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Editorial

Sunkoshi Kalika Journal is an annual scholarly journal published by Sunkoshi Kalika Campus, affiliated with Tribhuvan University, and published. This is a multidisciplinary journal that publishes research articles, review papers, and book reviews based on original research conducted by researchers from different disciplines such as education, social sciences, and management. It accepts only the manuscripts that use the style sheet of the latest version of the APA Manual.

We have incorporated 8 articles into the present volume, including one review paper. They represent different academic disciplines and geographical zones of the country. They have addressed the pressing educational, social, and developmental issues, including those related to literature and culture. Researchers aim to explore, examine, and find answers to social problems and to contribute to formulating appropriate policies for the country's overall development.

Researchers are grateful for the submission of their manuscripts, which can contribute to education and development. We publish the selected articles after the editorial board and the concerned scholars have reviewed and edited them, and after the author's revision and acceptance by the Editorial Board, every year.

Dr. Khila Nath Sapkota

Chief Editor

Sunkoshi Kalika Journal

February 2026

Research Articles

Economic Impact of Chhurpi Production on Farmers' Livelihood

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Abstract

This study explores the economic impact of Chhurpi production on the livelihoods of rural farmers in Kalinchowk Rural Municipality-01, Dolakha District, Nepal. Employing a descriptive research design and a census method, 22 Chhurpi producers were selected as informants. Data were gathered through questionnaires, interviews, and observations, supplemented by secondary data from literature reviews. The findings reveal that Chhurpi production significantly increases farmers' income, with active participation from both men and women in the production process. Despite its economic benefits, the study identifies challenges, including transportation difficulties, climate change, and insufficient income, that compel farmers to diversify their income through ghee, cheese, and other agricultural activities. The research underscores the vital role of Chhurpi in sustaining rural livelihoods and advocates for enhanced government support and improved infrastructure to ensure the long-term viability of this traditional industry.

Keywords: chhurpi, dairy farming, economic impact, farmers, livelihood

Introduction

Animal husbandry has long been essential to Himalayan civilizations, with dairy being a key part of their culture. Chhurpi, a hard, fermented milk cheese, was invented to utilize leftover milk and is now produced in China, Bhutan, and Nepal, often called Himalayan chewing gum. Nepal, a developing, landlocked country between India and China, has a population of 29.16 million and an agriculture-based economy, accounting for 23.95% of its GDP and employing 67% of the population. Despite progress, 20.27% still live below the poverty line, and 23% earn less than \$1 per day. (CBS, 2021).

Farming is the primary economic activity for most people in Nepal, with livestock playing a key role in the rural economy. Livestock, especially dairy farming, is a major source of income and employment, contributing to agricultural production and national output while creating job opportunities in rural areas. Dairy farming significantly impacts farmers' livelihoods, not only through employment but also by generating income, improving nutrition, and influencing social dynamics. Sustainable dairy production is crucial for improving the economic well-being of rural farmers.

Nepal produces a variety of dairy products, including paneer, milk, yogurt, butter, cheese, ice cream, mohi, kurauni, khuwa, and chhurpi. Chhurpi, a traditional Himalayan cheese, is made by coagulating milk from cows, buffaloes, chauris, and naks (female yaks). It is available in soft and hard varieties, with the soft version used in cooking and the hard one valued for its long shelf life and dental benefits. Chhurpi has gained international recognition, especially as a dog chew, and its market is expanding amid rising global demand. The economic benefits of chhurpi production are significant for rural communities in Nepal, contributing to their livelihoods and cultural preservation.

For individuals to earn a living, the yak and chauri trade in the highlands and high hills of Nepal is crucial. To boost yak production in Nepal's hilly regions, Tibetan yak breeds are brought from China and Tibet to Taplejung, Sankhuvasabha, Solukhumbu, Dolakha, and Humla. In the same vein, high-value, low-volume goods with strong international demand include ghee, chhurpi, and yak cheese. Yak cheese exports to other nations provide Nepal with significant foreign exchange, supporting economic growth. People living in the high hills and mountains need to create efficient marketing channels to reach local and global markets and generate revenue.

Dairy farming is significantly impacted by climate change. It impacts dairy cattle in several ways, including sickness and fodder shortages. The development of grass species in pasture and woodland fodder is impacted by the severe drought. It results in a lack of high-quality, diverse livestock feed. This affects the feed for cattle. Livestock has been affected, resulting in reduced production of meat, milk, and milk products. Climate change is also causing a decline in livestock numbers. Drought reduced the availability of drinking water for cattle and dried up wetlands, grazing land, streams, and water supplies. Raising temperatures are also having an impact on cattle, which are prone to various newborn illnesses (Dahal, 2011)

Statement of the Problem

In Nepal, agriculture forms the backbone of rural livelihoods, supplemented by various local industries, among which Chhurpi production plays a significant role. This traditional dairy-based industry not only generates income but also supports food security in rural communities. However, despite its importance, the Chhurpi industry faces persistent challenges in production efficiency, quality control, and adherence to food safety standards. While efforts to enhance Nepal's dairy processing sector have addressed these issues, farmers, particularly in remote areas, continue to face economic difficulties and production constraints.

In Kalinchowk Rural Municipality Ward No. 1, where access to large markets is limited, Chhurpi production is a critical livelihood source for the community. However, vulnerabilities such as inadequate infrastructure, transportation challenges, and the effects of climate change threaten the sustainability of this traditional industry. These challenges highlight the need for a deeper understanding of the economic impacts of Chhurpi production on farmers' livelihoods, as well as potential measures to address the industry's vulnerabilities and promote its sustainability.

Objectives of the Study

The general objective is to evaluate the overall economic impact of chhurpi production on rural farmers, including the advantages to their economic livelihoods and the challenges they face in the production process. The specific objectives are as follows:

- (a) To examine the economic impact of chhurpi production on farmers' livelihood
- (b) To find out the challenges faced by farmers in chhurpi production.

Theoretical Framework

The Department for International Development (DFID) Framework suggests that sustainable livelihoods are a useful tool for measuring the economic and social impact on communities. The framework emphasizes the importance of natural, human, financial, social, and physical capital in helping rural households secure their livelihoods (DFID, 1997). This approach is particularly relevant for understanding the economic impact of chhurpi production, which contributes to several of these capitals. Economically, chhurpi production generates income for farmers, while socially, it strengthens community networks and preserves cultural identity. These factors play a vital role in improving the livelihoods of rural farmers and enhancing

their standard of living.

Local Economic Development (LED) theory supports the empowerment of local farmers by helping them take control of their economic activities (Blakely & Leigh, 2013). By efficiently utilizing local resources, farmers can generate sustainable economic opportunities (Hong & Gordon, 2014). This theory applies to chhurpi production, which relies on local milk, traditional knowledge, and indigenous processing methods. By improving packaging, branding, and market access, farmers can increase the market value and demand for chhurpi. As a local product deeply rooted in culture, chhurpi enhances farmers' bargaining power, promotes cooperative efforts, and retains more economic value within the local economy. Thus, chhurpi production contributes to stable and sustainable livelihoods, reducing poverty and improving overall well-being.

Agricultural commercialization theory highlights the shift from traditional subsistence farming to modern, market-oriented production, leading to higher income levels and improved living standards for farmers (Pingali, 2001). In the high hills and mountains of Nepal, chhurpi production has become a key commercial activity. Many farmers are adopting modern technologies, branding, and packaging techniques to commercialize chhurpi production, thereby increasing income stability. This commercialization also contributes to broader economic growth and urbanization in these rural regions.

The dual economy theory, which outlines the coexistence of traditional agricultural and modern industrial sectors, helps explain the role of chhurpi production in the rural economy. According to this theory, the traditional sector, characterized by low productivity, supplies labor to the modern sector, which has higher productivity and wages (Lewis, 1954). Chhurpi production represents the traditional sector, with its low capital requirements and small-scale production, yet it remains vital to farmers' livelihoods. The income from chhurpi helps farmers meet their household needs, but the overall productivity and income remain low compared to modern agricultural practices. By adopting improved techniques, accessing larger markets, and adding value, farmers may increase their income and living standards.

The theory of microfinance emphasizes the role of financial services in empowering small-scale producers by providing the economic tools necessary to improve productivity. Access to finance allows farmers to invest in technology, better livestock, and improved processing techniques, which can lead to higher output and quality (Armendariz & Morduch, 2005). For chhurpi production, this access

to finance is critical, as the process requires specific skills, labor, and tools. With financial support, farmers can enhance the quality of their chhurpi, leading to higher market value and increased income.

Although previous studies have explored the economic impact of dairy production on rural farmers, there is limited research specifically focused on chhurpi production. Chhurpi, a traditional product with significant cultural and economic importance, particularly in the rural Himalayan areas, deserves more targeted research. While research links chhurpi production to food security and employment growth, gaps remain in areas such as market access, transportation challenges, and the difficulties farmers face during production. Previous studies have focused on regions such as Ilam, Solukhumbu, Sankhuwasabha, Rasuwa, and Sindhupalchowk, but there has been no research in Kalinchowk Municipality-01, Dolakha. This study focuses on the Kuri, Gairi, and Ghyang rural villages to assess the economic impact of chhurpi production on the livelihoods of farmers and to explore the challenges they encounter in this area

Methodology

This study employed a descriptive research design to assess the economic impact of Chhurpi production on farmers' livelihoods in Kuri, Gairi, and Ghyang villages of Kalinchowk Rural Municipality-01, Dolakha. Primary data was collected through questionnaires, interviews, and observations using the census method, focusing on 22 Chhurpi producers. Secondary data was sourced from journals, reports, and government records. Data analysis involved quantitative techniques, utilizing tools such as tables, charts, and percentages, with analysis conducted via MS Excel and SPSS.

Description of Study Area

Dolakha district, part of Bagmati Province, is a remote hilly region located 183 km from Kathmandu, covering 2,191 sq. km. Its district headquarters is in Charikot, and according to the 2021 census, the population is 172,276. The district is bordered by China to the north and east, Ramechhap to the west, and Sindhupalchowk to the south. Dolakha is renowned for natural landmarks like GaurishankarHimal, TshoRolpa Glacier Lake, and Jiri, as well as religious sites such as KalinchowkBhagawati and DolakhaBhimsen temples. The Upper Tamakoshi River, flowing through the district, supports Nepal's largest hydroelectric project (456 MW). Dolakha consists of 9 municipalities, including Kalinchowk Rural Municipality, which

spans 132.49 sq. km, with a population of 21,097 and a literacy rate of 72% (79% male and 65.4% female). Kalinchowk Rural Municipality is situated at the foot of GaurishankarHimal, with Ward No. 1 designated for yak farming. This study focuses on areas such as Kuri, Gairi, and Ghyang, where chhurpi production is actively practiced.

Results and Discussion

Chhurpi production contributes to the livelihoods of farmers in Kalinchowk Rural Municipality Ward No. 1 by providing a vital source of income and employment. Both men and women actively participate in the production process, reflecting its inclusive economic role. However, challenges such as inadequate infrastructure, limited market access, and climate-related vulnerabilities hinder the growth of small industries. Despite these obstacles, farmers diversify their livelihoods by engaging in complementary activities such as ghee and cheese production. The results underscore the need for targeted interventions, including improved transportation, technical support, and market development, to enhance the economic impact of Chhurpi production and ensure its long-term sustainability.

