was held on May 9, 1981. Since there were no parties involved, the 1981 election became a popularity contest among individuals for office (Shaha, 1982). Out of 75 political districts, 40 were made double-member constituencies and the remaining 35 were single-member constituencies with only slight regard for the population of the districts. Thus, many of the districts with a large population were at a disadvantage.

Unlike the results of the general election of 1959, the results of this election could not be grouped into any category other than individual or regional or district. Thus, 115 out of 140 members were elected from the districts, and the remaining 25 members were nominated by the king. It was reported that 63% of the voters took part in the elections despite the boycott by the banned political parties (Shaha, 1982).

Surya Bahadur Thapa, an elected member from the Dharkuta district, was elected as Prime Minister, and he formed a council of ministers under his chairmanship. In 1959, B.P. Koerela became the first elected prime minister, but despite his power and popularity, he did not last more than 18 months. Similarly, Thapa faced the same problem and was forced to resign with a vote of no confidence passed by the panchayat. Within two years of his four-year term,
Lokendra Bahadure Chand, an elected member from the Western district of Baitadi, became the prime minister for the remaining period.

Political stability and the lack thereof have been crucial factors in the development of Nepal. However, the slower rate of development caused by frequent periods of change and unrest has been expected to accelerate after the establishment of a popular government in the early part of the 1980s.
CHAPTER III

HIGHER EDUCATION ACTIVITIES BEFORE THE ESTABLISHMENT OF TRIBHUVAN UNIVERSITY

Nepal has a long tradition of religious education. Both Hindu and Buddhist priesthood educations were the dominant educational activities until 1883, when the Durbar School (Bhanu Madhyamic Vidhyalaya) was established to provide western education for the children of the Rana rulers in Nepal (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], Regional Office, 1984a). The government of Nepal did not permit the establishment of any other school in the country until 1938, when the Rana ruler promulgated the Education Code which allowed the public to establish schools, although with severe restrictions.

Higher education in Nepal is a comparatively recent phenomenon. The first institute of higher learning, Trichandra College, was established in Kathmandu in 1918. Trichandra College continued to be the only institute of higher learning in Nepal (except Balmiki Sanskrit College, established in 1948) until the end of the Rana rule in 1951. After 1951, the government of Nepal established several public colleges and granted permission to establish many...
private colleges. As a result, the number of colleges increased from 2 in 1951, to 33 in 1961, to 49 in 1970 (Ministry of Education, 1971b). Tribhuvan University provided the foundation for higher education in Nepal only after 1959. Although a comprehensive history of the development of education in Nepal does not presently exist, various historical accounts of the country indicate significant educational development in the country. A review of the literature on higher education activities before the establishment of Tribhuvan University suggests the following developmental phases: (a) the early period (before 1767), (b) the period of negligence (1768-1845), (c) the period of opposition (1846-1950), and (d) the period of expansion (1951-1958).

The Early Period (before 1767)

Politically, early Nepal was divided into several principalities, each with its own tradition and culture based on either Hinduism or Buddhism. Therefore, the principal education institutions of this period subscribed to either the Brahmin educational system or the Buddhist educational system (Agrawal, 1974). Krishna Raj Arayal mentioned that Christian missionaries were already in these areas during this period, but no accounts on the educational activities of these missionaries have been found (Aryal, 1970).
The principal aim of the education of both the Brahmin and the Buddhist systems was the enlightenment and spiritual salvation of men through meditation and disciplined life. Dr. Hugh B. Wood (1965), a well-known educator who contributed to the development of education in Nepal in the 1950s and 1960s, observed:

It is not surprising that the earliest forms of education in Nepal were associated with the two major religions, Hinduism and Buddhism. By the beginning of the Christian era, there were established systems and institutions for the training of priests and other personnel to propagate these religions. The Buddhist Gompas (Monasteries) in some ways approached secular education in the breadth of their curricular offerings and in their effort to enroll one boy from each family, whether he was to become a priest or not. The Hindu system placed greater emphasis on the specific training of the priest. (p. 8)

Historically, therefore, both the Brahmin and the Buddhist educational systems were common educational institutions in Nepal.

The Brahmin education, or Sanskrit education, was regarded as the indigenous educational system in Nepal for many centuries. Historical accounts indicate that a great number of Hindu scholars came to Nepal from India, especially after the 11th century A.D. following the Muslim invasions (Uprety, 1962). These Hindu scholars gradually spread the Brahmin education in Nepal, but the Brahmin education was limited to the Brahmin caste only. Instead of developing universal education, King Jayasthiti Malla (1382-1895 A.D.) further strengthened the caste system by dividing
the population into 67 major occupational groups and subgroups. As a result, the education or training of each individual family member became a hereditary institution. With the superior position of the Brahmin caste thus secured, the Brahmins played an important role in Nepalese life by performing all religious/social and state ceremonies.

Brahmin education included the study of the Sanskrit language, Sanskrit grammar, and the study of the Vedas and other higher philosophical thoughts. Later on, Jayshthiti Malla, by creating occupational groups, emphasized the system of vocational training as well. A person's career was, therefore, determined from his birth (Uprety, 1962).

Brahmin education was supported by the community as well as by the state, but the priestly occupations provided the main source of support. The Brahmin teachers were given tax-free lands (Birta). Guilds (Guthi system) were developed to look after the training and education of the children of the respective occupational groups.

Historical accounts indicate that the Buddhist system of education, on the other hand, was popular and well-developed along the northern border of Nepal and Tibet. By 771 A.D., the monasteries of Yarlung, Chonghie, and Samya were built (College of Education, 1956). Each monastery had a three-level organizational hierarchy: the university
board (La-Chi), the College (Dra-Chhang), and a boarding hostel (Khamjen). Ganden, housing about 3300 students and teachers, Drepung, housing about 7700 students and teachers, and Sera, housing about 5500 students and teachers, were already established as the learning institutions in the early part of the 15th century A.D. (College of Education, 1956). However, although these institutions had Buddhist influence, they were relatively autonomous in terms of organization, administration, and management of the educational programs. All of the monasteries of northern Nepal were affiliated with one of these colleges, and each boarding hostel was organized to represent specific linguistic as well as geographical areas. For example, the Gurkha Khamjins enrolled the Nepalese students and the Chinese Khemjins enlisted the Chinese nationals (College of Education, 1956). Admission to the monasteries was open to all, irrespective of age and social or political restrictions. All of the Buddhist monasteries, the colleges, and the hostels were supported by private donations.

During this period (up to 1767 A.D.), education was not universal. Sanskrit education was limited exclusively to the males of the Brahmin caste. Uprety identified two chief reasons for the obstruction of universal education in Nepal: (a) the propagation of the Sanskrit language as the chief medium of teaching; and (b) the general social acceptance of
the hierarchy of the caste structure (Uprety, 1962). Such a caste system made the expansion of Sanskrit education impossible. A major development in education occurred in the latter part of the 14th century, therefore, when King Jayasthiti Malla of Kathmandu divided the caste structure into 67 major occupational groups and subgroups in order to reorganize vocational education (Agrawal, 1974). This reorganization helped to further careers based on vocation as well as caste. After this, vocational education became the responsibility of the family in Nepal, a situation which continued until the unification of several small principalities by Prithwi Narayan Shaha of Gorkha State in 1768.

The Period of Negligence (1768-1845)

The history of present-day Nepal began in 1768 when Prithwi Narayan Shaha, the King of Gorkha, defeated a number of principalities and brought them together to form one united Nepal (Bista, 1967). However, the myriad classes and castes were difficult to unite socially, culturally, and economically, and the political unification of the country, therefore, did not lead to the emergence of a united nation because of the complex diversities in politics, traditions, cultures, and economics (Regmi, 1971).
The traditional Sanskrit and Buddhist schools continued to be the only educational institutions in the country during the period between 1768 and 1845. Since the rulers during this period spent their chief time and effort in the country's unification, the development and expansion of educational activities were neglected. No institution of higher education was established during this period. In other words, all educational activities, including higher education, were neglected. The period between 1768 and 1845 was characterized by political expansion and unification, and education was therefore not considered a high priority.

Territorial wars, internal strife, and court intrigues were the common characteristics of this period. Although neither Sanskrit nor Buddhist education was an area of concern to Prithwi Narayan Shaha, he did strongly emphasize military training, as Dr. Hugh B. Wood (1965) indicated:

Prithwi Narayan Shaha, as might have been expected, introduced a martial note in education, believing every youth should be trained for war, but after he had conquered the Kathmandu Valley, he laid heavy stress on the industrial and vocational development of the country. . . . However, he and his heirs did not hesitate to appropriate the accumulated wealth of ancient educational institutions to pay the cost of conquest and both Buddhist and Hindu education often suffered as a result. (p. 9)

Prithwi Narayan Shaha gave prime consideration to the ability of the person to defend the territory of the nation, and the Nepalese ruler trusted neither English nor Western education (Uprety, 1962). In fact, Christian missionaries
were expelled from the country in 1775. Prithwi Narayan Shaha believed that religion, gods, and priests were only instruments to help the military forces.

The old educational institutions (both Brahmin and Buddhist) suffered during this period because the properties belonging to these institutions and their priests were confiscated by the state (Uprety, 1962). Since Nepal was united and established as a Hindu state, Buddhist educational institutions, in particular, lost their influence, privileges, and accumulated properties (Uprety, 1962), which further contributed to the dearth of educational activities during this period.

The Period of Opposition (1846-1950)

Nepal passed through a century-old dark age during the period of Rana rule from 1846 to 1950. The Ranas believed that they could perpetuate their rule so long as the people remained ignorant and loyal to Rana authority. Education, therefore, could be dangerous to such a state (Sharma, 1984), and the guiding spirit of Rana policy was to keep the people ignorant and the country isolated. The Ranas believed that public education could be a threat to their power and authority. Professor Krishna Raj Aryal, a distinguished Nepali educator, observed that education could not make much progress during the entire Rana rule, mainly for two reasons: (a) the need and value of education were
not recognized; and (b) education was considered as a means by which people might turn against Rana power (Aryal, 1970). Rana opposition to education was the main reason only a few Nepalese could receive higher education in this period. In 1948, a government survey of educated Nepalese indicated that only 7 Nepalese had a college or graduate degree, 48 held undergraduate degrees, and 14 had Sanskrit degrees (Reed & Reed, 1968).

As a result of Rana opposition to public education, state control of schools began during the Rana period. In 1875, a Rana general was appointed for the first time in the history of Nepal as Director of Education (UNESCO, Regional Office, 1984a). The Durbar School, now called Bhanu Madhyamic Vidhyalaya, was established in 1883 and marked the beginning of the Western type of education in Nepal (see Appendix X). Enrollment in this school was restricted to the children of the Rana family and their followers.

In spite of opposition by the Rana rulers, Trichandra College was established as the first institution of higher education in Kathmandu in 1918 (UNESCO, Regional Office, 1984a) (see Appendix H). Trichandra College followed the curriculum prescribed by Patna University in India, which conducted examinations and awarded certificates and diplomas. Trichandra College continued to be the only college (other than Sanskrit College, which was established in 1948) in the country until 1950. The Sanskrit College
differed from Trichandra College, however, in following the curriculum prescribed by the Banaras Hindu University in India. Table 10 indicates the list of colleges established during this period.

Table 10
List of Colleges Established between 1846 and 1950

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Colleges</th>
<th>Year Established</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trichandra College</td>
<td>1918</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balmiki Sanskrit Mahavidhyalaya</td>
<td>1948</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The total number of students enrolled in both colleges in 1951 was only 250.

The early 1940s were marked by political unrest in Nepal, and a movement was begun to overthrow the inherited Rana premiership in Nepal. Therefore, educational activities were neglected and opposed during this phase of the country's development.

However, in 1948 the Rana government made the first attempt in the history of Nepal to establish a national university. A meeting was held in August 1948 to organize the proposed university. The meeting, chaired by the
Director General of Public Instruction and held at Trichandra College, formed a high-level commission of 25 members to prepare a detailed plan for the establishment of the university (College of Education, 1956).

The newly formed commission on the proposed university held several meetings to discuss the type of university needed, the subjects to be taught, the medium of instruction and examination, coeducation, organization, and research. In April 1949, a meeting of the University Commission was held and conveners were appointed to draft the courses of study for various subject areas. However, a change in the government in 1951 informally dissolved the University Commission which had been appointed by the Rana government in 1948, temporarily postponing plans for a national university.

In may be seen, therefore, that in spite of the deliberate opposition by the Ranas, a considerable development in education actually occurred in the period from 1846 to 1950. The Ranas were influenced by the British and established Durbar High School in 1883 and Trichandra College in 1918 to provide an English education for their children. The following events characterized significant developments in the educational development of Nepal during this period:

1. Establishment of Durbar High School in 1883 to provide Western education to the children of Rana families
and their followers;

2. Establishment of Trichandra College in 1918 to provide post-secondary Western education to the children of Rana families and their followers;

3. Setting up of a Directorate of Education to administer, control, and regulate educational activities in the country (Agrawal, 1974);

4. Promulgation of the Rana prime minister of the Education Code in 1938, which granted permission to establish private schools with restrictions;

5. Formation of a high-level commission of 25 members in 1948 to prepare a detailed plan for the establishment of a national university in Nepal;

6. Establishment of a Sanskrit College in 1948; and


The Period of Expansion (1951-1958)

The end of the Rana rule and the establishment of a constitutional government in 1951 opened the door for public education, including higher education in Nepal. Accordingly, the Ministry of Education was established and made responsible for planning, organizing, implementing, and evaluating educational activities and programs in the
country. In other words, with the establishment of the Ministry of Education in 1951, Nepal's education programs at all levels (primary, secondary, and higher) were organized at the central level. At the central level of the Ministry of Education were a Minister, one Education Secretary, two Deputy Secretaries, and two Assistant Secretaries (see Appendix I). The Director General of Public Instruction was responsible for administrating the examinations, the colleges (except Sanskrit educational institutions), and public instruction at zonal and district levels. The Director of Sanskrit Studies was responsible for managing and controlling Sanskrit College and other Sanskrit studies institutions at the lower levels. Finally, the Director of the Archaeology Department was responsible for museum and library services all over the country.