Farmers' Involvement in Chhurpi Production

Respondents' involvement in any occupation provides important insights into the duration and experience of participants in that occupation. Based on the data collection, the finding shows that a significant number of participants, i.e., 36.36 percent, have been involved in chhurpi production for 6-10 years. This data clearly suggests that the chhurpi production is well established for many of them, with a major group having gained considerable experience. In addition, the research demonstrates that 22.72 percent of respondents have been involved in chhurpi production for 16-20 years, indicating that this occupation has a dedicated group of customers. The 18.18 percent involved for 11-15 years and another 18.18 percent for 21-25 years suggest that Chhurpi manufacturing is a long-term commercial activity that may be passed down from generation to generation.

Table 1

Farmers' Involvement in Chhurpi Production

SN	Chhurpi Business Time (in years)	Frequency	Percent (%)
1	0-5	1	4.54%
2	6-10	8	36.36%

SN	Chhurpi Business Time (in years)	Frequency	Percent (%)
3	11-15	4	18.18%
4	16-20	5	22.72%
5	21-25	4	18.18%
Total		22	100%

Source: Field survey 2024.

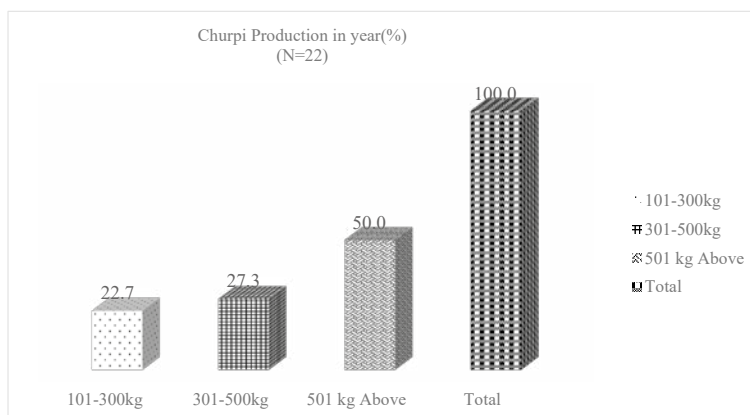
Interestingly, just 1 respondent (4.54 percent) among the total respondents has stayed in the Chhurpi production for less than 5 years, for reasons that might have made it difficult for them to enter this sector, or it may also indicate that the incidence rate of new entrants to this sector is rather low. This may imply entrance barriers or reliance on accumulated experience and expertise across generations, which act as barriers to entry in chhurpi production. This chhurpi business is sustained by experienced producers, with few new entrants. Finally, this research led to discussions of factors such as the role of tradition, knowledge transfer, market challenges, and the potential for modernization or business expansion among younger generations.

Production of Chhurpi Annually

Chhurpi production in Kalinchowk represents not only a tradition but a vital economic activity that sustains the livelihood of many local farmers. With proper support and innovation, it holds the potential to further improve the well-being of communities in this rural region.

Figure 1

Production of Chhurpi Annually



Source: Field visit 2024.

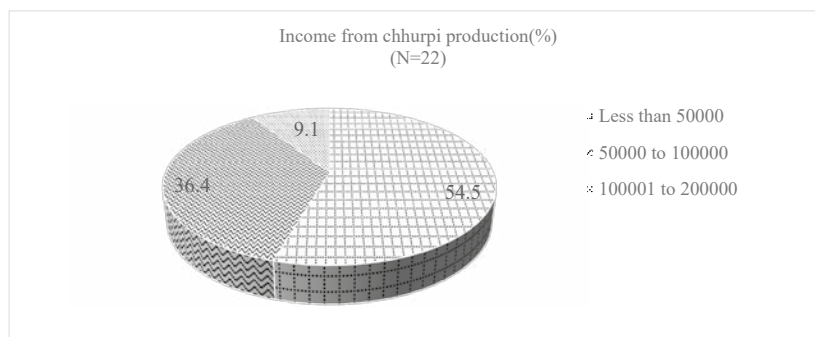
A figure (Figure No. 1) represents a smaller group, 22.7 percent of respondents, produces between 101 and 300 kilograms of chhurpi per year. Around 27.3 percent of the respondents produce between 301 and 500 kilograms annually. Half of the respondents (50 percent) produce more than 501 kilograms of chhurpi in a year. This indicates that a significant portion of the group engages in large-scale production.

Income from Chhurpi Production

The income from chhurpi sales helps families cover essential expenses, such as education, healthcare, and household needs. The growing popularity of chhurpi, especially among tourists visiting the region, has further boosted farmers' earnings. Despite challenges such as limited market access and infrastructure constraints, chhurpi remains a key contributor to the local economy.

Figure 2

Income from Chhurpi Production



Source: Field visit 2024.

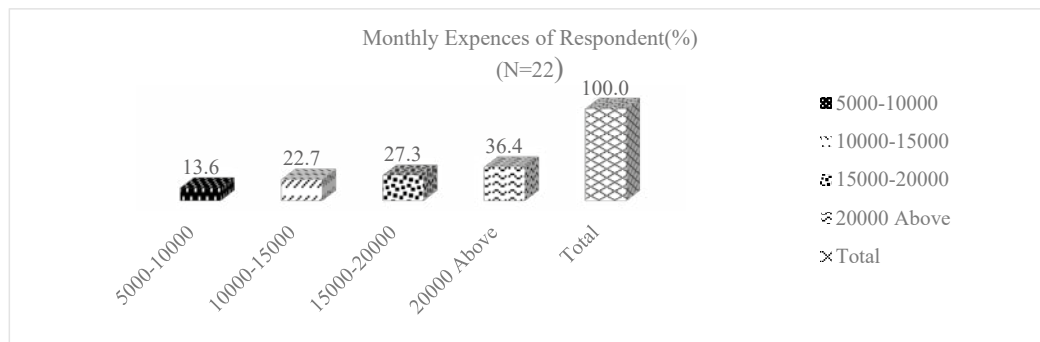
According to Figure (Figure No 2), the majority of respondents, 54.5%, earn less than 50,000 (currency not specified) from their chhurpi production. A significant portion, 36.4%, earns between 50,000 and 100,000. This group earns a moderate income from chhurpi production, and a small group (9.1%) earns between 100,001 and 200,000. These respondents are earning higher incomes from their production, making them the top earners in this group.

Monthly Expenses of Producers

The figure (Figure no. 3) provided represents the **monthly expenses** of 22 respondents as a percentage of the total sample. 36.4 percent of respondents spend more than Rs. 20,000 per month, making this the largest expense category. 22.7 percent of respondents spend between Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 15,000 monthly, 27.3

percent have expenses between Rs. 15,000 and Rs. 20,000, and last and lowest expense category is 13.6 percent who spend Rs. 5000 to Rs. 10000 per month.

Figure 3
Monthly Expenses of Producers



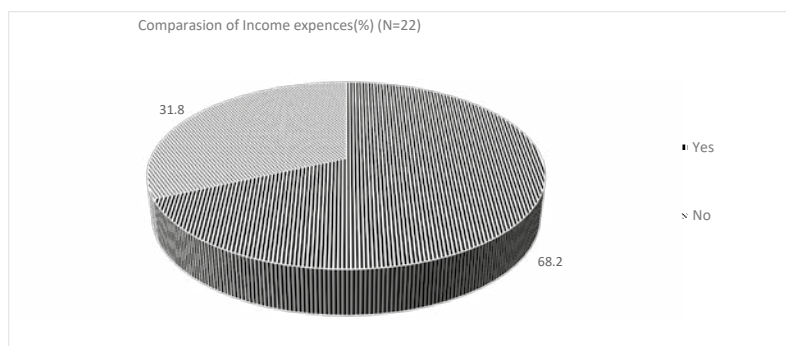
Source: Field visit 2024.

This variety in spending highlights the different levels of expenditure respondents make on their children’s education, health, food, and livestock, all of which are critical to maintaining their livelihoods and well-being.

Income-Expenses Comparison from Chhurpi

Income from chhurpi production generally covers expenses, making it a sustainable livelihood for most farmers. However, some producers still face financial gaps, underscoring the need for additional income sources to fully meet their financial needs.

Figure 4
Income -Expenses Comparison from Chhurpi



Source: Field visit 2024.

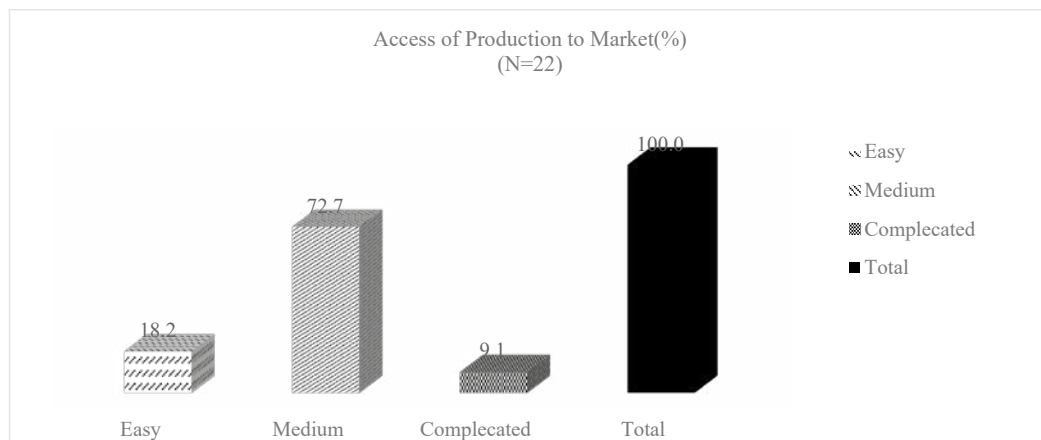
The figure (Figure 4) shows that 68.2 percent of respondent's report that their income from Chhurpi production covers their expenses, while 31.8 percent say it does not. This indicates that, for the majority, Chhurpi production is a sustainable livelihood, but nearly a third of respondents still face financial gaps and require additional income sources to meet their overall expenses.

Market Access of Production

Market access of Chhurpi in Kalinchowk, especially in villages like Kuri, Gairi, and Ghyang, is limited by the region's remoteness, poor transport, and weak marketing channels. While local tourism supports some direct sales, better infrastructure and market connections could greatly boost the economic potential of Chhurpi producers.

Figure 5

Market Access of Production



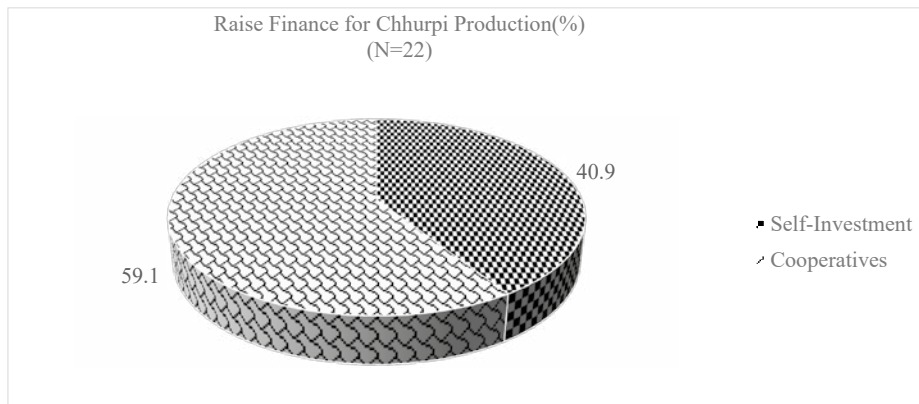
Source: Field visit 2024.