The Department of Education was divided into two sections, the Directorate of English or modern education and the Directorate of Sanskrit education for the purpose of administration and management. The English type of education at all levels followed the British model in India. These secondary education institutions were accredited by the Oxford and Cambridge institutions in the United Kingdom. All the colleges in Nepal were accredited by the Patna University and the Banaras Hindu University in India, which controlled the examinations and awarded degrees and
diplomas. The Ministry of Education for the public colleges and committees for private colleges were responsible for the management and support of the colleges in Nepal until 1958.

Education in Nepal, therefore, was organized generally under the Ministry of Education of the central government. However, the curriculum of some schools and colleges was controlled by the Patna University in India. The extent of the control of the Ministry of Education was determined by the amount of financial aid given to the schools by outside sources. The schools were grouped into the following categories: (a) government schools, supported and administered entirely by the government, (b) government-aided schools, which were private schools receiving government aid, and (c) independent schools with private support and no government aid provided.

One of the major governmental efforts in the development of higher education in Nepal was the establishment of the Nepal National Education Planning Commission in 1954. This commission was to play a significant role in the development higher education in Nepal.

The Nepal National Educational Planning Commission

The Nepal National Educational Planning Commission (NNEPC), established in 1954 to develop a comprehensive plan and policy on education at the national level, was the first
successful attempt in the development of higher education in Nepal. After the establishment of the Ministry of Education in 1951, the government of Nepal established an Education Board in 1952 for the purpose of supervising and expanding the existing educational institutions and facilities (College of Education, 1956). This Education Board submitted its suggestion that the government establish a National Commission for Educational Planning, survey existing educational facilities, and prepare a scheme for national universal education in Nepal. The government accepted the proposal and established the Nepal National Educational Planning Commission in 1954. There were 47 members in the Commission representing various cross-sections of the people of Nepal (see Appendix J). The Commission was officially inaugurated on March 22, 1954 (College of Education, 1956).

The Commission was guided by the following terms of reference provided by the Minister of Education.

1. The Commission should devote itself to studying the system of education obtaining in the country today.
2. It should prepare an outline for the reorganization of schools on modern, practical lines, with special emphasis on the development of primary education for all.
3. It should draw an outline for the preparation of standard textbooks for natural education and recommend adequate measures to the government for the preparation of textbooks by competent authors and publish them by putting up a good printing press adequate for the purpose.
4. It should recommend to the government the establishment of a national university within five years, calculated to raise the standard of education
within measurable time commensurate with the immediate needs of the people.

5. It should immediately give its opinion to the government about teacher training and see that the recommendation is implemented.

6. The Commission should try to find ways and means for collecting funds wherever possible for the big job ahead.

7. The Commission should ask the government or power to co-opt members deemed competent by them, requesting the government to send a circular to the government's servants so that they would aid the Commission wherever possible. (College of Education, 1956, pp. 5-6)

After one year of extensive study, the Nepal National Educational Planning Commission submitted its report to the government on March 1, 1955 (see Appendix K). The report included 26 recommendations about the goals, structure, organization, and functions of the university (see Table 11).

Table 11

Recommendations of the NNEPC

1. A National University is an essential part of an education system, and should be established at once; our present make-shift arrangements are unsatisfactory.

2. The major functions of a university are (a) accrediting, supervising, and coordinating colleges, (b) teaching, (c) research, and (d) public service, including extension and field work.

3. The Nepal National University should serve all of these functions; to do this, all of its colleges should be located on a common campus insofar as possible.

4. A suitable site and buildings should be obtained immediately while some of the large palaces in Kathmandu are still available; Sital Nivas, now used only infrequently as a government guest house, would provide an ideal beginning for a university.
Table 11—continued.

5. Administratively the University should be completely free of political influence but closely coordinated with other educational activities. To accomplish this, control should rest in the hands of a special Board of Higher Education coordinated with a General Board of Education.

6. The executive officers of the University, to be employed by the special Board, include the Vice-Chancellor, Dean of Student Personnel, Dean of Instruction, Business Manager, and Registrar.

7. The executive officers should be assisted with internal administration by a Senate composed of college heads and representative faculty members, the University Faculty as a whole, and the various College Faculties in their own respective colleges.

8. The University and its colleges should make no effort to mould high school curricula to their patterns. Rather they should establish a common entrance examination for the University with special aptitude examinations for the specific colleges as needed. Responsibility for admission should be entirely with the colleges.

9. The University should provide a Guidance Bureau to assist students of all colleges in personal and vocational-career problems and to sponsor and conduct research in non-academic examinations.

10. A centralized academic-credit system should be established to provide systematic centralized records of student progress under a single University Registrar, and modern academic accounting, combined with conscientious student assessment, to give more flexibility in student programming and place less emphasis on a final examination.

11. Methods of teaching should be improved to conform with modern practices. New instructional aids should be introduced, and variety should be the keynote in methods and materials of learning.

12. A strong central library should be established as a centre for study and research. Efforts should be made to incorporate private collections into this library as soon as possible. The library should extend its collections to include all types of instructional aids and research tools.
13. The medium of instruction in the University should be Nepali for oral and written use, but reading competency in English and Hindi will be essential, not only in the immediate future but for years to come, if we are to keep abreast of world developments.

14. At least two years of military training should be compulsory for all male students, and an additional two years of advanced military science should be optional for those who desire it.

15. The University will require very little additional financing above that now spent on the existing and proposed colleges, but the total expenditures on higher education should be increased several times as soon as possible.

16. Modest tuitions and actual hostel and messing costs should be charged, but some full and partial scholarships should be available to needy and capable students. The University should also assist students in securing part-time jobs and should have a loan fund available for them.

17. A special committee should be appointed to assist in fund-raising activities.

18. Tri-Chandra College should form the nucleus of the Liberal Arts and Science College. The Women's College, the Evening College, and the Sanskrit College should be merged into this college, and new departments should be added in Business Science and Administration, Military Science, Health and Physical Education, Fine Arts and Music, and Sanskrit Studies; extension courses and research also should form part of the regular programme.

19. The Law College should be continued, should strengthen the pre-law work, and offer its services in the various legal phases of establishing a new government.

20. A Teachers College should be established in 1956 as outlined in Chapter XII to provide training for primary, secondary, and college teachers.

21. A Polytechnic Institute should be established by 1956-1957 to provide training in engineering, mining, small industries, handicrafts and related areas.
Table 11—continued.

22. A College of Agriculture should be established to offer training for Village Development Workers, veterinary medicine, forestry, and all phases of agriculture.

23. A Home Science College should be established to offer training through short-term and degree courses for Women Village Development Workers, extension course teachers, high school teachers and others in food preparation, clothing, home decoration, etc.

24. A Medical-Dental College should be established as soon as possible to train badly needed doctors and dentists.

25. A College of Nursing should be established to offer sub-collegiate and college courses and supervise a high school course in nursing to meet the dire shortage in this field.

26. A nucleus of the special Board on Higher Education, or a special committee should be appointed immediately to select five University key personnel to be sent abroad for training, select a University site and buildings, establish the University organization, prepare proposals for foreign aid, and then inaugurate the Nepal National University.

Note. Source: College of Education, 1956, pp. 147-149.

In summary, the major goals of the proposed university were: (a) accrediting, supervising, and coordinating colleges, (b) teaching, (c) research, and (d) public services, including extension and field work (College of Education, 1956). The Commission also recommended the town of Kirtipur as the site for the university (see Appendix L). The governance of the university had been vested in a special Board on Higher Education whose responsibilities were to: (a) select and dismiss university administrative personnel and approve appointments of lesser staff members,
(b) set policies governing the administration and operation of the university, (c) grant all degrees, (d) supervise standards, (e) authorize new colleges, curricula, and courses, and (f) be responsible for the operation of the university system (College of Education, 1956). The functions of this board were similar to those of the Board of Regents or Board of Directors of many western university systems today. A university senate—composed of administrative officers, such as the registrar, business managers, dean of instruction, dean of student personnel, the heads of the various colleges, and an equal number of members elected by their colleagues on a proportionate basis according to the size of the various colleges—was recommended for the university's internal administrative functions (see Appendix M).

The vice-chancellor was recommended to be the chief administrative officer of the university with other university officers, such as the business manager, registrar, dean of students, and dean of instruction, all responsible to the vice-chancellor. All the colleges were to be under the administrative control of the vice-chancellor of the university; however, the principals of the individual colleges were responsible for their internal administrative and operational matters.
The Commission recommended that a general examination for admission to the university be developed. A Guidance Bureau under the dean of students was to be made responsible for all kinds of entrance examinations and their administration. The Commission also recommended that the university adopt the credit hour semester system. In general, the committee proposed that 128 credit hours might be required for graduation. The Commission further recommended the development and establishment of the following programs (colleges): liberal arts college, law college, medical college, agricultural college, home science college, college of nursing, business administration college, college of education, polytechnic institute, and other colleges. In addition, the Commission suggested that a committee on higher education be established for the purpose of providing necessary support to the existing institutions of higher learning.

Based on the recommendation of the Nepal National Education Planning Commission, a committee on higher education was established in 1957. The committee was made responsible for providing necessary support to various colleges in the country in developing their academic as well as non-academic programs. However, this committee was dissolved after the establishment of Tribhuvan University in Nepal in 1959 (Uprety, 1962), when the newly established
Tribhuvan University took over the functions of the committee on higher education of 1957.

The years 1951 to 1958, therefore, marked a time of expansion of higher education in Nepal. The newly established Ministry of Education in Nepal was spending time and effort in formulating a comprehensive plan and policy about the development and establishment of the country's institutions of higher learning (including the establishment of the national university). At the same time, the establishment of over 17 colleges, public as well as private, in just 7 years between 1951 and 1959 (see Table 12) indicated the thrust and awareness of the Nepalese people regarding higher education. Table 12 indicates the rapid expansion of higher education in Nepal during this period. Most of the colleges established were liberal arts institutions, with all of the public colleges under the Director General of Public Instruction at the Ministry of Education. All academic programs were prescribed by Patna University and all other administrative activities, including the personnel functions of both academic and non-academic staffs, were controlled by the Ministry of Education. However, the administration, including control of finances, manpower, and other resources, of all the private colleges was controlled and managed by each individual college's managing committee.
Table 12

List of Colleges Established between 1951-1958

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kathmandu Valley</th>
<th>Year Established</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Padma Kanya College</td>
<td>1951</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Nepal National College</td>
<td>1951</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Nepal Law College</td>
<td>1954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Patan College</td>
<td>1954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Amrit Science College</td>
<td>1956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. College of Education</td>
<td>1956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Public Commerce College</td>
<td>1958</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Central Nepal</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8. Sri Thakur Ram College, Birjung</td>
<td>1952</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>East Nepal</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9. Pindeswar Sanskrit College, Dharan</td>
<td>1952</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Mahendra College, Dharan</td>
<td>1955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Dhankuta College, Dhankuta</td>
<td>1955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Mahendra Morang College, Biratnagar</td>
<td>1956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Mahendra Bindeswari College, Rajbiraj</td>
<td>1957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. R. R. College, Janakpur</td>
<td>1958</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>West Nepal</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15. Janata College, Dang</td>
<td>1951</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Sri Panch Mahendra College, Nepaljung</td>
<td>1955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Tribhuvan College, Palpa</td>
<td>1958</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


While all of the private colleges were to follow the same academic programs as those prescribed by Patna University, the Sanskrit College was organized differently. Under the Director of Sanskrit Studies of the Ministry of Education, Sanskrit College followed academic program of
Banaras Hindu University in India. The College of Education, which was established in 1954 under the technical as well as financial assistance from the United States Overseas Mission (USOM) and the University of Oregon, was an exception because it did not have any affiliation to an outside university (Tribhuvan University: Profile, 1988).

During the years between 1951 and 1958, for the first time in the history of Nepal, non-governmental, foreign, and international agencies were involved in planning, organizing, and supporting the educational programs in Nepal. In fact, after 1951, Nepal opened its doors to all friendly countries and agencies to provide assistance (financial as well as technical) in developing and establishing educational institutions in Nepal. The USOM in 1952, Nepal China Aid in 1956, Canadian Assistance in 1958, the Swiss Association for Technical Assistance in 1956, the Ford Foundation in 1954, and Indian Aid Mission in 1956 were only some of the agencies providing non-governmental involvement in Nepal's higher education (Pant, 1962). In addition, other international as well as regional organizations, like the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the World Health Organization (WHO), were also involved in assisting higher education in Nepal. In particular, WHO was involved in the establishment and development of health assistant and nursing programs in Nepal.
Thus, the period between 1951 and 1958 marked the establishment and expansion of higher education in Nepal. The following events in the development of higher education in Nepal characterize this significance: (a) the establishment of the Ministry of Education in 1951 for the purpose of developing the higher education system in Nepal, (b) the establishment of the Nepal National Educational Planning Commission in 1954, (c) the recommendations of this Commission to establish a national university in Nepal, (4) the establishment of more than 17 public as well as private colleges in less than 7 years, and (e) the involvement of non-governmental agencies in the establishment and development of higher education in Nepal.
CHAPTER IV

TRIBHUVAN UNIVERSITY AND ITS EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES
(1959-1970)

The establishment of Tribhuvan University in 1959 was the direct result of efforts by the king, government, political leaders, and concerned individuals, and had been preceded by an unprecedented increase in the number of newly established colleges during the period of educational expansion between 1951 and 1958. More than 17 colleges were established within 7 years (Agrawal, 1974). Before the founding of Tribhuvan University, the academic programs of these colleges were prescribed by the Patna University in India, which also conducted all examinations and awarded degrees. Only the Sanskrit colleges in Nepal were controlled by another institution, the Banaras Hindu University in India. Increasing political and educational awareness among the Nepalese people, creation of the Nepal National Education Planning Commission, and lack of a centrally organized unit of higher education all contributed to the need for establishing a national university in Nepal. Finally, in 1959, a university was established and named Tribhuvan after the late King Tribhuvan Bir Bikram Shaha. The Tribhuvan University Act of 1959 was adopted to
provide the basis for governing, administering, and implementing educational programs in Nepal.

After the establishment of Tribhuvan University in Nepal, all existing government and private colleges became affiliated with it. All academic matters including academic programs of all colleges were thereafter prescribed and supervised by Tribhuvan University. However, the administrative and financial affairs of the government colleges continued to be controlled by the Ministry of Education and all private colleges by their respective managing committees.

Tribhuvan University had a senate, syndicate, and an academic council. The university also had a board of studies for each of five faculties: arts, science, commerce, law, and agriculture. Education and Sanskrit studies were under the faculty of arts (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 1984).

During the period between 1959 and 1970, Tribhuvan University did not function as the complete and comprehensive national university that had been proposed by the National Education Planning Commission. The university, for example, did not offer programs in medicine, engineering, and forestry.

During the period between 1959 and 1970, important political changes in the country resulted in a lack of
emphasis on the development of educational activities. On December 15, 1960, King Mahendra dissolved the 18-month-old elected government and introduced the partyless panchayat system to replace the parliamentary system of government (Rose & Scholz, 1980). Most of the political leaders, including Prime Minister Bisweswar Prasad Koeraia, were arrested and many fled to India. The political situation in the 1960s was very tense and unstable.

Therefore, it was only in the latter part of the 1960s that considerable attention was given to the development of an overall education system in the country. As a result of this movement, the National Education System Plan of 1971 was adopted.

Nonetheless, Tribhuvan University during the period between 1959 and 1970 had special features of governance, administration, management, and educational programs which contributed to the university it would become. For purposes of discussion, Tribhuvan University and its educational activities between 1959-1970 may be divided into the following categories: (a) governance, (b) administration and management, and (c) educational activities and services.

Governance

The establishment of Tribhuvan University in 1959 marked a significant milestone in the development of higher
education in Nepal. The general aims of the Tribhuvan University were:

1. to impart higher education to the people of Nepal;
2. to preserve and develop the historical and cultural heritage of the Nepalese nation;
3. to accumulate, advance, and disseminate knowledge;
4. to encourage and promote research in the fields of arts, science, commerce, and vocational education; and
5. to help the university students build their character through the medium of higher education (Tribhuvan University: Profile, 1988, p. 2).

The Tribhuvan Act of 1959 provided for translating these aims into implementation through a basic structure and organization. In short, the Tribhuvan University Act of 1959 provided for a university governing body.

Governance refers to an act of decision making about institutional purposes, their basic policies, program objectives, and resource allocation. Traditionally, the formal authority for university decision making has been vested in a governing board, whether a Board of Trustees, a Board of Regents, a Board of Directors, or a University Senate. Tribhuvan University in Nepal formed a University Senate for the purpose of making decisions relating to university governance.

The composition of the original Tribhuvan University Senate was unique. It had about 50 persons as members,
including high-level governmental officials (Wood, 1965). Many of them were ex-officio members. Other members were either nominated by the chancellor or elected from their constituencies. Table 13 presents a list of the members of the Tribhuvan University Senate.

Table 13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structure of the Original University Senate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ex Officio Members</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chancellor (The King)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pro Chancellor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice Chancellor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treasurer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deans of the Faculties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Former Vice Chancellors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Justice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chairman of the Rastriya Panchayat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attorney General</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Representative of the Ministry of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Representative of the Ministry of Finance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Representative of the Home-Panchayat Ministry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Representative of the Planning Ministry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director of Higher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directors of Primary and Secondary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director of the Department of Health</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 13—continued

Director of the Industry Department
Chief Engineer, Housing Department
Chief Representative of the Forestry Department
Director of the Archeology Department
Director of the Mining Department
Librarian of the University
Dean of Students

Life Members
His Highness Himalaya Bir Bikram Shaha
His Highness Basundhara Bir Bikram Shaha
Donors (anybody who contributes more than 300,000 rupees in cash or kind to the university)

Other Representatives
2 members from among the principals of the University College
12 members from among the departmental heads of the university college
5 members (4 from among the degree-level college principals and 1 from among the intermediate-level college principals)
2 elected members from among the donors
7 elected members from among the registered graduates

Nominated Members
Up to 7 members nominated by the Chancellor
Table 13—continued

Anybody with a donation of more than 50,000 rupees in cash or kind

Distinguished Members

Distinguished individuals who made significant contribution to the university and to education in Nepal, recommended by the Syndicate, approved by the Senate, and nominated by the Chancellor. However these were non-voting members.

Note. Source: Tribhuvan University, 1959, pp. 14-17.

The term of all the members of the Senate was 5 years, but one member could not be elected or nominated for more than 2 terms. The term of the donors, however, was as follows: a donor of 50,000—less than 100,000 rupees, 5 years; a donor of 100,000—less than 200,000 rupees, 10 years; a donor of 200,000—less than 300,000 rupees, 20 years. A distinguished member was allowed to serve for life.

The University Senate was to meet twice a year on the dates fixed by the Chancellor. One of these regular meetings was the annual meeting, the purpose of which was to review and approve the progress report and annual budget for the university. Although the University Senate was to
meet twice a year, a meeting of the Senate could be called at any time upon the written request of at least 15 University Senate members or if deemed appropriate by the Chancellor. In practice, the University Senate met once a year.

The University Senate had to lay down all the basic policies relating to planning, organizing, implementing, and evaluating all academic as well as nonacademic programs of the university, including all public as well as private colleges in Nepal. The following is a list of the functions of the Tribhuvan University Senate:

1. To establish and manage the curricula and other education programs;

2. To plan for necessary things for the university laboratory, library, museum, and education and research;

3. To establish and operate colleges, departments, dormitories, research and special study institutions;

4. To create necessary positions for professors, readers, lecturers, and other teaching staff members;

5. To create fellowships, scholarships, stipends, awards, and certificates;

6. To create degrees, diplomas, and other academic awards and award them;

7. To award honorary and other academic degrees;

8. To develop rules and regulations, and to amend and abolish them as necessary;
9. To review and approve with amendments, if necessary, the budget submitted by the University Syndicate;

10. To review the rules and regulations, and to cancel the rules and regulations and send them back for review, as needed;

11. To approve the annual report;

12. To recruit other officers;

13. To plan for physical education and military training for students;

14. To create positions for teachers in the University Colleges, and to set forth the necessary rules and regulations and implement them through the University Senate;

15. To implement and maintain other rights and duties provided within this Act; and

16. To implement and maintain other rights and duties in order to execute this Act (Tribhuvan University, 1959).

Because, in practice, the Tribhuvan University Senate usually met only once a year, it was not possible for the Senate to oversee the whole operation of the university. Therefore, a smaller body known as the Tribhuvan University Syndicate was made responsible for controlling, monitoring, and supervising the actual operation of the university. The Syndicate was to meet once a month.

Being the representative of the Senate, the Syndicate was the executive body and was composed of the following
members: Vice Chancellor—ex officio member and chairperson; Treasurer—ex officio member; a representative from the Ministry of Education; two university college principals; one principal from another college; one dean nominated by the Chancellor; and four senate members other than deans and principals.

The term of the members of the Syndicate, other than ex officio members, was five years. The Tribhuvan University Act of 1959 provided for the following specific functions of the Syndicate:

1. To control and operate the university fund;
2. To develop the university stamp;
3. To operate the individual budget line;
4. To prepare the annual budget and submit it to the Senate;
5. To procure and manage the necessary buildings, materials, equipment, and books in order to operate the university;
6. To receive the donations in cash and kind;
7. To change the names of the cash and kind to the university fund;
8. To establish and operate an auditing system;
9. To establish and operate the press and publication department, the communication and information department, and the university service department;
10. To manage education and research, publication,
games, sports, and military training, the student union, the student help fund, and to establish a student dean's office;

11. To manage special education and research institutions, laboratories, libraries, museums, and dormitories.

12. To accredit dormitories and manage teachers quarters;

13. To supervise the institutions, maintain their standards, fix the pay scale and develop related guidelines, and take necessary action to implement the program;

14. To ask for the report of the colleges and dormitories;

15. To supervise and control entry of students and develop guidelines for the dormitories; and

16. To hire teachers and other staff, and to determine the terms of employment and benefits (Tribhuvan University, 1959, pp. 19-21).

In addition to the University Syndicate, there were other small bodies at the central level to carry out specific functions. The Academic Council and the Study Board, for example, were such bodies. The Academic Council was constituted by the University Senate for the purpose of developing and monitoring standards for the academic programs at all levels (Tribhuvan University, 1959). The Council was basically responsible for formulating the rules and regulations relating to curriculum, academic
standards, and student discipline. The vice-chancellor, with the permission and consent of the Chancellor, also had to constitute a Study Board for each subject area. The Board was responsible for developing standards for each degree program.

Administration and Management

The administration and management structure of Tribhuvan University between 1959 and 1970 was unique and different from other universities in terms of governance and administration. Article III of the Tribhuvan University Act of 1959 provided for the following university officials whose function was to administer and manage the university: (a) the Chancellor, (b) the Pro-Chancellor, (c) the Vice Chancellor, (d) the Treasurer, and (e) the Registrar. In addition, there were one Deputy Registrar, three Assistant Registrars, Departmental Superintendants, Section Head Assistants, and Section Assistants (Hedrick & Hedrick, 1972).

The first Chancellor of Tribhuvan University was Kanti Rajya Laxmi Devi, the wife of King Tribhuvan. Later, King Mahendra became the Chancellor of the University and took over the role and responsibilities of the Chancellor of the University. Though an honorary figure, the Chancellor had full veto power. However, during the period between 1959
and 1970, the Chancellor delegated to the Vice Chancellor all authority in administering and managing the university.

The Minister of Education was the ex-officio Pro-Chancellor of the University. In the absence of the Chancellor, the Pro-Chancellor had to preside over the meetings of the Tribhuvan University Senate and to chair at the convocation.

The Vice-Chancellor, appointed by the Chancellor, was the actual administrative head of the university (Wood, 1967). In the absence of the Chancellor and the Pro-Chancellor, the Vice Chancellor had to preside over the University Senate meetings and to take the chair at the university convocation ceremonies. The term of the Vice Chancellor was five years (Tribhuvan University, 1959).

The Vice Chancellor was the chairperson of the Tribhuvan University Syndicate. In fact, the Vice Chancellor was the administrative as well as academic chief of the university.

Another important officer of Tribhuvan University during 1959-1970 was the Treasurer, also appointed by the Chancellor for a period of three years subject to renewal for two consecutive terms (Tribhuvan University, 1959). The Treasurer was responsible for the financial administration of the university, including collection, control, monitoring, and auditing. Also appointed by the Chancellor, the Registrar of Tribhuvan University was responsible for
the general, fiscal, personnel, and examination administration of the university.

Educational Activities and Services

Although the Tribhuvan University Act of 1959 made provision for the establishment of seven faculties (arts, science, commerce, law, medicine, engineering, and art), Tribhuvan University initially had only four faculties (arts, science, commerce, and law) (Tribhuvan University: Profile, 1988). Later, the University added two more faculties: the faculty of education and the faculty of agriculture. Tribhuvan University did not offer programs in engineering and medicine during the period between 1959 and 1970, but by the end of 1969, the Tribhuvan University had six faculties: arts, science, commerce, law, education, and Sanskrit.

The faculty of arts consisted of departments in languages, economics, political science, history, geography, mathematics, and culture. Similarly, the faculty of science included physics, chemistry, botany, and zoology (Ministry of Education, 1970). The University awarded degrees at four levels: (a) intermediate (associate), (b) bachelor, (c) Master's, and (d) doctoral.

Intermediate degrees included arts (IA), science (ISC), commerce (I. Com), education (I.Ed.), and Sanskrit (Purba Madhyma). Most of these intermediate-level degrees involved
2 to 2 1/2-year college programs. The entry admission to any of these intermediate-level programs was the School Leaving Certificate (SLC), or the equivalent to a high school diploma from any recognized high school in or out of the country. Since the high school diplomas were classified by first, second, and third divisions, most colleges of the university had their admission criteria based on division by grade point (GPA). An individual with a high GPA was likely to get admission to any college of his choice.

Similarly, the bachelor degrees included those in the arts (BA), science (B.Sc), commerce (B. Com), law (BL), education (B.Ed), and Sanskrit (Shastri). All of these bachelor degree programs were 2 to 2 1/2-year college junior and senior-level programs. The successful completion of the intermediate level degree was required for admission to the bachelor degree program. Normally, students were not allowed to change their majors in the bachelor degree program. In other words, a student with an intermediate degree in any subject area had to work for a bachelor degree in the same area.

The admission for the BL degree program was open to all college graduates whether from the arts, science, commerce, education, or Sanskrit programs. The law college provided a two-year bachelor of law (BL) program with a curriculum centering on the laws of Nepal, India, and England. The law college, located in Kathmandu, became popular both for those
who wanted to study law and those who desired an additional degree.

The Tribhuvan University College, located in Kathmandu, was the only college which offered a master's degree, a program which, included the arts (MA), science (M.Sc.), commerce (M. Com.), education (M. Ed.), and Sanskrit (Acharya). The duration of the master's degree program was 2 to 2 1/2 years. Contrary to students in many western educational systems, almost all the students enrolled in Tribhuvan University College were full-time students.

The faculty of arts offered master's degrees (MAs) in English, Nepali, Hindi, Sanskrit, culture, history, geography, economics, mathematics, and political science (Hedrick & Hedrick, 1972). The faculty of commerce offered the master's degree (M. Com) in commerce (business), with accounting, management and finance the most popular areas within the degree program. The faculty of science offered master's degree programs (M.Sc.) in five major areas: physics, chemistry, zoology, botany, and mathematics. Similarly, the faculty of education offered the master's degree (M. Ed.) in education, with educational administration one of the major areas in the M. Ed. program. The faculty of Sanskrit offered a master's degree program which included the Sanskrit language, Hindu religion, and Nepali language as majors.
Doctoral programs in selected areas had also already been introduced, and in 1970-71, there were 18 doctoral-level students in the faculty of arts (Ministry of Education, 1970). Tribhuvan University did not offer doctoral level programs in other disciplines during the period between 1959 and 1970; in fact, in the time between the establishment of Tribhuvan University in Nepal in 1959 and the end of 1970, the university graduated 8,767 college graduates, 1,851 post-graduates, and only one Ph.D (Hedrick & Hedrick, 1972).