Figure 5 illustrates the ease of market access for Chhurpi production based on responses from 22 participants. The majority, 72.7%, indicated that market access is "Medium," while 18.2% reported it as "Easy." A smaller group, 9.1%, found access "Complicated." The total responses account for 100% of the participants.

Raise Finance for the Production of Chhurpi

Raising finance for Chhurpi production in rural areas like Kalinchowk can be challenging due to limited access to formal credit institutions and financial services. Farmers often rely on personal savings, informal loans, or local cooperatives to fund production.

Figure 6
Raise Finance for the Production of Chhurpi



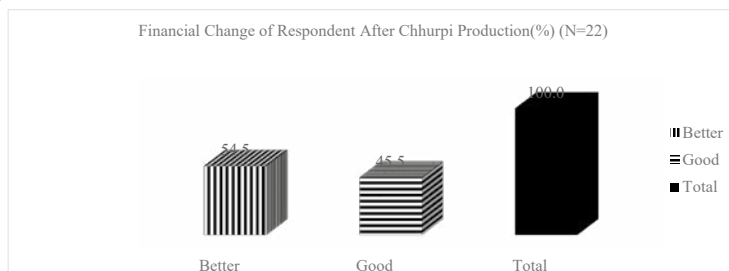
Source: Field visit 2024

A significant majority of respondents, 59.1 percent, financed their chhurpi production ventures through their own funds. This suggests that self-reliance is the primary strategy for funding this business. While less common, cooperatives contributed to financing chhurpi production for 40.9 percent of respondents. This indicates that cooperatives play a supporting role in providing financial resources for this industry.

After Chhurpi Production Increase Financial

The majority of respondents reported an improvement in their financial situation after engaging in Chhurpi production, while others reported their financial status remained stable, suggesting a positive or neutral overall impact.

Figure 7
After Chhurpi Production Increase Financial



Source: Field visit 2024

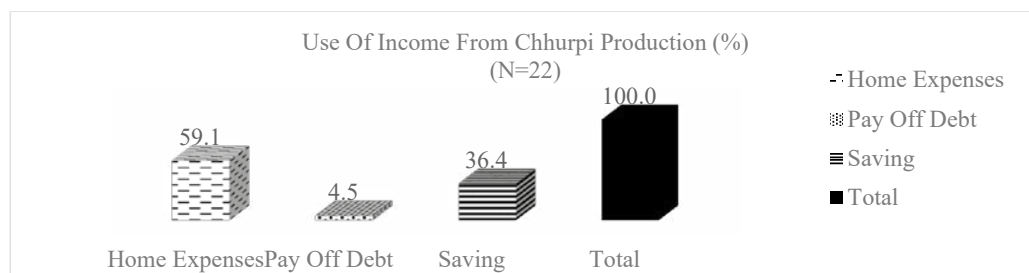
According to Figure 7, 54.5% of respondents reported that their financial situation improved after engaging in Chhurpi production, while 45.5% indicated that it remained stable, suggesting a positive or neutral overall impact.

Use of income from Chhurpi Production

Income from Chhurpi production is primarily used by farmers to meet household needs, including food, education, healthcare, and basic living expenses. Some producers reinvest their earnings to expand their Chhurpi businesses or improve livestock and production methods.

Figure 8

Use of Income from Chhurpi Production

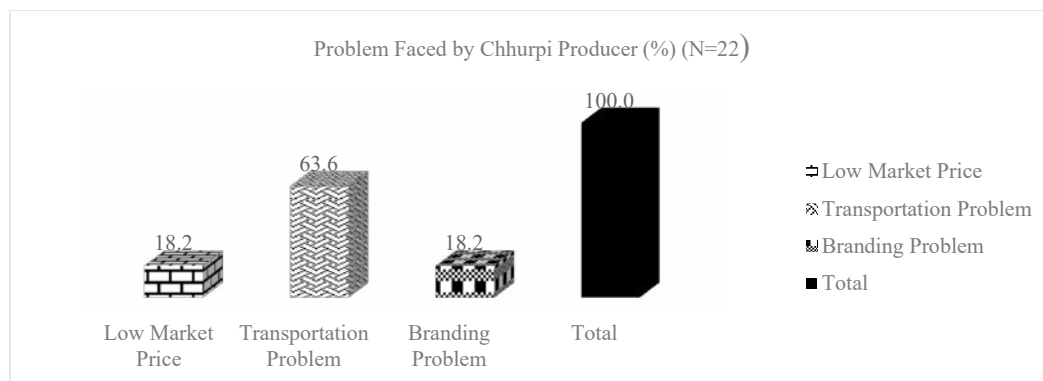


Source: Field visit 2024

The largest portion of income from chhurpi production 59.1 percent is allocated towards home expenses, indicating that the business plays a significant role in supporting household needs. A considerable portion 36.4 percent of income is used to pay off debt, suggesting that chhurpi production is a valuable tool for financial management. While less common, 4.5 percent of respondents allocate a portion of their income to savings. This indicates that some individuals are able to save for future needs or investments.

Problem Faced by Chhurpi Producers

Chhurpi producers face challenges such as poor infrastructure, limited market access, and lack of financial resources. Insufficient marketing channels and low awareness of Chhurpi's potential further restrict sales, while seasonal production, demand fluctuations, and inadequate government support also hinder their growth, affecting rural livelihoods.

Figure 9*Problem Faced by Chhurpi Producers*

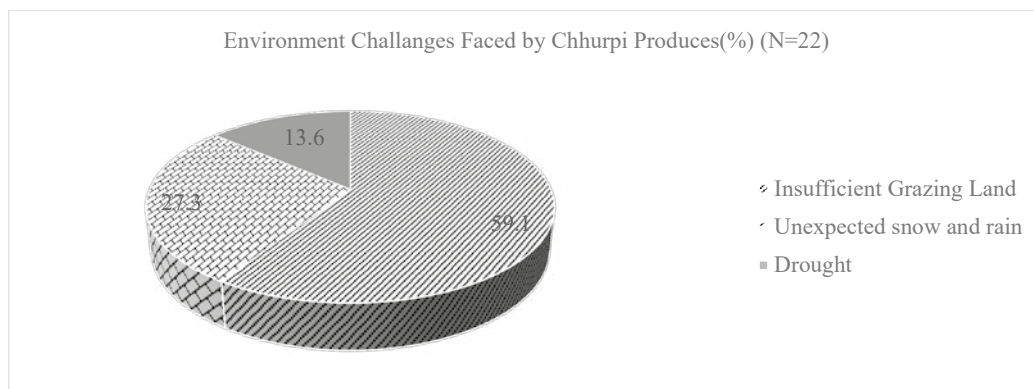
Source: Field visit 2024

According to figure (Figure No 9), this is the most significant issue, with 63.6 percent of producers citing it as a major problem. It suggests that the market for Chhurpi may be saturated or that demand for the product is low at current prices. 18.2 percent of producers reported difficulties with transportation. This could include issues with infrastructure, logistics, or the cost of transporting Chhurpi to markets. Another 18.2 percent of producers mentioned branding as a challenge. This might involve difficulties in creating a strong brand identity, differentiating their product from competitors, or reaching their target customers effectively.

Chhurpi Producer Faced Environmental Challenges

Chhurpi producers face various environmental challenges that affect their production. Harsh weather conditions in high-altitude areas like Kalinchowk make livestock rearing difficult, impacting the supply of milk, the main ingredient for Chhurpi. Climate change has led to unpredictable weather patterns, disrupting grazing cycles and water availability for livestock. Soil erosion and deforestation in the region also contribute to diminishing grazing lands. These environmental factors, combined with limited access to sustainable farming practices, make Chhurpi production more difficult for rural farmers, affecting both quantity and quality.

Figure 10
Chhurpi Producer Faced Environmental Challenges



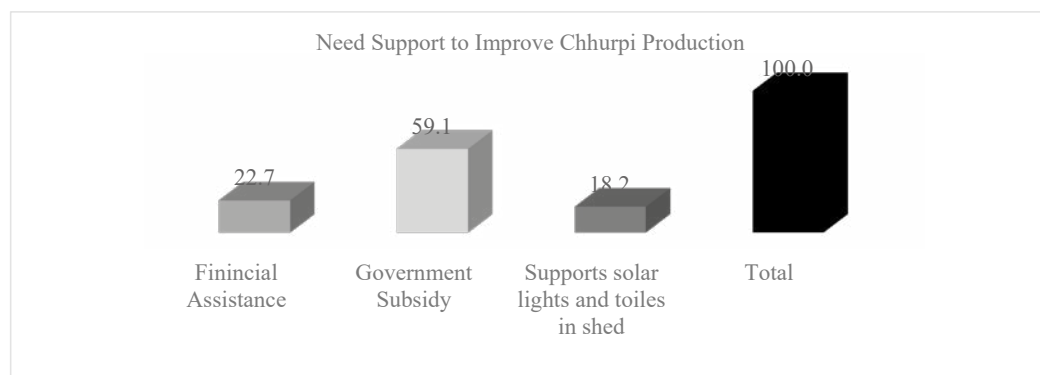
Source: Field visit 2024.

Based on the provided figure (Figure No. 10), the most significant issue accounts for 59.1 percent of the challenges reported. It suggests that unpredictable weather patterns, such as early or late snowfall or excessive rainfall, are disrupting the production and grazing processes for Chhurpi. 27.3 percent of producers cited drought as a major challenge. This could lead to insufficient water for livestock, reduced grass growth, and decreased milk production. 13.6 percent of producers mentioned a lack of grazing land as a problem. This could be due to factors such as land degradation, competition for grazing areas, or limited access to suitable pastures.

Need Support to Improve Chhurpi Production

According to the data, government subsidies are the most requested form of support, with 59.1% of respondents identifying them as a crucial need. These subsidies could include support for feed, livestock, or other inputs related to Chhurpi production. Additionally, 22.7% of producers indicated a need for loans, grants, or subsidies to cover production costs, purchase equipment, or invest in improvements.

Figure 11
Need Support to Improve Chhurpi Production



Source: Field visit 2024

Major Findings

The study on the economic impact of chhurpi production reveals key findings about its role in farmers' livelihoods. Both men and women are equally involved in the production, reflecting balanced gender representation. Chhurpi production is primarily carried out by older generations, reflecting its traditional roots, though younger members are increasingly participating, helping ensure its sustainability. While some farmers produce chhurpi on a larger scale, most operate on a smaller scale, resulting in varied income levels. Although not all producers earn enough to cover expenses, many supplement their income with other agricultural activities. Challenges such as transportation, unpredictable weather, and climate change affect production, and most farmers identify government subsidies as essential to improving their operations. Despite the hardships, chhurpi production remains a long-term commercial activity, with many farmers, including women, planning to continue it, although they are reluctant to involve future generations.