Another unique feature of Tribhuvan University, as compared to western universities, was its provision for noncollegiate students (private students) to take the university examinations. The private students were allowed to take the regular examinations at all degree levels: intermediate, bachelor, and master's. However, such provision was open in the faculty of arts only, and especially in those subjects which did not involve practical examinations.

The decades of the 1950s and 1960s marked the rapid expansion of educational institutions in the country. Every year between 1960 and 1970, the enrollment of students increased by over 10 percent in primary education, by over 12 percent in secondary education, and by over 13 percent in the colleges (UNESCO, Regional Office, 1975). The college enrollment in Nepal increased drastically during this time.
Between 1951 and 1955, the total enrollment figure jumped from 250 to 915. But after the establishment of Tribhuvan University in 1959, the number rose from 4,730 in 1960 to 17,200 in 1969 (See Table 14). The establishment of over 18 colleges in and 11-year period contributed to this increase in enrollment. As a result of increased student enrollment, one of the major problems the university encountered during this period was an acute shortage of faculty and trained supporting staff, and the university hired a considerable number of faculty members from Indian universities.

Table 14

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total Enrollment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1955</td>
<td>915</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>4730</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>8100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966</td>
<td>10230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967</td>
<td>11802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>15000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969</td>
<td>17200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Source: UNESCO, Regional Office, 1972, pp. 48-49.

Most of the faculty members and supporting staff of the government colleges continued to be employees of the Ministry of Education, and these persons were not transferred to the university system. Therefore, Tribhuvan
University had three categories of faculty and supporting staff: (a) the university faculty and staff, (b) the government faculty and staff, and (c) contract service and volunteer faculty and staff. Table 15 indicates the gradual but slow increase in the number of faculty members in 1954, 1960, and 1965-70.

Table 15

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of Faculty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1954</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960</td>
<td>292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966</td>
<td>730</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967</td>
<td>819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968</td>
<td>960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>1070</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Most of the colleges established in Nepal after 1951 were liberal arts colleges, and the enrollment in humanities in 1965 was 3,270 compared to 1,934 in natural sciences in the same year. The total enrollment in education was only 211, and in law only 155. The enrollment in social sciences, however, was 1,878 (see Table 16). Thus, the enrollment pattern in Table 16 indicates that more students were enrolled in liberal arts colleges than in other programs. The students, however, did not have any choices
in this matter. Education, law, and fine arts were the only available fields of study in Nepal other than liberal arts during the period between 1959 and 1960. The college of education, the law college, and the college of fine arts each had only one campus, which limited the possibility of expansion in their enrollment.

Table 16

Post-Secondary Education: Distribution of Enrollment by Field of Study in 1965 and 1966

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1965 Male</th>
<th>1965 Female</th>
<th>1966 Male</th>
<th>1966 Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8100</td>
<td>1380</td>
<td>10230</td>
<td>1766</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>3270</td>
<td>898</td>
<td>7566</td>
<td>1390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Arts</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>145 (^a)</td>
<td>11 (^a)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Science</td>
<td>1878</td>
<td>118</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Science</td>
<td>1934</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>2284</td>
<td>310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Specific</td>
<td>584</td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


\(^a\) Social sciences were included in the humanities.

In addition, most of the colleges established during the period between 1959 and 1970 were two-year liberal arts colleges. The enrollment in higher education in Nepal by discipline and educational level for 1968-69 is given in Table 17. There were 4,568 students enrolled in 2-year
liberal arts colleges working for the intermediate of arts (IA) degree programs. In other words, over 9,000 students enrolled for the intermediate degree compared to only 3,485 students enrolled for bachelor degrees. Since Tribhuvan University College was the only institute of higher learning which provided master's degree programs, the enrollment in master's degree programs for four disciplines (arts, business, science, and education combined) was only 490 students.

Table 17

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discipline</th>
<th>Total Students</th>
<th>Intermediate Level</th>
<th>Bachelor Level</th>
<th>Master Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>6325</td>
<td>4568</td>
<td>1450</td>
<td>307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>3123</td>
<td>2206</td>
<td>847</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>2715</td>
<td>1884</td>
<td>729</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanskrit</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>342</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13097</td>
<td>9051</td>
<td>3485</td>
<td>490</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The examinations for all degree programs at all levels were controlled and administered by the central unit of the university. The examinations were all final comprehensive written and essay-type. The failure rate in all
examinations was very high. In the intermediate-level examinations for all disciplines, except Sanskrit, for example, the percentage of students passing was around 40. The students who failed one subject were considered unsuccessful and, as a result, had to repeat the examination for all subjects. The examinations were normally administered once a year. The Tribhuvan University examination results by disciplines and levels are given in Table 18, which indicates the high percentage of failure in all disciplines and at all levels.

Wood mentioned that there was a heavy wastage of human resources in higher education in Nepal caused by the examination system. Only about 40% of students passed in the intermediate examinations, about 45% passed the liberal arts and science baccalaureate examinations, and about 75% passed the professional baccalaureate examinations (Wood, 1965). An effective implementation of better screening procedures, Wood felt, might have reduced enrollments without reducing the number of graduates.

Contrary to the grading system in western countries, Tribhuvan University employed a grading system adopted from Indian Universities. The grading system of all examinations at all levels was in numbers which were converted into percentages. The percentage was then converted into an appropriate division. The grading criteria of the Tribhuvan University between 1959 and 1970 were as follows: below
30—failure, 30.0-44.9—pass in third division, 45.0-59.9—pass in second division, 60.0-74.9—pass in first division, and 75.00-100.0—pass with distinction. However, some subjects in some disciplines required 36 or 40 out of 100 points to constitute a passing mark.

Table 18

Tribhuvan University Examination Results by Discipline and Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education Level</th>
<th>1960-68 (Cumulative)</th>
<th>1967-68</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>% of Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appeared</td>
<td>Passed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate Level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>11,454</td>
<td>4,548</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>5,679</td>
<td>1,859</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>5,085</td>
<td>2,058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanskrit</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor Level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts</td>
<td>6,726</td>
<td>2,668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>1,864</td>
<td>708</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>1,208</td>
<td>597</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanskrit</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part I</td>
<td>476</td>
<td>297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part II</td>
<td>334</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master Level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts &amp; Science</td>
<td>1,192</td>
<td>1,039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanskrit</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The grading and examination system in Nepal contributed, in part, to the educational waste in the country's higher education. In spite of rapid expansion and establishment of colleges in the country, Nepal had relatively few college graduates in ratio to the total college-level population. Because many of the colleges established were two-year intermediate-level colleges, students completing intermediate programs could often not get enrolled in the limited bachelor degree programs available. This resulted in few college graduates in the country. Gurung (1972) compiled a table showing the total number of graduates in Nepal by major disciplines (see Table 19). Since Tribhuvan University did not offer certain programs, most of the education graduates, all medicine, veterinary, and engineering graduates, and all Ph.Ds were graduated abroad. In addition, some Nepali college graduates in the arts, science, and commerce were also graduated abroad.

In view of the shortage of trained manpower within the country, Nepal gave considerable emphasis to making scholarships available for the Nepali nationals to go abroad for higher education. Since there were limited programs available at the university in Nepal, many Nepali nationals were sent abroad to study in areas such as medicine, engineering, aviation, health, agriculture, forestry,
mining, and doctoral-level education. A large number of students went to India for higher education (see Table 20). Examination of the 1968 figure shows that almost two-thirds of the total students who went abroad for graduate study went to India.

Table 19

Registered Graduates: Classification by Subject

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Number of Graduates</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Liberal Arts</td>
<td>6,041</td>
<td>61.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Science</td>
<td>1,267</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>1,135</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Veterinary</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ph.D.</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9,858</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Source: Gurung, 1972, p. 5.

Sending Nepali students abroad for higher education and training, which started only after 1951, was the direct result of governmental as well as non-governmental efforts to develop the higher education system in Nepal. Therefore, it was expected that the program of overseas training would probably continue until funds and demands were adequate to justify the establishment of additional colleges and universities in Nepal.
The educational activities of Tribhuvan University, therefore, were determined by various governmental as well as non-governmental agencies. Though the Tribhuvan University between the period between 1959 and 1970 was operating as a semi-autonomous body, its educational activities were planned, controlled, and monitored by the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Finance. The National Planning Commission laid down the basic annual achievement and production targets for the university.

The annual budget of Tribhuvan University was prepared by the university. However, the broad guideline for the

Table 20

Estimated Number of Nepalese Nationals Sent to Foreign Countries for Higher Education and Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>1,178</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>638</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>764</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.S.R.</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.K.</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People's Republic of China</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Germany</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others (about 30 countries)</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>2,596</strong></td>
<td><strong>593</strong></td>
<td><strong>922</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

sources of income for the university was always provided by the Ministry of Education which was subject to approval by the National Planning Commission and the Ministry of Finance. The ultimate authority for approval lay with the legislature.

Figures for the total governmental budget of Nepal (1960-71), and the share of education in the total budget, are presented in Table 21. The table also indicates the share of higher education in the education budget. The total percentage of expenditure in higher education was only 3.2% of the total budget allotted for education in 1960-61. The table indicates that there was no established pattern either in increase or in decrease of the funds in higher education. There was no substantial increase of funds in higher education except for the fund allotted for 1970-71, which included the additional fund allotted to implement the New Education Plan of 1971.

Most of the early educational institutions in Nepal were supported by donations and endowments from the various religious groups. The Rana period (1846-1950) marked the beginning of the state control of educational institutions. Trichandra College, the first institution of higher learning established in 1918, was entirely supported and controlled by the government. Private colleges were allowed to establish and operate in Nepal only after 1951, and even some of these private colleges received a certain amount of
financial aid from the government. The Ministry of Education coordinated the higher education institutions in the country until 1958. After the establishment of the Tribhuvan University in 1959, all existing colleges were affiliated with it financially as well as technically. In terms of governmental support, the colleges in Nepal between 1959 and 1970 were divided into the following categories:

(a) fully government-supported colleges, (b) partially government-supported colleges through grants-in-aid, and (c) colleges opened through private initiative with the hope of getting government aid after a few years of successful operation (Agrawal, 1974). Therefore, the educational

### Table 21

**Share of Education in Total Budget of Nepal (1960-1971)**

*(in Millions of Rupees)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>Total Expenditure</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>% of Total Higher Ed.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1960-61</td>
<td>134.8</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>10.61</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961-62</td>
<td>214.7</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962-63</td>
<td>224.7</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963-64</td>
<td>333.9</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1964-65</td>
<td>458.8</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1966-67</td>
<td>546.2</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967-68</td>
<td>667.3</td>
<td>42.7</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1968-69</td>
<td>840.9</td>
<td>50.9</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970-71</td>
<td>973.0</td>
<td>79.2</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** Source: Ministry of Education, 1970, p. 11.
activities of the Tribhuvan University, including all colleges affiliated with it, were influenced by government agencies during this period.

Foreign Aid and Higher Education in Nepal

Foreign aid played an important role in the development of higher education in Nepal, particularly from 1959 to 1970. Several countries, such as China, Russia, the United Kingdom, and the United States in particular, were involved in the development of higher education from 1951, even before the establishment of the Tribhuvan University. The United States of America alone, for example, had provided $20.7 million from 1951 to 1970 (United States Information Services [USIS], 1971). The College of Education, which was established in 1956, also received financial as well as technical assistance from the United States of America (Pant, 1962). However, all the funds in cash and kind provided by any governmental as well non-governmental agencies were channeled through the centralized agency, The Ministry of Finance.

The role of foreign aid in educational financing increased substantially since 1951, and the role of foreign aid has been very important in the development and modernization process in Nepal. The share of foreign aid in the total national budget and the amount provided by some
selected countries, from the fiscal years 1967-68 through 1970-71 are indicated in Table 22.

The role of Indian assistance in the development of higher education in Nepal has been significant from the very beginning. In 1954, 90 scholarships were provided by India, and through 1961 a total of 1,250 persons from Nepal received

Table 22

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Foreign Grants in Thousands of Rupees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Budget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Grants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


higher education in various institutions in India (Pant, 1962). In fact, during this time, the government of India spent about 600 thousand Indian rupees per year on educational programs in Nepal. The Indian Mission to Nepal supported the engineering school at Kathmandu, the forestry school at Hetauda, and the rural institute at Patan. Additional assistance came from agencies like the Ford Foundation, which established the Center for Economic
Development and Administration (CEDA) in Kathmandu in 1969. The function of this center was to assist the Tribhuvan University in providing in-service training and consultancy services, and in conducting applied research. In addition, the center assisted the University in curriculum development, instruction, library services, and research programs.

Tribhuvan University during the period between 1959 and 1970 did not have full control over the development of higher education in the country. Before 1970, in fact, there were no well-defined national policies for education. The 18 new colleges established during this period were often formed without consideration for needs, standards, and quality (see Table 23). Most of these colleges were two-year intermediate colleges with varying enrollments (enrollment in these colleges in 1968-69 academic year, for example, ranged from 17 in Lalitkala College in Kathmandu to 1,279 in Mahendra-Ratna Public College). Political power played an important role in establishing colleges in the country, and any positive impact or rapid growth in the number of colleges, teachers, and students in the educational institutions in Nepal was difficult to assess (see Table 24).

In fact, such unprecedented increases in the number of colleges was regarded as unpurposeful. Education was not
looked upon as a developmental planning system. However, the government from the very beginning had been aware that higher education should be viewed more purposefully and had felt the need for change. Suggestions for improvement were sought from various agencies and individuals from time to time.

Table 23

List of Colleges Established Between 1959-1970

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Est. Enrollment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1968-69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

Kathmandu Valley

1. Tribhuvan University College 1959 561
2. Ratna Rajya Laxmi College 1961 745
3. Saraswati College 1959 NA
4. Mahendra-Ratna Public College 1964 1279
5. Ananda Kuti Science College 1965 190
6. Youth College 1968 461
7. Lalit Kala College 1967 17
8. Nepal Commerce College Patan 1964 525
9. Bhaktapur College, Bhaktapur 1959 275

---

East Nepal

10. Mahendra-Ratna College, Illam 1960 149
11. Mechi College, Bhadrapure 1961 NA
12. Bhajpure College, Bhajpure 1965 111

---

West Nepal

13. Prithwi Narayan College, Pokhara 1960 522
14. Doti Inter College, Doti 1960 NA
15. MBBS College Dang 1959 58
16. Inter College, Kunchha 1965 NA
17. Dhawalagiri Inter College, Baglung 1962 41
18. Laxi Narayan Sanskrit College, Matihen 1968 36

---

Note. Source: Agrawal, 1974, pp. 61-62.
time. These agencies which provided suggestions and recommendations for change included (a) the Nepal National Education Planning Commission in 1954, (b) the UNESCO Team in 1962, (c) the Nepal All-Round National Education Committee in 1966, and (d) the National Education Advisory Council in 1968 ("Nepal," 1977).

In some of the major educational problems identified during the period between 1959 and 1970 were as follows:

1. Education policies and objectives were not well-defined and laid down clearly;

2. The system was based on the unproductive values of society;

3. The system, wholly unrelated to the aims and objectives of the national plans, was not work-oriented;

4. The system did not stress the need for consolidating education institutions, and quantitative

| Table 24 |
|------------------|-----|-----|
| **Progress of Higher Education** | | |
| | 1951 | 1961 | 1970 |
| Number of Institutions | 2 | 33 | 49 |
| Number of Students | 250 | 5,143 | 17,200 |
| Number of Faculty | -- | 417 | 1,070 |

Note. Source: Agrawal, 1974, p. 158.
increases were achieved at the expense of quality.

5. The impact of these cumulative weaknesses and shortcomings was reflected in the high rate of education wastage; and

6. Education administration suffered from its own inherent weaknesses (Ministry of Education, 1971a, pp. 3-7).

The quality of higher education in Nepal, therefore, suffered from a lack of organization and control, low standards of admission, poorly paid teachers, and inadequate facilities. However, there was growing awareness during this period of the need for the improvement and organization of higher education. The establishment and development of Tribhuvan University provided at least an administrative structure for supervising and controlling the development of Nepal's higher education with quality assurance. In view of all the problems in education faced by the country, His Majesty's government of Nepal took a major step in implementing the New Education System Plan of 1971, which provided for drastic reform in education from the primary through the higher levels of education in the country.
The sweeping political changes between 1951 and 1960 marked the beginning of a prosperous era in the field of higher education. The establishment of the Ministry of Education in 1951 and the creation of the Nepal National Educational Planning Commission (NNEPC) in 1954 and the all-round National Education Committee in 1961 inaugurated the beginnings of higher education in Nepal with over 45 colleges established during the period between 1951 and 1970. Tribhuvan University, the only national institute of higher education, was also established in 1959, although the university did not function as a complete and comprehensive university at that time.

In spite of these developments in higher education in Nepal, the slow pace of economic development and the deteriorating living conditions of the people were causes for alarm in the country, a fact that was realized by the nation's third five-year plan 1965-70, which indicated a shortage of trained manpower for national development (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], Regional Office, 1984b). Nepal had
failed to weld together its diversely oriented educational systems—Sanskrit, vernacular, and Western educations—into one unified national system, and the National Educational System Plan (NESP) of 1971 was therefore developed and implemented to deal with the shortage of trained/educated manpower and the scattered educational system in the country. This plan drastically changed the structure, organization, and programs of higher education in Nepal. Tribhuvan University was itself reorganized and restructured, with its educational activities also restructured accordingly.

Therefore, based on a review of the major developments that occurred during the period between 1971 and 1985, the educational activities of Tribhuvan University may be discussed under the following subheadings: (a) the New Educational Plan of 1971, and (b) the impact of the New Education Plan on the role and functions of Tribhuvan University.

The New Educational Plan of 1971

In 1971, the National Educational System Plan (NESP) was launched to improve the overall educational system of the country. The comprehensive objectives of the NESP were to increase the level of functional literacy, to best utilize the available resources in education, and to meet the manpower need of the country. The major emphases of the
NESP were as follows:

1. Strengthening and expanding vocational and technical education to meet the needed manpower for the implementation of the national development plans;

2. Strengthening the education management by decentralizing the implementation of the Plan through the creation of regional, zonal, and district-level organization;

3. Developing curriculum and distributing textbooks and other materials to bring about uniformity and standardization;

4. Expanding the educational opportunities by opening new schools, by providing scholarships and other incentives for disadvantaged groups, and by opening functional literacy classes for adults; and

5. Increasing the number of trained teachers by providing training facilities for both pre-service and in-service training (UNESCO, Regional Office, 1984b).

Another landmark in the country's higher education was the Tribhuvan University Act, which was initiated by the New Education Plan, both of which were also formed in 1971. The main aim of the New Education Plan was identified as follows:

The plan is primarily aimed at counter-acting the elitist bias of the inherited system of education by linking it more effectively to productive enterprises and egalitarian principles. It, in brief, is committed to tackle irrelevant and disorganized varieties of
education into one production system that serves the country's need and aspiration. (Tribhuvan University: Profile, 1988, p. 4)

In order to achieve these redefined objectives, therefore, the educational system of Nepal had to be drastically reorganized at all levels.

The objective of higher education, according to this plan, was primarily to produce graduates at different levels to meet the manpower needs of the country. Tribhuvan University was, thus, reorganized and made responsible for planning, organizing, implementing, and evaluating all types of post-secondary education in the country while the Ministry of Education and Culture was made responsible for implementing the primary, secondary, and adult education programs in the country. The main features of the New Education Plan may be discussed under the following areas: (a) characteristics of the plan, and (b) Implementing agencies.

**Characteristics of the New Education Plan**

According to the New Education System Plan (NESP), the chief goal of education was to meet the manpower requirements of the development process through the spread of scientific and technical education. Another goal was to generate a deeper faith in the national heritage and the panchayat system (Ministry of Education, 1971a). Because of
The concern in the manpower shortage, this plan gave high priority to technical and vocational education.

Although reliable manpower estimates were lacking in Nepal at the time, the New Education Plan of 1971 provided an approximate estimate of the country's manpower need (see Table 25). The 1971 Plan based its estimate on the following premises: (a) Nepal's national income was expected to go up 20 percent in the next five years, (b) the attrition in existing manpower was estimated at 5 percent per annum, (c) the need for highly skilled manpower would be twice the growth rate of the national income (40 percent in the next five years), and (d) the middle-level manpower requirement would be 50 percent more than that of the higher-level manpower with the low-level manpower requirements twice that of the middle-level manpower (Ministry of Education, 1971b).

Table 25

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Manpower Needs in Nepal</th>
<th>Existing 1971</th>
<th>Need Projection 1975</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High-level</td>
<td>7,648</td>
<td>10,707</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle-level</td>
<td>5,761</td>
<td>16,061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower-level</td>
<td>4,333</td>
<td>32,121</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 25 indicates that an acute shortage of lower and middle-level manpower existed in the country in Nepal and justified the new Plan’s target on meeting the manpower need of the country.

**Educational structure.** The New Education Plan prescribed a new educational structure (see Figure 1). According to the new structure, high school education was divided into three levels: (a) primary education from grades 1 to 3, whose aim was literacy; b) lower secondary
education from grades 4 to 7, whose aim was character-
building, and (c) secondary education from grades 8 to 10,
whose aim was the production of skilled vocational workers,
on the one hand, and the preparation for college education
on the other (Ministry of Education, 1971b).

Secondary education was further divided into three
streams: (a) general high school education, (b) Sanskrit
education, and (c) vocational education. A general high
school education included courses that could prepare
students for higher education. Sanskrit education
specifically prepared for a college-level Sanskrit
education. Vocational education was designed to produce
skilled vocational workers and had two objectives: (a) to
provide job opportunities for high school graduates and (b)
to meet the national requirements for low-level skilled
workers.

Similarly, The New Education Plan of 1971 divided
higher education in Nepal into four levels: (a)
certificate-level (Intermediate-level) which produced low-
level manpower; (b) diploma-level (Bachelor degree-level)
which produced middle-level manpower; (c) degree-level
(Master's degree-level) which produced high-level manpower;
and (d) research-level (Post master's or doctoral-level)
which produced specialized manpower.
Various institutes of Tribhuvan University were made responsible for providing the specific assigned levels of education and producing the targeted number of trained manpower. The name for each level has now been changed from intermediate to certificate, bachelor to diploma, master's to degree, and doctoral to research.

**Enrollment Pyramid.** The New Education Plan prescribed an enrollment pattern in each level of education from primary through higher levels. The enrollment pyramid prescribed by the plan indicated the pattern shown in Figure 2.

Another special feature of the NESP of 1971 was the government commitment to supporting education at all levels. The total budget for the New Education Plan period between 1971-76, for example, was about Rs 576.2 million. The fund allotted to education increased from Rs 71.5 million in 1972 to Rs 158.4 million in 1976.

The fund for education was provided by the government. Although technical education received complete financial support from the government, the government contribution for non-technical education amounted to 25 to 50 percent of the teacher's salaries. For example, while the total cost for technical higher education was Rs 44 million, that for non-technical was Rs 21.5 million (Agrawal, 1974). Similarly, the cost per student annually on the technical side was Rs 1260 and Rs 520 for general education. Overall,
Figure 2. Enrollment pyramid in the New Education Plan of Nepal. Source: Ministry of Education, 1971b, p. 68.
approximately 8 percent of the total national expenditure was allotted for education in general, with about 12 percent of it was allotted for higher education (Agrawal, 1974) (see Table 26).

Table 26

**Estimated Cost of Higher Education in Nepal During the 1971-76 plan Period**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Estimated Enrollment</th>
<th>Cost per student</th>
<th>Estimated Total Cost (Million Rs.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>5,000</td>
<td>1,260</td>
<td>6,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>6,050</td>
<td>1,260</td>
<td>1,623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>7,050</td>
<td>1,260</td>
<td>8,883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>7,980</td>
<td>1,260</td>
<td>10,055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>8,800</td>
<td>1,260</td>
<td>11,088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>43,949</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**GENERAL EDUCATION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Estimated Enrollment</th>
<th>Teacher Cost Per Student</th>
<th>Estimated Cost In Million Rs.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>5,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>18,150</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>4,719</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>16,420</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>4,269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>14,820</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>3,853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>13,200</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>3,432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>21,473</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implementing Agencies

The New Education Plan was implemented by the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC) and Tribhuvan University. The Ministry of Education and Culture was responsible for implementing the primary, secondary, and adult education in the country. Tribhuvan University, on the other hand, was made responsible for implementing all levels of higher education.

The New Education Plan was enforced throughout the country in three phases which were to be completed over a five-year period. The phases were experiment, implementation, and consolidation. The plan was introduced in two districts in the first year (1971-72), in 13 districts in 1972-73, in 16 districts in 1973-74, in 20 districts in 1974-75, and finally in 24 districts in 1975-76 (UNESCO, Regional Office, 1979).

The Ministry of Education and Culture. The Ministry of Education, for the first time in the history of Nepal, was established on February 19, 1951 for the purpose of developing, coordinating, and implementing the education programs in the country (Heath, 1962). As the Ministry of Education had been an important governmental agency in the development of higher education since its implementation, the New Education plan of 1971 forced the Ministry to make necessary changes in its organizational
structure to accommodate the new changes and additional responsibilities set forth by the Plan.

The ministry had three major divisions: (a) school administration, (b) general administration, and (c) planning. These divisions were further divided into 11 sub-divisions (see Figure 3). The higher education scholar sub-division, one of these 11 divisions, was responsible for higher education scholar programs. This sub-division was to select potential individuals from among the high school and college graduates and send them for higher education abroad.

The overall function of the Ministry was to carry out educational policies and programs provided by the National Education Committee and National Planning Commission. The Ministry:

1. provided necessary information to the NEC for policy decisions;

2. assisted the NPC in the formulation of periodic plans;

3. prepared annual programs on the basis of the development plan and submitted them to the NPC for formal approval;

4. formulated necessary regulations for school-level education;

5. prepared projects and negotiated with donor agencies;
Figure 3. Organization of the Ministry of Education and Culture.

6. allotted new schools and additional teacher quotas to the districts;

7. provided grants to the schools through District Education Committee;

8. kept accounts of financial expenditure and prepared statements for auditing;

9. monitored progress of various projects and programs;

10. handled personnel administration of its employees;

11. provided grants to the university;

12. prepared materials for adult education programs;

13. implemented the adult education programs and monitored their performance;

14. prepared plans for the training of in-service teachers; and

15. got educational laws and by-laws enacted (UNESCO, Regional Office, 1984b, pp. 8-10).

A high-level National Education Committee (NEC) was established for the purpose of laying down the educational policy at the national level and implementing the New Education Plan of 1971. The functions of this National Education Committee were to:

1. supervise the implementation of the New Education Plan;

2. formulate policies and issue directives;
3. coordinate the functions of Tribhuvan University, the Ministry of Education, and other Ministries concerned with enforcing the plan;

4. evaluate the progress of the entire educational program;

5. report to His Majesty, the king, on the educational progress from time to time; and

6. clarify the plan as and when required (Ministry of Education, 1971b, p. 14).

The Minister of Education and Culture was the chairperson of the National Education Committee. The vice chancellor, along with other distinguished individuals nominated by the king, were members of the committee.

Tribhuvan University. Tribhuvan University, the only institute of higher education in Nepal, was made responsible for implementing all post-secondary or higher education programs in the country. For this purpose, Tribhuvan University was reorganized drastically at all levels.

The university was an autonomous body but functioned within the guidelines, rules, and policies of the National Education Committee. Tribhuvan University was governed by the Tribhuvan University Council and administered by the chancellor, the pro-chancellor, the vice chancellor, the rector, and the Registrar at the central level.