Conclusion

Chhurpi production in Nepal remains a vital tradition, significantly contributing to farmers' livelihoods. While it helps improve their living standards, providing income for basic needs, it is often supplemented by the production of ghee and cheese. The industry is marked by equal gender participation, with both men and women preserving this cultural heritage. Despite challenges such as environmental threats, transportation difficulties, and declining interest from younger generations, the production remains resilient. Government support through subsidies, training, and infrastructure development is essential for ensuring the long-term sustainability and profitability of chhurpi production.

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Impact of Free Mid-Day Meal Program on Academic Performance in Public Schools of Nepal

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Abstract

Public School students are the major source of human capital within the country. Therefore, this study aims to analyze the impact of government expenditure on the mid-day meal program on students' academic performance nationwide. To examine students' attendance, retention, and overall academic performance in public schools, this study has developed structured questionnaires and collected data from 50 samples in the selected study area. This included 21 students selected through random sampling and 29 participants selected purposively: 21 parents, 3 teachers, and 5 members of the school management committee. Quantitative data are analyzed using tables and figures. Qualitative data were analyzed thematically and presented in narrative form. The findings show that the mid-day meal program increased enrollment rates and reduced dropout rates, and raised students' overall academic performance. Schools provided a budget for midday meals, and students brought homemade lunches. This program focuses on homemade food, so junk food is avoided in school, thereby directly affecting children's health. Therefore, the government should increase funding for the mid-day meal program to improve academic performance and human capital in the country.

Keywords: academic performance, enrollment rate, mid-day meal program, public schools, student nutrition

Introduction

The development of society has been closely linked to the development of education, which significantly affects its social, economic, cultural, and political aspects. Societies that prioritize education tend to progress, while those that neglect it often remain backward.

Throughout human history, people have sought ways to prevent various diseases. As society developed and people began attending school, society became more concerned with a healthy life. This led to the development of a school health program. Individuals interested in student well-being focused on how schools could contribute to children's health and development in the 17th century. European scientist John Peter Frank (1745-1821AD) published an article about school health. In 1890, in Boston and Philadelphia, America, the school lunch program was launched to reduce malnutrition. In the USA, the National School Lunch Program (NSLP) was established in 1946 to provide nutritionally balanced, low-cost or free lunches to children in public and private nonprofit schools. This was a great welfare policy after World War II (Gunderson, 2015).

In the late 20th and early 21st centuries, the school meal program was adopted by middle-income countries as a policy tool to address malnutrition and poverty. For global support of school meal programs, the World Food Program has been an active player, mainly in conflict and post-conflict regions, providing meals to schoolchildren to alleviate short-term hunger and promote healthy human capital through better education and nutrition (Bundey et. al.,2009).

By the mid-1990s (1996-1999AD), the ILO had estimated that around 250 million children aged 5-14 were engaged in labor worldwide. The highest number of child labor was found in Asia, Africa, and Latin America. In 2000, the UN set the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) with a target year of 2015. The Goals 1 (Eradicate Extreme Poverty and Hunger) and 2 (Achieve Universal Primary Education) are directly connected to solving the problem of child labor. This mid-day meal program also focuses on addressing malnutrition and improving education. Similarly, after the MDGs in 2015, the UN has set the SDGs goals (2016-2030). The goals have continued the MDGs, which are broader and more ambitious, covering a wide range. Goal 4 is for quality education. The mid-day meal program has helped meet this goal. A study by WFP (2020) explained that the school meal program has increased enrollment by 9 percent on average in most developing countries with high food insecurity. According to the UNESCO Global Education Monitoring Report (2020), food and nutrition programs play a vital role in reducing educational inequities, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa (UNESCO, 2020).

The health and nutrition interventions are important aspects of school meals that highlight the benefits of school feeding programs and should be strongly promoted, but they are typically part of broader sectoral and cross-sectoral policies and program activities. The lessons learned by other countries through their meal

program experiences encourage and attract students to learning, and demand usually increases (Kattan, 2006).

The mid-day meal (MDM) program has become a key policy in several Asian countries, aiming to improve educational outcomes and nutrition for schoolchildren. Launched in India in 1995, the program has grown to feed over 120 million children daily, making it the world's largest school-feeding initiative. Nepal introduced its MDM program in 1996 with support from the World Food Program, and it expanded to 30 districts by 2009-10. Studies have shown that school meal programs are highly effective in improving both nutrition and education, particularly in developing countries like Nepal. In Nepalese history, the school feeding program was introduced during the Rana Regime with an educational performance goal. During the 1950s, students in need were provided free midday meals in government schools in the Kathmandu Valley. The Sanskrit schools have continued free education, including accommodation and food, to date for a limited number of students (GoN, 2006; Chhetri & Manandhar, 2023).

Following the Federal Act 2015, all three tiers of government play important roles in supporting development activities in Nepal. Education, agriculture, and health sectors are also supervised by LGs. The Province and LG's roles are vital; hence, the study is equally important from a case-study perspective for analyzing the current status and consequences of the homegrown School Meal Program in Nepal (Chhetri et al., 2024).

Nepal is a developing nation facing various challenges, including high levels of poverty and malnutrition. According to the WFP-2022, about 36 percent of children under the age of five in Nepal have suffered from chronic malnutrition. This situation directly affects schoolchildren. The mid-day meal program addresses these issues, aiming to improve the health and educational outcomes of schoolchildren.

The free mid-day meal program in public schools is a scientific initiative aimed at improving the learning activities and nutritional status of schoolchildren across the country. This program is launched to address malnutrition and encourage school attendance. Mainly in rural parts of Nepal, poverty and food insecurity are prevalent; the mid-day lunch program is a symbol of hope for many families and communities (WFP,2019).

The free mid-day meal program directly connects school children with education, food security, and social security. This program, run by the government of Nepal,

assesses the nutritional status and educational outcomes of schoolchildren. To enhance educational quality and promote students' health, this program provides free meals to students in public schools nationwide. Therefore, the aim of this study is to examine the impact of the free mid-day meal program on students' overall academic performance in public schools.

Methodology

This study adopts a mixed-method approach, integrating both quantitative and qualitative methods to examine the effectiveness of the mid-day meal program at Gupteshori Basic School. A descriptive research design has been employed to comprehensively capture and analyze the program's current status and functioning.

Data Collection

Both primary and secondary data were used in this study, collected through field surveys and interviews with key stakeholders, including students, parents, teachers, and members of the school management committee. Direct observations were conducted during lunch breaks to understand the program's implementation and its impact on students. Secondary data were gathered from school reports, local administrative records, and relevant online sources to supplement the primary data.

Sampling and sample size

A simple random sampling method was used to select 21 students from the total of 105 enrolled at the school. Likewise, purposive sampling was used to select 21 parents, 3 teachers, and 5 members of the school management committee, ensuring their direct involvement and relevance to the program.

Data Analysis

Quantitative data were analyzed using Microsoft Excel and SPSS version 20, and results were presented as percentages, frequencies, and tables. Qualitative data from interviews and observations were analyzed thematically and presented as narratives.

Triangulation

To ensure the validity and reliability of the findings, data from surveys, interviews, observations, and secondary sources were triangulated, providing a comprehensive understanding of the impact of the mid-day meal program.

Description of Study Area

Tirpa is a small village in Rawa Besi Rural Municipality-03, Khotang district, Koshi province, Nepal. Located in a hilly region at 27°15'10" N latitude and 86°39'6" E longitude, it has a population of 883 across 209 households (GoN, 2021). The majority of residents belong to the Magar community (114 households), followed by Brahmin-Chhetri (46), Majhi (37), Dalit (10), and Newar (3). Gupteshor Basic School, established in 1959, is situated in the village and serves 105 students with 11 teachers. The school faces poor infrastructure, and many students come from low-income families. Agriculture is the primary livelihood of the villagers, with rice, maize, and millet as staple crops and fruits and vegetables as cash crops. The village's residents, mainly from marginalized and low-income backgrounds, face challenges in accessing quality education. Due to these challenges, Tirpa was selected for this study to assess the effectiveness of the mid-day meal program in improving students' learning activities.

Results and Discussion

Demographic Variation of the Sample Population

A demographic variable is a characteristic of a population that researchers use to categorize and understand different groups within it. Some common demographic variables are age, sex, occupation, family member, religion, income, education level, and so on. Demographic variation refers to differences within a sample population. It helps to understand the demographic characteristics such as age, gender, education, family size, and more between the sample populations.

Table No. 1

Characteristic of the Sample Population

SN	Characteristic	Number of Respondents	Percentage
1	Students	21	42
2	Parents	21	42
3	Teachers	3	6
4	Management committee members	5	10
	Total	50	100

Source: Field Survey (2024)

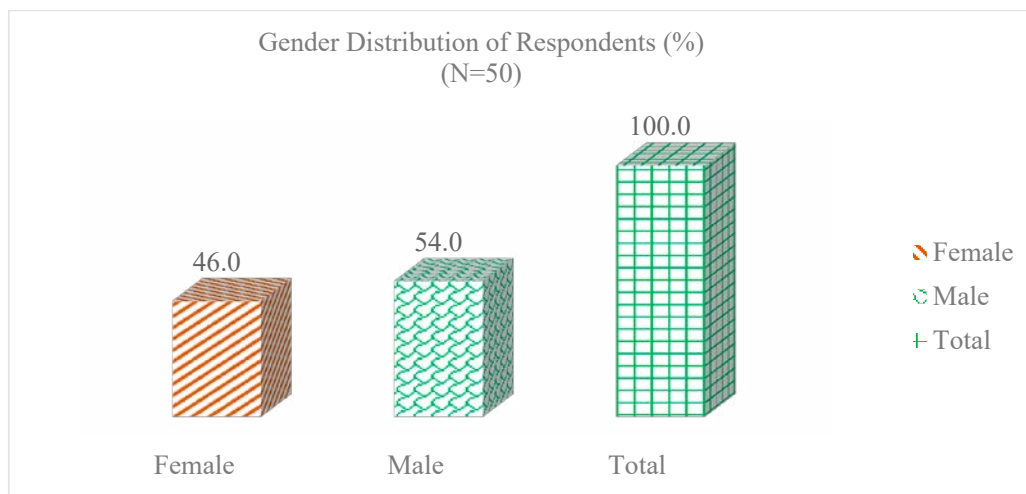
Table 1 shows the different sample sizes for the population. Among them, 42 percent are students, and 42 percent are parents. 10 percent are members of the management committee, and 6 percent are teachers. Of the total respondents, 16 percent are key informants in the study.

Gender Distribution of Respondent

Gender plays a great role in selecting the sample in the study. It refers to representing the study population by gender. It helps in an inclusive and comprehensive understanding of the research topic. In this study, the sample population is divided into male and female groups.

Figure 1

Gender Distribution of Respondent



Source: Field Survey (2024)

Figure 1 shows that among the total respondents, males outnumber females. The male population is 54 percent, and the female population is 46 percent. The sex distribution indicates a fairly balanced gender representation, with slightly higher participation by males than females.