Previously, the governance of Tribhuvan University had been vested in the Tribhuvan University Senate. According
to the Tribhuvan University Act of 1971, however, the Tribhuvan University Senate was replaced by the Tribhuvan University Council. The structure of the Tribhuvan University Council was not different from that of the University Senate, but the new governing body represented all cross sections of the Nepalese population. The Council was headed by the chancellor. The structure of the Tribhuvan University Council was as follows (see Table 27):

Table 27

Structure of the University Council

The Chancellor (the King)--chairperson
High Prince Himalaya B. B. Shaha--life-long member
High Prince Basundhara B. B. Shaha--life-long member
The Pro-Chancellor--vice-chairperson
The Vice-Chancellor--member
The Secretary (MOEC)--member
The deans--members
The Rector--member-secretary
The Registrar--member
Two elected professors--members
Five elected graduates--members
Two members of the Rastriay Panchayat nominated by the King--members
Table 27—continued

Four government officers nominated by the King—members
Two members from among merchants nominated by the King—members
Two members from among journalists nominated by the King—members
Two members from among students nominated by the King—members
Two members from among donors nominated by the King—members
Four other individuals nominated by the King—members


The University Council established statutes pertaining to formation, power, and functions of the institutes, research centers, and other bodies of the university. The council also formulated regulations relating to qualifications, appointment, term, and condition of service of all technical as well as supporting personnel of the university. The council instituted certificates and degrees and awarded them. The council was also responsible for developing and issuing directives to the other bodies of the university as and when needed (UNESCO, Regional Office, 1984b). The Tribhuvan University Council had the power and
authority to form special committees, approve long-term
development plans, and grant affiliation to private colleges
(Tribhuvan University: Profile, 1988).

The Executive Board was another central-level body
which was made responsible for implementing the decisions
made by the University Council as well as by the National
Education Committee (The Ministry of Education). The Board
consisted of the vice chancellor, the rector, and selected
deans. The registrar functioned as the member-secretary of
the Executive Board.

A technical committee was also established for the
purpose of overseeing academics as well as policies related to
administrative matters. The committee consisted of the vice
chancellor, the rector, the registrar, the deans, the
secretary of education and culture, and a few other

According to the Tribhuvan University Act of 1971, the
administration and management of the university was
drastically reorganized in order to incorporate the new
changes. The university administration was broadly divided
into the central-level organization, the institute and
research center-level organization, and the campus-level
organization (see Figure 4). Under the policy guidelines
and broad framework provided by the National Education
Committee, for example, Tribhuvan University implemented all
Figure 4. Tribhuvan University organization chart. Source: UNESCO, 1984, p. 18.
post-secondary education in Nepal, framing and approving its operational rules and regulations.

According to the new arrangement, the Tribhuvan University Council, executive committee, Tribhuvan University Commission, and technical committee were the central-level bodies, and the chancellor, pro-chancellor, vice-chancellor, rector, and registrar comprised the central-level officers. The chancellor of the university had been His Majesty the King, and the Minister of Education and Culture had been the ex officio pro-chancellor. His Majesty the King continued to be the chancellor of Tribhuvan University, with the authority to nominate another person as the chancellor of the university. The chancellor had the right to preside over the meetings of the University Council, and could also nominate the vice chancellor, rector, registrar, and other members and/or officials of the university.

As before, the Minister of Education and Culture remained the pro-chancellor of Tribhuvan University. In his absence, the pro-chancellor had to preside over the meetings of the Tribhuvan University Council and to take chair at the convocation. He also had to act as the chairman of the National Education Committee.

The role and functions of the vice-chancellor were not changed as a result of the new plans. The vice-chancellor...
continued to be the chief administrative and academic executive of the university, appointed by the chancellor for a period of four years (*Tribhuvan University: Profile*, 1988). In the absence of the chancellor and the pro-chancellor, the vice-chancellor had to preside over the university Council meetings and to chair the university convocation. The vice-chancellor was assisted by the rector in academic matters and by the Registrar in fiscal and administrative matters.

The position of the rector in the university system was provided by the Tribhuvan University Act of 1971. Accordingly, the rector became the new academic chief of the university, responsible for making policies, plans, and programs relating to areas like curriculum, textbooks, library, and all other related aspects. The rector was appointed by the chancellor for a period of three years (*Tribhuvan University, 1971*). According to the second amendment (1976) of the Tribhuvan University Act of 1971, the rector also had to function as the member-secretary of the Tribhuvan University Council (*Tribhuvan University: Profile, 1988*). The rector was further responsible for coordinating and evaluating all academic as well as research activities of the institutes and the research centers.

The registrar of Tribhuvan University was also appointed by the chancellor for a period of 5 years. As before, the registrar continued to be responsible for the
general, fiscal, personnel, and examination administration of the university.

The institute and research center-level organization was structured after the central-level organization. Each institute was headed by a dean, who was appointed by the chancellor for a period of four years (Tribhuvan University: Profile, 1988). The dean in each institute was responsible for academic as well as administrative matters. In place of the former six faculties (arts, science, commerce, law, agriculture, and education), seven institutes were established: humanities and social science; education; Sanskrit; business administration, commerce, and public administration; science; law; and agriculture and animal science (UNESCO, Regional Office, 1984b). In addition, five new institutes were added, making a total of 12 institutes under Tribhuvan University. The five new institutes were applied science and technology, medicine, engineering, forestry, and Nepal and Asian studies (see Table 28). Table 25, above, indicates the institutes and their educational levels.

Each institute had a faculty board, which prepared the curriculum and set requirements for admission and examinations. Subject committees handled the different subjects of each institute and were responsible for advising and suggesting changes, and developing, reviewing, and
Table 28  

The Institutes of Higher Education of Tribhuvan University  
and their Education Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutes</th>
<th>Certificate</th>
<th>Diploma</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Humanities and Social Science</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanskrit</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Ad. Com. and Pub. Ad.</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture and Animal Science</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applied Science &amp; Technology</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forestry</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal and Asian Studies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


amending curricula, subject to the approval by the faculty board.

The second amendment (1976) of the Tribhuvan University Act of 1971 reduced the number of institutes from 12 to 10 (Tribhuvan University: Profile, 1988). The ten institutes were classified as technical institutes and general institutes. The technical institutes included: (a) agricultural and animal science, (b) engineering, (c) education, (d) forestry, and (e) medicine. The general
institutes included: (a) business administration, commerce, and public administration, (b) humanities and social sciences, (c) law, (d) science, and (e) Sanskrit.

Previously, the research activities in Nepalese colleges had been carried out with assistance from outside the country. No established organization in the country existed to carry out special or ongoing research or a study program. The New Educational Plan of 1971 provided an organization in the university system to conduct research activities. The research division, under the direct authority of the rector's office, was designed to coordinate the research activities of the institutes and other governmental as well as non-governmental agencies.

In addition, at the institute level, the research committees were responsible for planning, organizing, and carrying out various research programs within their disciplines. The research division at the center level was made responsible for coordinating research activities in the institutes as well as at the research center level.

The reorganization of Tribhuvan University also made provision for several research centers at the institute-level, headed by the executive director. In the early part of the 1970s, there were two research centers. Later on, the number of centers increased to four: (a) the Nepal and Asian Research Center (CNAS), (b) the Research Center for Economic Development and Administration (CEDA), (c) the
Research Center for Applied Science and Technology (RECAST), and (d) the Center for Education Research and Innovation Development (CERID) (Tribhuvan University: Profile, 1988). Tribhuvan University in Nepal thus distinguished itself from other universities in the region in terms of having these various research centers organized at the central level.

The actual operation of educational activities was carried out at the various campuses (colleges) in Nepal. There were 49 colleges in the country by the end of 1970. In 1974-75, the number of colleges jumped from 49 to 77, and all of these colleges were affiliated to the 12 institutes. According to the latest figures (at the end of 1985), there were 63 colleges supported and controlled by Tribhuvan University with a total enrollment of about 53,174 students (see Appendix N). In addition, about 66 private colleges which were affiliated with the university were also receiving academic assistance (Tribhuvan University: Profile, 1988). These figures indicate that the role and functions of Tribhuvan University increased drastically within 15 years of its major reorganization in 1971. If this trend continues into the late 1980s and beyond, Tribhuvan University will continue to be a large, comprehensive institute of higher learning not only in Nepal but in the whole of the Asian region.
One of the major goals of higher education, according to the New Education Plan of 1971, was to decrease enrollment in general disciplines from 80 to 40 percent and to increase enrollment in technical studies from 20 to 60 percent ("Nepal," 1977). To achieve this goal, the Ministry of Education had to authorize the number of students to be admitted to the institutes on the basis of manpower needs. The new plan, in general, allowed about 19% of all students with a secondary education to be enrolled in the colleges throughout the country. The entrance into the certificate-level program was based on possession of the School Learning Certificate (S.L.C.) and successful completion of an entrance examination. Similarly, admission to diploma-level study was based on the possession of a certificate and successful completion of an entrance examination. Admission to the degree-level program was based on the possession of a diploma and the successful completion of the entrance examination. Because of these policies, entrance examination has been criticized as being a tool of the government to limit admission to the pre-arranged quota.

The vice-chancellor at the central level, the deans at the institute level, and the campus chief were responsible for the establishment and maintenance of academic standards. The university offered programs at four levels, with each lower level being a prerequisite for entrance into the next level.
With regard to the educational programs, the New Education Plan of 1971 did not prescribe new curricula for higher education. However, the plan made the following provisions:

1) The university will constitute a committee composed of experts and teachers of concerned disciplines to prescribe the curricula of the various institutes prior to this establishment.
2) The curricula will be decided upon from an interdisciplinary angle; each institute will offer various options to the students apart from the principal subjects.
3) Along with the adopting of the principle of making education vocation oriented, attention will also be given to the need for a standard curriculum in general subjects; practical and experimental knowledge will get emphasis at the degree level.
4) the university will encourage textbook preparations by the teaching faculty. New ideas and thoughts will also be encouraged, it will be incumbent on the teachers to continuously raise their intellectual standard. (Ministry of Education, 1971b, pp. 21-22)

Based on these provisions, the university was responsible for developing curricular as well as extra-curricular activities in all colleges throughout the country.

Despite the implementation of the new program in 1971, Tribhuvan University continued to have problems with a shortage of faculty members. Tribhuvan University classified its teaching staff into (a) the professor, (b) the reader, (c) the lecturer, and (d) the assistant lecturer. Since Tribhuvan University did not expand its educational activities until 1970, it had only a few teaching staff members of its own. Most of its faculty members were employed by the Ministry of Education. By the
end of 1984, for example, there were only 53 professors in total (29 in humanities and social sciences, 13 in science, 3 in management, 3 in education, 4 in medicine, and one in Sanskrit) ("Nepal," 1984).

Tribhuvan University also had three categories of lower-level teaching staff: instructor, deputy-instructor, and assistant instructor. The instructors did not have academic qualifications suitable to the post of assistant lecturer but did possess a vocational background and experience. In spite its awareness of its problem in this area, Tribhuvan University has continued with a shortage of faculty members into the late 1980s.

Impacts of the National Education Plan of 1971 on the Role and Functions of Tribhuvan University

The New Education Plan of 1971 had a great impact on the role and functions of Tribhuvan University. This plan of 1971 added more responsibilities to the university in the development of higher education in Nepal. The governance, administration and management, and educational activities of the university were dramatically reorganized, rephased, and reinstated. The creation of 12 institutes in place of 6 faculties and the establishment of several new colleges all added to this increase of responsibilities. Most importantly, the added objective of manpower development, the transfer of many government-run training programs, and
the changes in the role of governmental as well as non-governmental agencies on the educational activities of the Tribhuvan University were some of the major impacts of the New Education Plan of 1971.

As had been indicated, the production of various levels and types of manpower requirements for the development of national activities became one of the main objectives of the university. In other words, the objective of higher education, according to the New Education Plan of 1971, was to produce manpower at different levels in all disciplines (Tribhuvan University: Profile, 1988). The establishment of new and additional programs or colleges, recruitment of students, and production of graduates were all made directly related to the manpower required for the development of the country. Higher education, according to the new arrangement of 1971, was therefore divided into the four levels of certificate, diploma, degree, and research in order to achieve this manpower production goal. These new degree names replaced the former names of intermediate, bachelor, masters, and doctoral, respectively.

The economic development in Nepal, especially after the establishment of various ministries in 1951, created a demand for specialized technical and vocational education of many times and levels. Due to the lack of higher education institutions in the country, each ministry started its own
basic as well as inservice training programs to meet the
various manpower needs. In 1962, 24 separate training
institutes were identified, with more than 124 staff members
offering training to about 1,562 persons (Wood, 1965).
Several training institutions were established under health,
agriculture, forestry, home economics, industry,
engineering, and administration, including teacher training
centers under the Ministry of Education. Each ministry
planned, organized, and implemented such training programs
(see Table 29).

Table 29
Selected Data on Specialized Training in Nepal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutions and Fields</th>
<th>1961</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enrollment</td>
<td>Staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>1,562</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>HEALTH</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurses Training School</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Mission Hospital</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Assistants School</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY, HOME ECONOMICS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural Institutes (2)</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School of Agriculture</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dairy Training</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forestry Institute</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Econ. Training School</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irrigation School</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 29—continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDUSTRY</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cottage Ind. Training Center</td>
<td>466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swiss Mechan. Training School</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Red Cross Tibetan Relief School</td>
<td>280</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ENGINEERING</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engineering School</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overseers Training</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cadastral Survey Schools (4)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining Training School</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telecommunication School</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ADMINISTRATION</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clerk-Secret. Training Center</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population Census Training</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Such institutions received financial and technical assistance from friendly countries as well as from international and regional agencies. The World Health Organization (WHO), the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), and the Protestant Mission Hospital (Shanta Bhawan Hospital) sponsored nurses, health assistants, and Auxiliary Health Workers (AHW) training programs. Similarly, USAID, Indian Aid Mission (IAM), the Ford Foundation, and the Swiss Technical Aid Mission sponsored training institutions for village development workers, dairy workers, agricultural technicians, forestry specialists, and irrigation specialists.
The Ford Foundation in Nepal, the German Aid Mission, and the Swiss Technical Aid Mission all sponsored both training institutions for industries and mechanics. Similarly, several engineering schools and telecommunication schools were established to train overseers and communication specialists. Several training centers were established to train government administrative personnel, while other training centers were also established in aviation, publicity, survey and statistics, administration, cooperatives, law, police, taxes and customs, tourism, and the military (Wood, 1965). All of these training centers continued producing the type and level of manpower needed for the concerned ministries until the end of 1970.