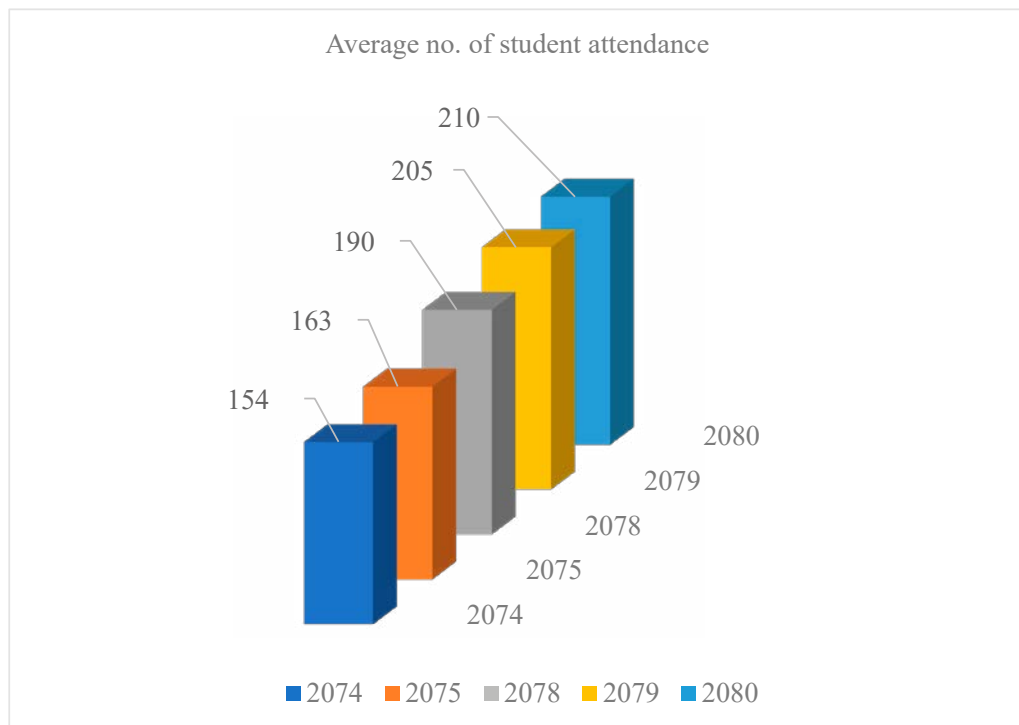
The Effectiveness of the Free Mid-Day Meal Program in the Learning Process

Various indicators have been used to assess the effectiveness of the mid-day meal program. The program serves as a positive intervention in schoolchildren’s learning activities.

Average Student Attendance Rate

The average number of school opening days per year is 220. The average attendance of students before and after the mid-day meal program has found to differ. There is a significant difference in average attendance before and after the program’s implementation. The program directly affects students’ attendance.

Figure 2
Average Student Attendance Rate



Source: Field Survey, 2024)

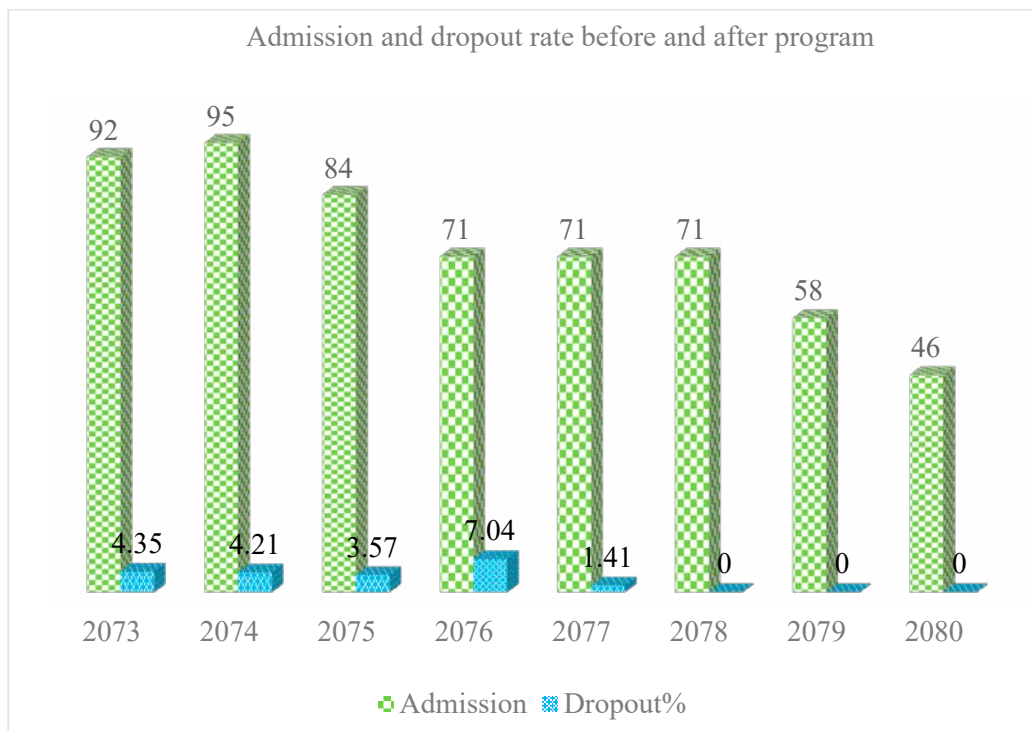
The figure shows a steady increase in students’ average attendance each year after the mid-day meal program was implemented. In 2074 BS, the average attendance was 154 days out of 220, rising to 163 days in 2075 BS. Due to the COVID pandemic, attendance data for 2076 and 2077 is missing. However, in 2078 BS, average attendance rose to 190 days, and by 2080 BS, it reached 210 days out of 220. This data reflects a positive trend in attendance following the program’s implementation. Previous studies also highlight similar improvements in attendance and participation due to the mid-day meal program.

Admission and Dropout Rates

Students were admitted in the new academic year, and some left the school without completing their education. One of the targets of the mid-day meal program is to reduce students' dropout rates in school. Before and after the implementation of the mid-day meal program, the admission and dropout rates of students were found to differ. This program directly affects the school's admission and dropout rates.

Figure 3

Admission and dropout rate before and after the program



Source: Field Survey (2024)

The data (Figure No. 3) illustrates the relationship between school admissions and dropout rates over several years. Before the introduction of the mid-day meal program, dropout rates were high. In 2073 BS, 92 students enrolled with a 4.35% dropout rate, and in 2074 BS, the highest enrollment of 95 students was recorded, with a 4.21% dropout rate. In 2075 BS, 84 students were admitted, and the dropout rate decreased to 3.57%. However, in 2076 BS, with 71 admissions, the dropout rate peaked at 7.04%.

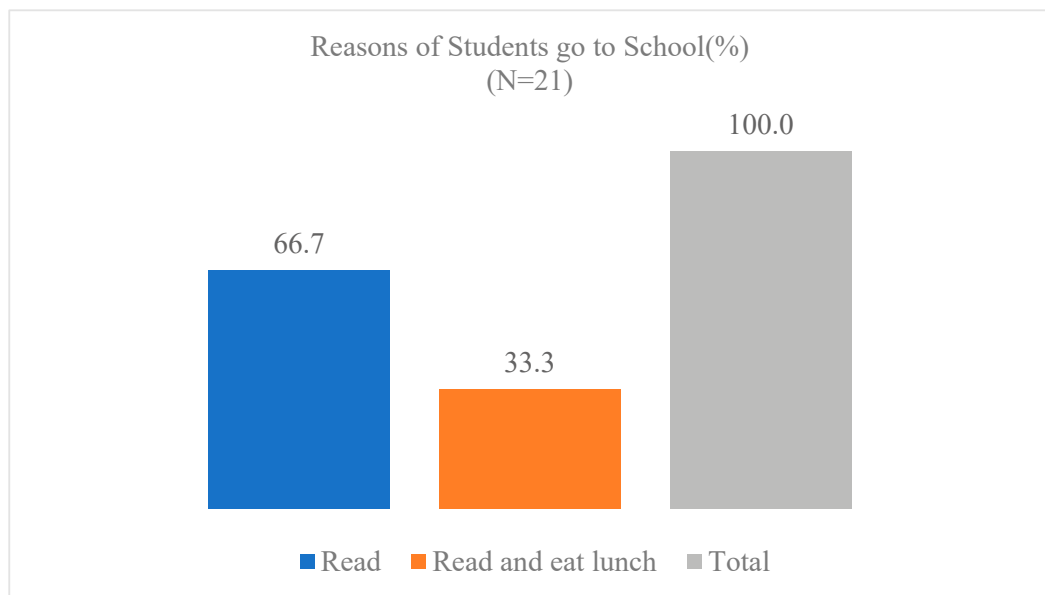
After the mid-day meal program began, dropout rates significantly declined, with no dropouts in the last three years. In 2077 BS, 71 students enrolled, with a dropout rate of just 1.41%. In 2078 BS, 2079 BS, and 2080 BS, 71, 58, and 46 students enrolled, respectively, with zero dropouts. This study confirms prior findings by Tamang (2080), showing that the mid-day meal program effectively reduced dropout rates and improved long-term educational outcomes

Reasons Why Students Attend School

There are several reasons why students go to school. The primary reason is to gain academic knowledge and skills essential to personal and professional growth. School provides a suitable environment for children to develop social skills and academic performance. Additionally, schools offer opportunities for extracurricular activities that help students' physical, mental, and social development. Moreover, various factors play a motivational role in students going to school.

Figure 4

Reasons Why Students Attend School



Source: Field Survey (2024)

The figure (Figure no 4) shows a significant majority (66.7%) of students go to school especially to read, which shows education is their primary aim, and 33.3 percent are motivated by a meal. They both have opportunities to read and receive a

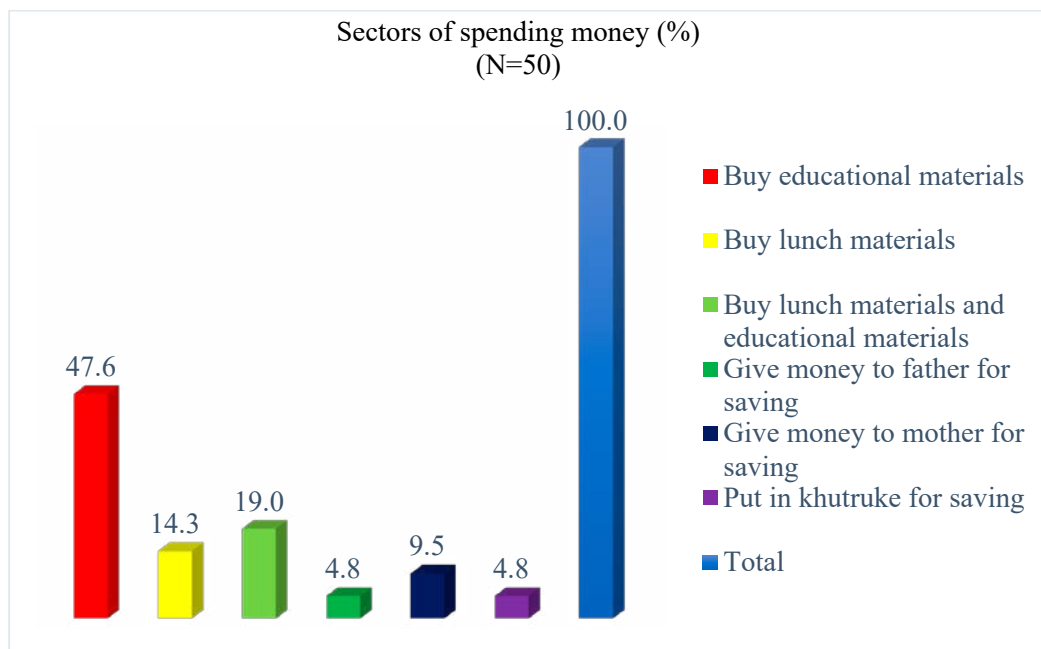
midday meal. This indicates that the mid-day meal program has role in encouraging students to attend school.