In 1971, Tribhuvan University, was made responsible for taking over all the above-mentioned technical as well as vocational training programs without disrupting the continuity of manpower production of each ministry. Since the National Education Committee had already handed over the structures, levels, and types of programs to Tribhuvan University, the reorganization and rephasing of many of these programs became the university's responsibility. The university had not only to reinstate the admission and degree requirements, the duration of the programs, and the type, location, and levels of the programs, but also had to raise the admission requirements for many of these programs, as well. The admission requirements for the assistant nurse
midwives and auxiliary health worker programs, for example, were raised from an eighth-grade to a high school diploma. Because the transfer of such training programs to the university's programs also included the transfer of manpower, materials, equipment, physical plants, and the budget of each program, the university's responsibilities were even further increased.

Another major impact of the New Education Plan of 1971 on the role and function of the Tribhuvan University occurred in the role governmental as well as non-governmental agencies played in the university's educational activities. The National Planning Commission (NNPC), in coordination with the National Education Committee and the Finance Ministry, was responsible for determining the targets, plans and programs for Tribhuvan University. The NNPC appointed by the king was responsible for preparing national plans and implementing them through the relevant government agencies. The NNPC, chaired by the prime minister, was composed of other members nominated by the King (Shrestha, 1975). The NNPC had to provide broad outlines and targets on the basis of which each ministry was asked to develop a detailed program. However, the NNPC reserved the final authority for accepting or rejecting the programs proposed by the ministries.
In addition to the NNPC, the Ministry of Education continued to be an important governmental agency in determining the educational activities of the university. The Ministry of Education, through the National Education Committee and the NNPC, determined the long-term as well as short-term goals for the university. Another major role of the Ministry of Education and Culture was to provide grant aid to the university (UNESCO, Regional Office, 1984b). Both the funds and their target programs were coordinated by the Ministry of Finance, and since the major portion of the university's general fund was provided by the government, the role of the Ministry of Finance was important in determining the educational activities of the university.

From 1971 to 1985, the Ministry of Finance continued to have control over the university's budget, including foreign aid. The Foreign Aid Division of the Ministry of Finance also continued controlling all the foreign aid provided to the university by various national and international agencies.

Foreign aid, both in cash and kind, represented an important source of funds for the Tribhuvan University during this period. Foreign aid amounted to more than 50 percent of Tribhuvan University's budget (see Table 30). In medicine, forestry, and engineering, foreign aid during the period between 1983 and 1985 was significantly higher than Tribhuvan University's budget. Table 30 also
indicates that all the technical or professional programs were heavily supported by foreign aid.
Table 30

Tribhuvan University Budget in 1983-85

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutes</th>
<th>1983-84</th>
<th>1984-85</th>
<th>1985-86</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TU</td>
<td>Foreign Aid</td>
<td>TU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture and Animal Science</td>
<td>78,75,000</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>86,93,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>1,08,81,700</td>
<td>9,69,32,000</td>
<td>1,05,12,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forestry</td>
<td>29,05,500</td>
<td>76,46,000</td>
<td>27,61,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine</td>
<td>1,75,33,550</td>
<td>6,65,04,000</td>
<td>1,75,11,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science &amp; Technology</td>
<td>3,19,98,250</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>2,74,13,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>1,63,76,500</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>1,58,62,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>60,42,000</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>43,21,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>1,58,28,250</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>1,42,61,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities &amp; Soc. Sc.</td>
<td>3,51,99,750</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>3,45,74,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanskrit</td>
<td>64,67,200</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>69,61,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total budget</td>
<td>14,80,67,500</td>
<td>17,10,80,000</td>
<td>14,26,11,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>81.06</td>
<td>98.19</td>
<td>77.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Total Budget</td>
<td>35,62,05,000</td>
<td>30,43,62,000</td>
<td>47,42,91,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, OBSERVATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY, AND CONCLUSIONS

The establishment of Tribhuvan University in 1959 and its dramatic reorganization in 1971 marked the beginning of a comprehensive institution of higher education in Nepal. The university's educational activities have increased tremendously since its founding, and with the full support of the government as well as other national and international agencies, the number of colleges under the university had increased from 19 in 1959 to 49 in 1970. By the end of 1985, Tribhuvan University had 62 colleges under its full financial and academic control. In addition, Tribhuvan University has provided its affiliated support to about 66 other private colleges in the country. In spite of the political instability and slower rate of economic growth in the country during the 1960s and 1970s, the university has maintained its academic standards and proved to be an important institution of higher education not only in Nepal but also in the southeast Asia region.

Summary

The story of Tribhuvan university and its development and educational activities, are directly related to the
historical development of Nepal. Historically, Nepal has passed through several political, social, economic, and demographic changes. Based on these changes, Nepal's historical development may be divided into: (a) the early period (before 1767), (b) the period of political unification (1768-1845), (c) the period of Ranacracry (1846-1950), and (d) the post-independent era (after 1951). Each of these periods was significant to the development of the educational programs in the country.

A comprehensive history and accounting of the educational activities of Tribhuvan University in Nepal was not available to this researcher. However, various historical accounts of the country indicated certain educational developments in the country which were related to the university's establishment and development. Based on these accounts, the history of Tribhuvan University and its educational activities indicated the following three major phases of development:

1. higher education before the establishment of Tribhuvan University;

2. Tribhuvan University and its educational activities from 1959-1970; and


The establishment of Trichandra College in 1918 to educate members of the Rana dynasty marked the beginning of
higher education in Nepal. However, the expansion and development of this college was controlled by the hereditary Rana rulers who were opposed to the availability of education to the general public. Trichandra College, therefore, continued to be the only college (except the Balmiki Sanskrit College) in the country until the end of Rana rule in 1951. The establishment of the democratic government in 1951 marked the beginning of the expansion of higher education in the country. Based on these historical accounts, Nepal's educational development before the establishment of Tribhuvan University may be classified into: (a) the early period (before 1767), (b) the period of negligence (1768-1845), (c) the period of opposition (1846-1950), and (d) the period of expansion (1951-58). Each of these periods characterized a specific stage in the development of education in Nepal.

Before 1767, Nepal was divided into several principalities, each ruled by the king. Even the Kathmandu Valley, the present capital city of Nepal, was divided into four principalities. It was King Prithwi Narayan Shaha of Gorkha state who united several such principalities, including the Kathmandu Valley, and formed a new united Nepal in 1768.

The educational system in Nepal before 1767 was influenced chiefly by religions: Hinduism and Buddhism.
Brahminic or Sanskrit education was regarded as the indigenous educational system in Nepal and played an important role in performing all social and state ceremonies. There was no formal institute of higher learning in Nepal before 1767. However, historical accounts indicate that there were several monastaries (Buddhist institutes of higher learning) already established around the eighth century in the northern part of Nepal and Tibet (College of Education, 1956).

The history of present-day Nepal began only in 1768. King Prithwi Narayan Shaha and his followers spent their chief time and effort in unifying and expanding the territory of Nepal, which continued until 1845 when the prime minister Junga Bahadure Rana established the hereditary Rana dictatorship in Nepal. Because all significant educational activities were neglected during the period between 1768 and 1845, there was no institute of higher education established during this period.

The period between 1846 and 1951 marked the hereditary dictatorship of the Rana family. All of the nine Rana prime ministers, who ruled for 104 years, kept the country isolated from the outside world and ruled the country for their own benefits. During this time, there was no political or economic infrastructure in the country. All the important government positions were captured by the members of the Rana families. The Ranas held the belief
that they could rule the country as long as the people remained ignorant and subservient to their established authority. For them, therefore, education for the public was seen as politically dangerous.

Education in Nepal during this period, as a result, was not only neglected but deliberately opposed. This period between 1846 and 1950 is thus characterized as the period of opposition to education. The public was not allowed to establish schools or colleges, and in fact, no higher education institute in the country existed until 1918 when Chandra Shamsher Rana, one of the Rana prime ministers (1903-1929), reluctantly established Trichandra College for the purpose of providing higher education to the children of the Rana family and their followers. This college continued to be the only college until 1948, when the second college, the Balmiki Sanskrit College, was established. These two colleges were the only two institutions of higher education in Nepal until the end of the Rana rule in 1951.

The end of the Rana rule and the establishment of a constitutional government in 1951 opened the door for higher education in Nepal. Accordingly, the Ministry of Education established several public colleges and granted permission for the establishment of many private colleges in the country. As a result, the number of colleges rose from 2 in 1951 to 19 in 1958. The Ministry of Education
founded the National Education Planning Commission (NEPC) in 1954 for the purpose of developing the national policy and programs on education. The NEPC strongly recommended the establishment of a national university in Nepal. Based on the NEPC's recommendation, Tribhuvan University, the first national university in Nepal, was established in 1959.

After the establishment of Tribhuvan University in Nepal, all existing public and private colleges became affiliated with it. No one was the academic matters of all the existing colleges prescribed by Tribhuvan University, but the operation of the educational programs of all of those colleges were also supervised by the university, as well. However, in terms of administration, all of the public colleges continued to be controlled by the Ministry of Education and all of the private colleges by their respective managing committees. The university had six faculties: (a) arts, (b) science, (c) commerce, (d) law, (e) education, and (f) agriculture.

Structurally, Tribhuvan University had a senate, syndicate, and an academic council. The chancellor, the pro-chancellor, the vice-chancellor, the treasurer, and the registrar were the university's central-level officials.

Early Tribhuvan University awarded degrees at four levels: (a) intermediate (associate), (b) bachelor, (c) master's, and (d) doctoral. The intermediate degree programs included the arts (IA), science (ISC), commerce
(ICom), education (IEd.), and Sanskrit (purba madhyana). Similarly, the bachelor degrees included arts (BA), science (BSc), Commerce (BCom), law (BL), education (BEd), and Sanskrit (Shastri). The Tribhuvan University College located in Kathmandu was the only college within the university system that offered master's degree programs in arts, science, commerce, education, and Sanskrit.

The establishment of several new colleges during the period between 1959 to 1970 increased enrollment significantly. The total student enrollment rose from 4,730 in 1960 to 17,200 in 1969 (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], Regional Office, 1972). However, the examination system controlled and administered by the university caused a high percentage of failure at all levels. In fact, the grading and examination system in Nepal contributed to a certain amount of educational waste during this period. In spite of the rapid expansion of colleges in the country during this time, Nepal had relatively few college graduates in ratio to the total college-level population.

Tribhuvan University during the period between 1959 and 1970 did not function as a comprehensive and autonomous university. The Ministry of Education, which controlled the university's funds and a large number of the personnel working in the university, therefore, chiefly influenced the
educational activities of the university. Further, all of the external sources of funds for the university were controlled by the Finance Ministry, although foreign aid to the university also played a significant role in determining its education activities.

The Tribhuvan University Act of 1971, which was initiated by the New Educational System Plan of 1971, drastically changed the structure and functions of the university. According to the new arrangement, Tribhuvan University was made responsible for producing different levels of manpower needed for the country's development programs. The six existing faculties (schools) of the University were replaced by seven institutes, and five new institutes were added. According to the new changes, the Tribhuvan University Council, the Executive Committee, and Tribhuvan University Commission, and the Technical Committee comprised the central-level bodies, and the chancellor, the pro-chancellor, the vice-chancellor, the rector, and the registrar were the central-level officers. Above the central-level organization, the institute and the research center-level organization was structured. The deans and the executive director were made responsible for heading the Institute and the Research center, respectively.

The actual operation of all the educational activities throughout the country has been carried out at the campuses (colleges) in Nepal. The number of campuses continued to
increase from 49 in 1970 to 128 in 1985. Many of these new campuses offered only intermediate-level programs, however, in order to produce the low-level manpower required by the government, and the total student enrollment of these campuses also increased significantly from 17,200 in 1969 to 53,174 in 1985 (Tribhuvan University: Profile, 1988).

Tribhuvan University, after the new arrangement in 1971, was also made responsible for taking over several specialized training programs operated by the various ministries of the government without disrupting the continuity of manpower production. Reorganization and rephasing of many of these programs thus became the university's responsibility.

The government and nongovernmental agencies which had been involved in the development of the university continued supporting the educational activities of the university. The Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC), the Ministry of Finance, the National Planning Commission, the Ford Foundation, the United States of America, India, China, Canada, the United Kingdom, and Japan, in particular, are such agencies and countries which have continued to be involved in determining the educational activities of Tribhuvan University.

Observations

The concept of higher education in Nepal is a recent phenomenon. The historical development of higher education
in Nepal before the establishment of Tribhuvan University was directly related to the political development of the country. Before 1918, there was no formal institute of higher education in Nepal nor was there any attempt to establish colleges or universities. Trichandra College, established to provide an English education to the children of the ruling family, marked the foundation of higher education in Nepal. Because the Rana rulers held the belief that an ignorant and uneducated people could be more easily controlled, no other colleges were formed in the country until 1948, when a Sanskrit college was established. The Rana rulers did not feel threatened with the establishment of the Sanskrit college because the Sanskrit college offered degrees only in Sanskrit and the Hindu religion. Trichandra and Balmiki Sanskrit colleges were the only two institutes of higher education in Nepal until the end of the Rana rule in 1951.

After the establishment of the democratic government in 1951, Nepal formed several public colleges and granted permission to establish private colleges in the country. This move toward establishing colleges in the country resulted in a rapid expansion of the number of colleges in Nepal. As a result, the total number of colleges rose from 2 in 1951 to 19 in 1958.
The Ministry of Education, on the other hand, started developing policies and programs on education at the national level. The government established the National Educational Planning Commission (NEPC) in 1954 for the purpose of developing policies on education. In 1955, the NEPC submitted its report with 26 recommendations on establishing a national university in Nepal. These recommendations were very comprehensive and covered the major areas of governance, administration, and academic programs of the proposed university in Nepal. Based on these recommendations by political leaders, the government established Tribhuvan University in 1959. The university continued to receive full support from the government as well as from the private sector. This was a very positive indication for the development and expansion of the university's role as the center for higher education in the country.

Since its founding in 1959, Tribhuvan University was put in charge of implementing all post-secondary education in the country. As part of its governance, the university had a senate, with the chancellor, the pro-chancellor, the vice-chancellor, the treasurer, and the registrar as central-level officers. The composition of the university senate was unique in that the king was the chairperson of the senate and all of the members were high-level government and university members. The king was also the chancellor of
the university, with full veto power and power to appoint all the officers of the university and nominate most members of the senate.