Sectors of Spending Mid-Day Meal Money (Students' Perspective)

Most students come from low-income families, with parents working in agriculture or other professions to make ends meet. The school provides meal money based on student attendance, and parents use this money for various expenses.

Figure 5

Sectors of Spending Mid-Day Meal Money (Students' Perspective)



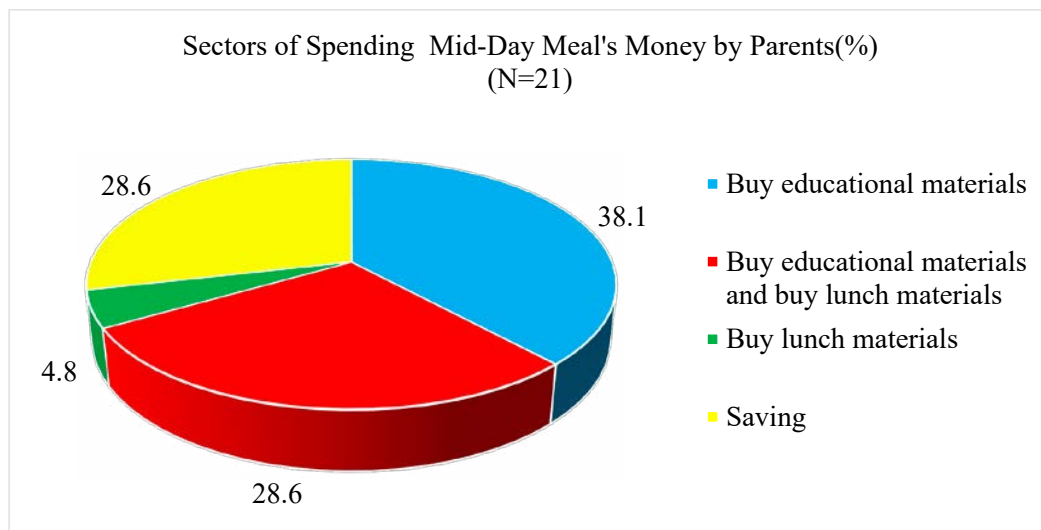
Source: Field Survey (2024)

This figure (Figure 5) shows the distribution of the daily meal budget across different sectors. A maximum of 47.6 percent reported spending on educational materials, reflecting the priority parents give to the educational sector. Similarly, 19 percent divided that money between lunch and educational materials. 14.3 percent is spent on lunch materials only, and a small percentage of students prefer saving their money by giving to their parents or self-putting in khutruke, which indicates this program develops the saving behavior of students.

Sectors of Spending Mid-Day Meal’s Money by Parents

The school called parents about meal money, and they paid based on their children’s attendance. Parents spend the mid-day meal money on various sectors, as shown in the figure.

Figure 6
Sectors of Spending Mid-Day Meal’s Money by Parents.



Source: Field Survey (2024)

This figure shows the different sectors of spending day meal budget by parents. Most parents spend that money to buy educational materials. 38.1 percent spend the day’s meal money to buy educational materials. 28.6 percent saving that money, 28.6 percent buy both educational and lunch materials. 4.8 percent buy lunch, and materials from that money. From the above figures (Figure 5 and Figure 6), the maximum number of students and parents spent money on educational materials, indicating that the budget is invested in the appropriate sector. Some parents save the meal budget, and some students also suggest that their parents do the same, which helps maintain a savings habit for the future.

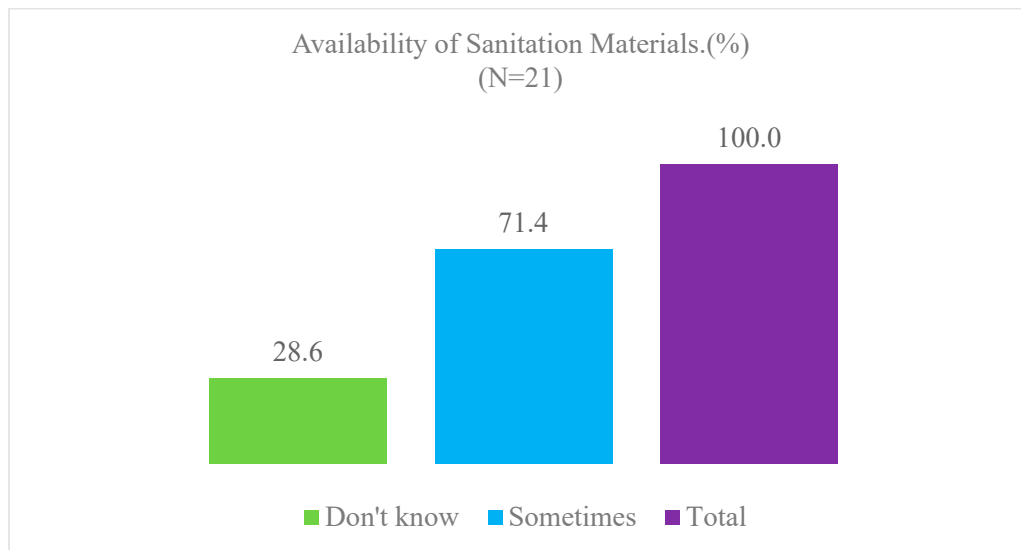
Availability of Sanitation Materials

This survey was conducted to assess the availability of sanitation materials in schools. These materials help prevent the spread of germs and promote a healthy living environment. In the school context, providing adequate sanitation supplies

protects students from diseases, improves their health, and contributes to better learning outcomes.

Figure 7

Availability of Sanitation Materials



Source: Field Survey (2024)

The above figure shows the availability of sanitation materials for hand-washing before and after the mid-day meal at school. Of the respondents, 71.4% reported that soap is sometimes available, while 28.6% were unsure whether soap is provided. The school management does not meet the minimum sanitation standards for students, indicating a weakness in its approach to student hygiene.

Information from Teachers and Management Committee Members

Key informant interviews were conducted with teachers and members of the mid-day meal management committee, with 6% of teachers and 10% of committee members participating. The mid-day meal program has positively impacted students by improving attendance, reducing hunger-related health issues, and promoting local food production. It encourages healthier eating habits by allowing only homemade food and avoiding junk food. Students show improved academic performance, increased social interaction, and greater school participation. The program also supports poor and marginalized families by providing meal budgets

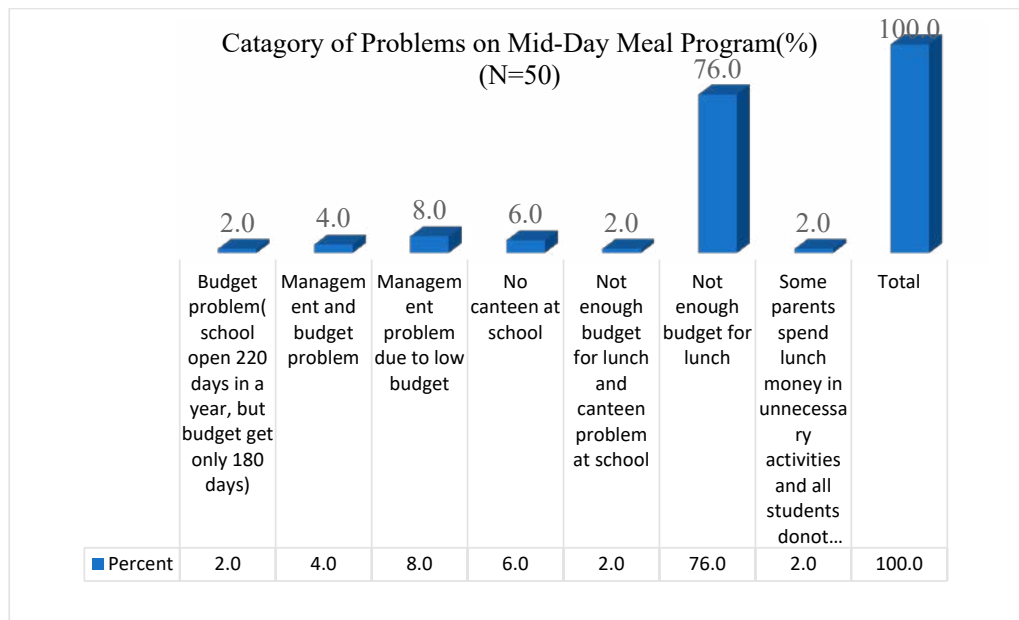
in three phases yearly, aligning with models like Brazil’s National School Feeding Program, which links local production to student nutrition (Sidaner et al., 2012).

The Problems of the Mid-Day Meal Program

There are several challenges at the ground level in implementing the mid-day meal program (Singh et al., 2014). This study aims to identify these problems in a specific area and gather suggestions from respondents for potential solutions. Problems are key drivers of change, offering opportunities for learning and development. Various issues have been raised regarding the mid-day meal program, and these challenges are presented in the figure below:

Figure 8

Category of Problems on the Mid-Day Meal Program



Source: Field Survey (2024)

Figure 8 illustrates the various problems associated with the mid-day meal program. The majority of respondents (76%) indicated that the primary issue is an insufficient budget for daily meals. This is followed by management problems due to low funding (8%) and the lack of a school canteen (6%). Additionally, the daily meal budget is allocated for 180 days, while the school operates for 220 days, creating a budgeting inconsistency based on the number of school days. Insufficient funding

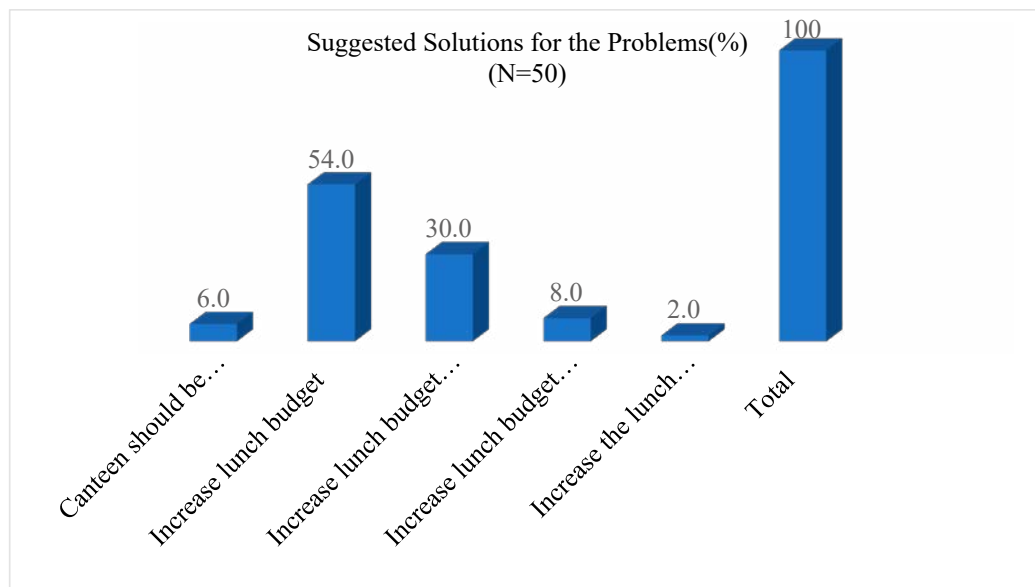
for the mid-day meal program remains the main challenge in the current situation.

Suggested Solution for the Problems

Local stakeholders faced various problems in the mid-day meal program. They have suggested some solution of the problems. From the problems, it seems there is an infrastructure challenge also at the school. Problems have created a challenge in the management of the mid-day meal program.

Figure 9

Suggested Solution for the Problems



Source: Field Survey (2024)

Figure 9 presents various solutions suggested by respondents. The majority, 54%, recommended increasing the daily meal budget, noting that 15 rupees is insufficient for lunch. 30% of respondents suggested both increasing the lunch budget and opening a school canteen. Eight percent proposed increasing the lunch budget through coordination with relevant government bodies. The remaining respondents suggested providing prepared and fresh meals at school to ensure uniformity in the lunch served.

Overall, the data highlights a clear priority for financial improvement to meet the needs of the mid-day meal program. A few respondents also mentioned the need

for better physical infrastructure for meal preparation and distribution at school. Therefore, the school management committee and relevant authorities should plan to enhance the meal budget and school canteen services.

Role of Local Stakeholders in Implementing the Mid-Day Meal Program

The survey highlights stakeholder suggestions for the mid-day meal program. 42% recommended bringing fresh meals regularly to improve implementation. Twenty-four percent emphasized raising awareness about healthy meals, ensuring children's sanitation, and regular monitoring. Eighteen percent focused on meal care and sanitation, while 8% suggested coordinating with stakeholders to open a school canteen. Another 2% proposed using the canteen to ensure uniformity in meals and managing local food production. The remaining 2% stressed the importance of regular monitoring and educating students and parents about healthy food.

Major Findings

Based on the research questions and objectives of this study, several key findings have emerged regarding the effectiveness of the mid-day meal program in primary schools, the problems faced at the ground level, and the role of local stakeholders in its implementation. The program has had a positive impact on students' attendance, academic performance, and overall school participation. It has motivated students to attend classes regularly, with the average annual attendance rate reaching 210 days out of 220 in the year 2080 BS. The dropout rate has also dropped to zero, indicating the program's success in keeping students enrolled. Likewise, students are more engaged in extracurricular activities and show improved academic performance, with fewer students repeating classes. It promotes local production by encouraging homemade meals, helping reduce junk food consumption, and supporting better student health.

Beyond academic benefits, the program has fostered social change. It promotes sanitation awareness among students, leading to healthier practices and reducing harmful hygiene-related behaviors. Students also share their meals, creating social harmony and minimizing caste discrimination. Furthermore, the program offers significant economic benefits to marginalized families, helping them save money for educational materials. The roles of various stakeholders are also crucial for the program's success. Students are responsible for bringing fresh food for the mid-day meal, while parents play an important role in ensuring healthy food and monitoring sanitation. Teachers regularly monitor students' meals and educate both

students and parents on the importance of healthy eating. The school management committee coordinates with relevant bodies to address any issues that arise.

However, several problems persist within the program. The allocated budget for the mid-day meal is insufficient, and inconsistencies in the availability of sanitation materials indicate ineffective management. Poor physical infrastructure also hinders the program's smooth implementation. Additionally, the mid-day meal monitoring is weak, and some parents misuse the funds allocated for the meals, further undermining the program's effectiveness.

Conclusion

The mid-day meal program has proven highly effective, improving student attendance, reducing dropout rates, and enhancing both academic and extracurricular participation. It has positively impacted students' performance, fostered healthier eating habits, and supported local agriculture. The program has also promoted social inclusivity and increased students' awareness of sanitation.

Stakeholder involvement—students, parents, teachers, and management has been essential to the program's success. However, challenges such as insufficient budget, inadequate infrastructure, and weak monitoring need to be addressed. In conclusion, addressing these challenges through increased funding, better infrastructure, and stronger oversight will ensure the program's long-term success, improving educational outcomes and supporting the well-being of marginalized students

Ethical Approval

This study adheres to ethical guidelines. We obtained ethical clearance from the school, which organized a meeting with the stakeholders prior to data collection.

Author Contributions

Mr. Kamal Bhusal is the principal author who conceptualized and designed the research. He wrote the major parts of the article and was responsible for collecting field data and organizing it. Dr. Bashu Dev Dhungel is the corresponding author and contributed to the preparation of the abstract, Methodology and the quantitative data analysis section.

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Conflict and Human Development Relations in the Nepalese Society

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Abstract

This paper explores the relations between conflict and human development in Nepalese society. Conflict is a fast way to change society. The existence of conflict is a natural and obvious process in social phenomena. Conflict accelerates social change. It is also one of the methods of development. Conflict acts as a catalyst for development, but it is not inherently bad. In every social phenomenon, two opposing factors remain. Likewise, Nepalese society is achieving development amid conflict and contradiction rather than peace and stability. It is the consequences of unequal development and the process of different factors in society. Structural factors such as unequal land distribution, unequal access to power, and heterogeneous societal growth always create conflict.

Keywords: development, conflict, modernization, society, power

Introduction to conflict and development

Development is the aim and objective of the present-day society, which has adopted modernization methods. Traditionalism is an obstacle for modernization process. Some scholars argue that the process of westernization is intended to achieve modernization. Some oriental scholars say that industrialization is the process of modernization. Development is an ongoing, never-ending process. According to Marx, development is nothing but change. Change takes place stage by stage. Every successive stage is higher than the previous one. Sometimes we can say that development means diversification of the economy and society. Kentsyans' economists say that the market alone is insufficient to achieve development, and that other variables, such as the environment, production, and industrialization, are also necessary. Development is the interaction among all interested variables, stakeholders, and groups or parties. In the development process, there is no single

group in control. Development is an interaction of multiple interested groups. There is no control over single groups or individuals in the development process. Profit or gain is only an internal mechanism of the development process or change process. Each interested group or individual has its own interest in the development process. In the way of fulfillment of interest of each and every member of society, extreme selfishness, cynicism, nihilism, and conflict are generated in society. These factors have both merits and demerits. Progress is the outcome of these factors- extreme selfishness, cynicism, nihilism, and conflict. If there is no extreme selfishness, cynicism, nihilism, or conflict, there is no progress in a society. These factors change the direction of the development process. Sometimes these things also stop the process of development and modernization.

There are two types of conflicts: armed and unarmed. Armed conflict is a rapid form of social change, while unarmed conflict is a slow one. Both types of conflict are ongoing in Nepal nowadays. Armed conflict is spreading in rural society, but in the urban society armless conflict is going on. Fast modernization and low individual and societal adaptability are the main causes of the conflict. In a short period of time, Nepali society has been infused with countless modern factors. Modern medicines reduce the mortality rate of Nepali people. A low death rate means an increase in the Nepali population. Due to reduced mortality, fertility is increasing, or the population is growing. The literacy rate is increasing, and modern political ideas, thoughts, and methods are evolving. The organizational structure of political and social groups is changing due to the modernization of education and communication systems. People's knowledge, intelligence, analytical power, and organizational power are developing. The spread of information and communication technology helps political groups become better organized. Easy availability of modern chemicals, weapons, technology, and better organization helps to increase armed conflict in Nepal. Political groups use modernization tactics to spread armed conflict in Nepal. On the other hand, the poor are deprived, marginalized, and isolated from society and mainstream social processes. In the household, there is no democracy or justice. Females are deprived and exploited by males. There is no equal distribution of resources and opportunities within households. The powerful and influential are sharing benefits, but the weak and dominated are sharing risk within households. Nepalese society adheres to the same principles as all societies. The society always discriminates by caste, profession, sex, and level of class. These are also the causes of conflict.

Causes of Conflict Formation in Nepalese Society

Due to the diverse nature of Nepali society, differences are characteristic of Nepalese

society rather than unique to it. Due to the diversity of social structure, different cultures are forming in our society. Rich and poor, advanced and backward, skilled and unskilled, intelligent and stupid, brilliant and dull, black and white are some examples of diverse characteristics in Nepalese society. Some people are very traditional, some are less traditional, some are modern, and some are post-modern. Some of them are very static and do not change their usual habits. Some of them are very illiterate and very conventional. Few people are literate and advanced in many aspects. Literate people show diverse characteristics. They have come from different backgrounds and possess different values, attitudes, beliefs, assumptions, and orientations. This diversity might have strengths or weaknesses for society and the nation. It depends on the individual's and society's capacity for utilization. Every day, in every society, the formation of a new culture is a natural and usual process, but the pace or speed of its formation is not the same every time. A new type of culture is emerging in Nepal, one that has never existed before. In many dimensions, this culture is unique and extremely new. Similarly, Geography is one of the major sources of heterogeneity. Different altitudes and natural species are found in a limited area. Different types of flora and fauna are found even in a small area in Nepal. The availability of different plant, animal, and human races is the best example of diversity in Nepal. Nepal has the most diverse human population in the world. Given Nepal's limited area, different races, ethnic groups, caste groups, and cultural groups are common. Different lifestyles, economic styles, and livelihoods are commonly found in Nepal.

Diversity in language, religion, tradition, ethnicity, and professional groups is living together. There was little interaction between such diverse human groups. Each and every group suffered from poverty, isolation, and a lack of communication. Due to less international contact, communication, migration, and access to outsiders, the community's rights are less violated. Another major characteristic of Nepalese society was that it did not function on a monetary mechanism. The role of money was very limited. To manage daily life, there was no role for money. Society is not guided by the concept of consumerism. Likewise, Nepalese people are superstitious, fatalistic, non-energetic, non-political, and non-intellectual. The scenario of Nepal is changing day by day. Slavery is a unique characteristic of Nepalese society. Such characteristics are found irrespective of the educated and non-educated sectors. Illiteracy is common, and mental development is very low. Education is increasing in Nepal, and society is expecting something new, creative, and beneficial from educated communities. These educated groups have grown up and socialized in a very traditional environment, so they are more corrupt, less capable (unable to work), and less competitive. Nepotism and favoritism are principal social mechanisms. In

such an environment, nihilism has spread everywhere and across every sphere of society. Due to selfishness and nihilism, Nepalese society is facing conflict. A new type of conflict is going on in Nepal. This conflict is expanding in every sphere of our lives. Within the household, society, and the country, conflict is ongoing. In every aspect of life, from politics and economics to gender identity, a completely new type of conflict is underway. This conflict stems from the interaction between traditional and modern sectors. Globalization has introduced many ideas into Nepali society in a short period. These are the main factors driving conflict in Nepal. These factors are also the principles of development.