In the early 1960s, Tribhuvan University offered programs in arts, science, commerce, and law, with education and agriculture added in the latter part of the decade. The university college, located in Kathmandu, was the only individual college in the university system and in the country which offered master's degree programs.

At about the same time as the establishment of Tribhuvan University and its early expansion, the government in Nepal recognized the acute shortage of trained manpower to meet national development needs. This shortage of manpower was indicated in the nation's third five-year plan for 1965-70 (UNESCO, 1984). The country had also failed by this time to weld together its diversely oriented educational subsystems—the Sanskrit, the vernacular (Nepali), and the western—into one unified and productive national system of education.

In order to overcome these major problems in manpower shortage and education in the country, the government implemented the Tribhuvan University Act of 1971, which was initiated by the New Education System Plan of 1971. This Act of 1971 dramatically reorganized the structure and functions of the university, and it was at this time that
Tribhuvan University started operating as a comprehensive university in the country.

Since Tribhuvan University had from its inception, been completely supported and controlled by the government, it could not expand its programs without the approval of the government. The university was not authorized to make any major decision on its own in terms of expansion and development. Instead, governmental agencies like the National Education Committee (Ministry of Education and Culture), the National Planning Commission, and the Ministry of Finance, in particular, controlled the educational activities of the university in terms of setting up the annual programs, raising the funds to support them, and expanding educational activities.

The findings of this study suggest that Tribhuvan University possesses several distinctive characteristics. The involvement of the king as the chancellor the university, for example, has increased the role of political power and authority in both the university's governance and administration. Because the university has been consistently supported by the government through public funds, the university has not had to face problems of survival, and has been able to focus its attention, instead, on the development of the university's leadership quality. In addition, the focus after 1971 on manpower production by the University has resulted in all of the
academic programs and their operation being determined by the annual targets of manpower production set by the government.

Another unique feature of Tribhuvan University has been its provision for non-collegiate or private students to take the university's examinations along with collegiate students. This provision has helped to increase the number of graduates without expanding existing educational facilities.

In addition, several non-governmental agencies have been involved in the establishment and development of the university in Nepal. The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the University of Oregon, for example, were involved in developing plans to establish the university. Dr. Hugh B. Wood, a professor from the University of Oregon, was the educational advisor to the National Education Planning Commission in 1954 (College of Education, 1956). The Center for Economic Development and Administration (CEDA) helped to establish one of the university's research centers in 1969 with the assistance of the Ford Foundation, another example of non-governmental agencies' involvement in determining the educational activities of the university. The university's annual budgets in the early part of the 1980s, in fact, indicate that all the technical institutes (schools)
received more than 50% of their funds from foreign
countries. Tribhuvan University would, perhaps, have been
unable to operate many of its educational programs without
the help of these friendly countries and their aid to the
university.

Recommendations for Further Research

The findings of this study suggest the following
focuses and topics for research into Tribhuvan University
and its educational activities:

1. The status of higher education in Nepal before the
   establishment of Tribhuvan University in 1959;

2. Tribhuvan University and its educational activities
   between 1959 and 1970;

3. Tribhuvan University and its educational activities
   after 1971;

4. The impact of Nepalese foreign college graduates on
   the development of the country, and of higher education in
   Nepal, in particular;

5. The role and functions of public and private
   colleges in the development of higher education in Nepal;
   and

6. The advantages and disadvantages of local versus
   central control of colleges and universities in Nepal,
   including effects on future funding sources, student access,
   faculty employment, manpower production, curriculum
development, and the expansion of other educational facilities and services.

Conclusions

The number of colleges in Nepal increased dramatically from 2 in 1951 to 128 in 1985, with a corresponding rise in enrollment of 250 students to 53,000 students, respectively. This remarkable development of higher education in Nepal may be attributed to the progressive and dynamic leadership of the king and to the active involvement of the Nepalese people, as well as to the financial and technical assistance of friendly agencies and countries, like the United Nations, the United States of America, the United Kingdom, India, Japan, Germany, Canada, and the Soviet Union.

In conclusion, the expanded educational activities and functions of Tribhuvan University from its founding in 1959 through the mid-1980s suggest that the university is and will continue to be an important and prestigious institute of higher education in Nepal.
APPENDIX B

NEPAL: LAND USE

175
Nepal: Land Use

Nepal
LAND USE

Source: Karan, 1960, p. 35.
APPENDIX C

NEPAL AND ITS POLITICAL DIVISIONS
Nepal and Its Political Divisions

Map of Nepal

© Capital
Cities

Administrative Zones
1 Mechi 8 Lumbini
2 Kosi 9 Dhaulagiri
3 Sagarmatha 10 Rapti
4 Janakpur 11 Karnali
5 Bagmati 12 Bheri
6 Narayani 13 Seti
7 Gandaki 14 Mahakali

0 25 50 75 100 miles
0 25 50 75 100 kilometers

APPENDIX D

NEPAL AND ITS RELIGIOUS DISTRIBUTION
Nepal and Its Religious Distribution

Nepal
Religious Groups

Kathmandu Valley

The circles are proportionate to the population of each district.

Legend:

APPENDIX E

NEPAL AND ITS ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION
Nepal and Its Ethnic Distribution

Source: Karan, 1960, p. 65.
APPENDIX F

NEPAL BEFORE AND AFTER THE SUGANLI TREATY
Nepal before and after the Suganli Treaty

E X P L A N A T I O N

Approximate boundary of the time of death of Amaru Daha (670 A.D.), under the sphere of Tibetan influence.

Sphere of Indian influence in 18th Century.

Chief Kingdoms of the 17th Century

1. KATMADU 2. BHAKTAPUR 3. BHARHADAN
4. GURKHA

Territorial extent of Gurkha Kingdom about 1758 achieved by the conquest of Kailamdu valley kingdoms by the Gurkha King, Prithvi Narayan.

Maximum extent of the Gurkha Kingdom by the end of the 18th century.

Territories lost to British India as a result of Anglo-Nepal War 1814-16.

Present limits of Nepal.

Source: Karan, 1960, p. 3.
APPENDIX G

DURBAR HIGH SCHOOL: FIRST HIGH SCHOOL IN NEPAL
Secondary Schools may be housed:

...in monumental structures, such as Durbar High School in Kathmandu,

APPENDIX H

TRICHANDRA COLLEGE: FIRST COLLEGE IN NEPAL
Trichandra College: First College in Nepal

Tri-Chandra College should become
the core of the university

Organizational Structure of the Ministry of Education in Nepal

Minister of Education
   
   Education Secretary
   
   Deputy Secretary
   
   Assistant Secretary
   
   Director General of Public Instruction
   
   Controller of Examinations

   College Heads (except Sanskrit)

   Assistant Director of Public Instruction

   Seven Zonal Inspectors of Schools

   Three Sub-Inspectors.

   Three Sub-Inspectors.

   Three Sub-Inspectors.

   Three Sub-Inspectors.

   Three Sub-Inspectors.

   Three Sub-Inspectors.

Director Sanskrit Studies

Assistant Secretary

Director Archeology

Museum

Ms Library

Sanskrit College

Source: College of Education, 1956, p. 27.
APPENDIX J

MEMBERS OF THE NNEPC
Members of the NNEPC

The Nepal National Educational Planning Commission

First Row (left to right)

(1) Jitnas Siromani Babu Ram Acharya, Historian and Educationist, (2) Ram Prasad Munudhar, Secretary of Education, (3) Yada Nath Khanal, Professor of English, Tri-Chandra College, (4) Gouranga Mohan Srijit, Lawyer, (5) Sarda Prasad Upadhyaya, Assistant Director of Public Instruction, (6) Deva Nath Varma, Member, Public Service Commission, (7) Trailakya Nath Upratity, Deputy Secretary of Education, (Secretary-Treasurer of the Commission), (8) Dr. Hugh B. Wood, Professor of Education, University of Oregon, (Educational Adviser to the Commission), (9) Dilli Raman Regmi, Honourable Minister of Education, (10) Sardar Rudra Raj Pandey, Director of Archeology, (Chairman of the Commission), (11) Jitendra Bahadur Shah, Director General of Public
Instruction, (12) Bal Krishna Shama, Poet and Dramatist, (13) Bhava Nath Dhungana, Secretary, Land Reform Commission, (14) Ratna Bahadur Bista, Member, Law Commission.

Second Row (left to right)

Third Row (left to right)
(1) Dr. George T. Brooks, Technician, USOM, (2) Kumar Dass Shrestha, Deputy Secretary of Education, (3) Vanu Dev Gautam, Instructor, National Teacher Training Center, (4) Pushkar Shumshere, Head, Nepal Bhasha Prakashini Samiti, (5) Shyam Raj Dhoj Joshi, Headmaster, National Teacher Training Center, (6) Shankar Lal Rajbansi, Instructor, National Teacher Training Center, (7) Unidentified.

Fourth Row (left to right)
(1) Unidentified, (2) Bishnu Bahadur, Office Assistant, (3) Bramh Dutta Pandey, Professor of Botany, Tri-Chandra College, (4) Khadga Singha Rana, Director, Bureau of Mining, (5) Kanchha, Office Assistant, (6) Penang Man, Office Assistant, (7) Unidentified, (8) Ram Bahadur, Office Assistant.

Not in the Picture

Source: College of Education, 1956, pp. 4-5.
APPENDIX K

PRESENTATION OF THE REPORT
Presentation of the Report

Presentation of the Completed Report, March 1, 1955.

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

APPENDIX L

THE PROPOSED SITE FOR THE UNIVERSITY
Site for the University

...might be a new area at the edge of the city

APPENDIX M

THE PROPOSED ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE UNIVERSITY
The Proposed Organizational Structure of the University

Special Board on Higher Education — General Board of Education

Vice-Chancellor — Minister of Education

Secretary of Education

Vice-Chancellor — Senate

Deputy Secretaries

Business Manager — Registrar

Dean of Students — Dean of Instruction

Teacher Education

Agricultural College — Medical College — Law College — Liberal Arts College — Home Science College — College of Nursing — Business Administration College — College of Education — Polytechnic Institute — Other Colleges

University Faculty

APPENDIX N

LIST OF THE COLLEGES BY REGION AND STUDENT ENROLLMENT IN 1985
List of the Colleges by Region and Student Enrollment in 1985

**Eastern Developmental Region**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>College Name</th>
<th>Enrollment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mahedra-Ratna Illam</td>
<td>389</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechi Campus, Bhadrapure</td>
<td>935</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahendra Morang Adasha Multiple Campus, Biratnagar</td>
<td>3694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing Campus, Biratnagar</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahendra Campus, Dharan</td>
<td>1373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dharan Campus, Dharan</td>
<td>466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DhanKuta Campus, Dhankuta</td>
<td>249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tehrathum Campus, Tehrathum</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhojpure Campus Tehrathum</td>
<td>270</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahendra Multiple Campus, Rajbiraj</td>
<td>1647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surya Harayan/Satya Narayan Campus</td>
<td>628</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMA Campus, Dhankuta</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snelekottar Campus, Biratnagar</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>9927</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Central Developmental Region**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>College Name</th>
<th>Enrollment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R. R. Campus, Janakpure</td>
<td>3241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thakuram Campus Birjung</td>
<td>749</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birgung Campus, Birjung</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metauda Campus, Metauda</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rampur Campus, Rampur</td>
<td>808</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Name of the Campus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>ANM Extension Campus, Bharatpura</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Birandra Campus, Bharatpure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Bhaktapure Campus, Bhaktapure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Sanothimi Campus, Sanothimi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Patan Multiple Campus, Lalitpura</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Pulchok Campus, Patan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>Nepal Commerce Campus, Minbhawan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Mahendra Ratna Campus, Tahachal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>Ayurved Campus, Naradebi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>Public Youth Campus, Dhobichour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>Saraswati Campus, Lainchour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>Amrit Campus, Lainchour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>Central Campus, Maharajgung</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>Lalitkala Campus, Bhotahiti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>Nursing Campus, Mahabhoudha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td>Trichandra Campus, Ghautaghar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.</td>
<td>Padma Kanya Campus, Baghbazar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>Public Administration, Tripureswar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.</td>
<td>Shanker Dev Campus, Putali Sadak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.</td>
<td>Education Campus, Putali Sadak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td>Ratna Rajya Laxmi Campus, Exhibition Road</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.</td>
<td>Biswabhasha Campus, Exhibition Road</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>Thapathali Campus, Rhapathali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.</td>
<td>Nepal Law Campus, Exhibition Road</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43.</td>
<td>Kirtipur Central Campus, Kirtipur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total** 36240
### Western Developmental Region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Campus</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>44. Gorkha Campus, Gorkha</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. Lumjung Campus, Lumjung</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. Pokhara Campus (Medicine), Pokhara</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. Pohara Campus (Forestry), Pokhara</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. Prithwi Narayan Campus</td>
<td>2323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. Tribhuvan Campus, Palpa</td>
<td>618</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50. Community Medicine Campus, Palpa</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51. ANM Extension Campus, Palpa</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52. Butwal Campus, Butwal</td>
<td>433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53. Puklihawa Campus, Rupendchi</td>
<td>408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54. Mahendra Campus Baglung</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55. Bhairawa Campus, Bhairawa</td>
<td>435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>4951</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Midwestern Developmental Region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Campus</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>56. Mahendra Campus, Dang</td>
<td>342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57. Mahendra Campus, Nepalguj</td>
<td>1166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58. Surkhet Campus, Surkhet</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59. ANM Extension Campus, Nepalgunj</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60. Community Medicine Campus, Surkhet</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>1773</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Far Western Developmental Region

61. Doti Campus, Doti 130
62. Gumla Extension Campus 18
63. Siddha Nath Campus, Mahendra Nagor 135

Total 283

Total for all regions 53174

Source: Tribhuvan University: Profile, 1988, pp. 41-50
REFERENCES


United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Regional Office for Education in Asia and Oceania. (1979, June). *Education in Asia and Oceania (Bulletin No. 20).* Bangkok: Author.