Conflict and Development Relationship

Nepal is progressing in both development and conflict. Development and conflict has interrelationship in Nepal. We have a culture of conflict and development. Development is a new phenomenon, and the culture of conflict has a long history in Nepalese society. Some classical scholars have defined culture in traditional ways. Those definitions are complex, vague, and not clear about culture. For example, Tylor, Malinowski, and Redcliffe are classical scholars. According to Edward Barnett Tylor, culture is a complex whole that includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and other capabilities and habits acquired by human beings as members of society. Taylor's definition is complex and encompasses everything difficult to deal with, such as what culture is. Although Taylor's definition is complex, he was the first person to define culture academically; his contribution is important. Tylor was a pioneer in defining culture, and his contribution stands significantly in the field of development discourse.

According to Samuel P. Huntington (2002), culture is a purely subjective term, referring to the values, attitudes, beliefs, orientations, and underlying assumptions prevalent among people in society. This is the modern and latest definition of culture. This definition is significant because it is a software aspect of culture. Taylor's and other classical concepts of culture are very complex, vague, and include everything. If culture explains everything, the final product will be nothing. So we have to follow the Huntington concept of culture. According to Babu Ram Acharya (2054), culture is an outcome of intelligence and the human brain, and a by-product of the human mind, including mental attitude and its impact. Mental intelligence, attitude, and its outcome are cultural. According to Acharya, Nepal has had a long history of six cultural traditions, viz. architecture, idol, drawing, literature, music, and dance. Of which, the first three are hardware aspects of culture, and the last three are software aspects of culture.

Development culture is a new phenomenon in Nepal. The development phenomenon is an outcome of the development culture. According to Daniel Patrick Moynihan, the central conservative truth is that culture, not politics, determines the success of society; politics can change culture and save it.

According to Harrison's value, attitude, new mindset, time orientation, value of work, frugality, education, merit, community, ethical code, justice authority, and secularism are progressive cultural variables. According to him, culture is the mother and institutions are children. According to Gunnar Myrdal (1968), cultural factors are profoundly influenced by religion and constitute the principal obstacles to modernization and development.

According to Khaldun, civilization develops due to the conflict between nomads and tillers. According to Thomas Hobbes, conflict, quarrels, disputes, violence, and barbaric incidents are natural to human beings, and civilization/state has developed through these incidents. Conflict is a key factor in the origin of the state. The state and authority are products of conflict between human beings in natural conditions. To maintain peace, the state and the people need to manage these incidents. According to Jean Bodin, popular sovereignty is oriented toward managing the conflict inherent in the natural condition of human beings.

Conclusion

The development of human civilization is a product of conflict between different ideas. It is an interaction of multiple interested groups. There is no control over single groups or individuals in the development process. Profit or gain is only an internal mechanism of the development process or change process. Each interested group or individual has its own interest in the development process. In the way of fulfillment of interest of each and every member of society, extreme selfishness, cynicism, nihilism, and conflict are generated in society. In all stages of social transformation and evolution, contradiction is a common phenomenon that cannot be resolved. Contradiction is a notable feature of the feudal and capitalist modes of production.

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Scope of the Right to Information Act in Enabling Local Development in Nepal

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Abstract

This paper aims to explore the impact and potential of the Right to Information (RTI) Act in advancing local development initiatives in Nepal. Historically, local development governance has faced challenges, including limited stakeholder awareness, delays in service delivery, and corruption, transparency, and accountability issues. Enacted in 2007, the RTI Act represents a groundbreaking legislative step, obligating public authorities to actively disclose and disseminate information to support local development efforts. This law empowers citizens to engage more effectively with local authorities, fostering responsive and community-oriented development. The study employs qualitative methods with an exploratory and descriptive approach, using purposively selected case studies from Kathmandu Metropolitan City and Sunkoshi Rural Municipality in Okhaldhunga. The findings highlight that transparency and accountability within local government administration are essential for participatory democracy. Overall, the RTI Act is shown to be a transformative tool for citizens, significantly enhancing governance by promoting transparency, accountability, citizen involvement, and effective local development.

Keywords: governance of local development, local authorities, local development, public service delivery, right to information.

Introduction

The United Nations, in its very first General Assembly in 1946¹, adopted a resolution (59.1) stating that freedom of information, hereafter referred to as FOI, is a fundamental human right and the touchstone of all the freedoms on which the United Nations is consecrated. Florine (2007) argues that the line is not quite

1 UN General Assembly Resolution 1946

right: information by itself is not power. But information is vital to the exercise of economic and political power. Opening up channels of information changes who can do what. However, over the past few decades, we have witnessed increased awareness among citizens from around the world, demanding more information and an end to secretive decision-making. As a result, laws regarding public access to information about government services have been adopted by the United Kingdom, Japan, India, South Africa, Mexico, and a host of other countries.

RTI Initiatives in Nepal

In Nepal, the Right to Information (RTI) has only recently been recognized as a fundamental right of citizens, on par with other constitutional rights. Although the right to access information was acknowledged in the 1990 Constitution, it was not actively implemented until the RTI Act was enacted in July 2007. The Act, passed by Nepal's Parliament, aimed to ensure citizens' fundamental rights to seek, receive, and disseminate information on matters of public significance managed by public agencies (Dahal, 2010). Nepal was the third country in South Asia to adopt an RTI law, following Pakistan (2002) and India (2005). However, Nepal was the first in the region to constitutionally recognize the right to information, as Article 16 of the 1990 Constitution explicitly guaranteed it. This commitment was upheld in the Interim Constitution (Article 27) and remains in Article 27 of the Constitution of Nepal 2015.

The Nepalese Legislature-Parliament endorsed the RTI Act, acknowledging several points. The Act's Preamble says that the law was adopted because a legal arrangement for RTI is desirable "so that the state functioning or mechanism is made open and transparent government with the democratic institution to make it accountable and responsible towards the citizen; to ease the general public's access to information of public interest; to protect sensitive information that could be damaging to the interests of the nation as well as citizens; and to protect and implement the citizen's right to information.²" RTI movements underscore the principle of maximum disclosure, asserting that all information held by public bodies should generally be accessible to the public, with restrictions applied only in rare, justified cases. The RTI Act was designed to establish a practical framework for citizens' right to information, acknowledging that access to information is a fundamental right. In democratic societies, individuals have the right to freedom of opinion and expression, including the right to hold public opinions and to seek, receive, and share information from public authorities. Accessible and accurate

2 Right to Information Act, 2007

information empowers citizens to lead dignified lives within a responsible society (Dahal, 2010).

The RTI Act of 2007 resulted from sustained efforts by the media and civil society organizations, marking significant progress in ensuring freedom of information in Nepal. These efforts also led to the establishment of the National Information Commission (NIC) on June 14, 2008, an independent body dedicated to promoting and safeguarding the right to information, along with the approval of the RTI Regulation on February 9, 2009. The contributions of Nepalese civil society and media have been instrumental in institutionalizing freedom of information and fostering a transparent and equitable information regime. This commitment to promoting, protecting, and practicing information access serves as the foundation of a transparent, democratic society in Nepal

RTI provides citizens with the opportunity to be informed of what the government does for them, why, and how it does it. The Act enables every citizen to access public information from government records, including budget allocations, expenses for development and administrative activities, government decisions, public service delivery policies and procedures, and all government income and expenditure. To intensify the process of a paradigm shift from the state-centric to the citizen-centric model of local development, the RTI Moment in Nepal was established to promote access to information and to recognize the right to seek information as a fundamental right, thereby fostering transparent, accountable, responsible, participatory, and decentralized development administration.

Local Development and RTI

Local development governance encompasses the combined efforts of various entities to improve the quality of life, enhance public satisfaction, promote economic growth, and conserve the environment. A community plays a central role in local development, driven by its own interests and active participation in realizing these goals. Assessing the effectiveness of local development governance is essential to strengthening local authorities' impact on socio-economic advancements. Key measures—such as reforming public service delivery, fostering transparency, and promoting accountability—are instrumental in making local governance more people-centered. The Right to Information (RTI) Act serves as a vital tool in enabling transparent governance in local communities, reducing information disparities, and curbing corruption. Since its enactment, the RTI Act has contributed to increased responsiveness and accountability in public service and development administration.

RTI holds transformative potential, empowering citizens, civil society, media, activist groups, and NGOs to engage meaningfully in local development, fostering a more inclusive and participatory approach. By simply enacting the RTI Act, ordinary citizens have gained a powerful mechanism to question public decisions, scrutinize expenditures, and verify beneficiary lists and selection criteria. This empowerment is particularly significant for local development, governance, administration, monitoring, participation, advocacy, and democracy. In an era when information is increasingly viewed as fundamental to human rights, access to information has become as essential as basic needs such as food and shelter. Consequently, RTI represents a substantial contribution to strengthening local development and governance.

Objective of the Study

The general objective of the study is to assess and review the scope of the RTI Act for enabling local development governance in Nepal. The specific objectives of this study are to:

- Explore the issues of local development from the perspective of governance and administrative system, and
- Assess the scope of the RTI Act to resolve the issues of governance of local development in Nepal

Methodology

This research is qualitative and descriptive, relying primarily on exploration and description. Structured interviews and observations of the public service delivery system of the local government, the quality of development activities, people's participation in the development activities, and the relationship between the information demand side and the information supply side were conducted. It is based on both secondary and primary data.

For the study, Kathmandu Metropolitan City in Kathmandu and Sunkoshi Rural Municipality in Okhaldhunga were purposively selected. The selection of the local governments is based on the representation of municipalities and rural municipalities. The selected palikas can't cover the entire county, but they can represent all regions and all types of palikas. As a sample, there were three beneficiaries from the demand or information-seeker side and three public authorities from the supply or information-keeper side in each palika. Among them, a journalist, an RTI activist, and a general citizen were selected as information seekers, and the

mayor/chairperson, chief executive officer, and information officer were selected as information keepers from each palika, respectively.

Analysis and Results

Issues of Local Development in Nepal

Local development governance relies on a variety of factors, including administrative capacity, the nation's level of development, external influences, and the availability of technology and information to support decision-making. The World Bank highlights challenges in development governance relevant to both developed and developing nations. Key elements involve political and administrative dimensions, such as political accountability, citizen acceptance of the political system, and regular elections to legitimize political authority. Freedom of association and active participation by diverse groups—religious, social, economic, cultural, and professional—are essential for inclusive governance. An established legal framework rooted in the rule of law, alongside judicial independence, is crucial to upholding human rights, ensuring social justice, and protecting against the misuse of power. Accessible information is also essential for shaping public policies, making informed decisions, and monitoring the effectiveness of governance. Effective administration must prioritize efficiency, cost-effectiveness, and cooperation between government entities and civil society organizations.

Challenges hindering local development governance include corruption, power centralization, politicization, human rights abuses, weak legislative capacity, limited citizen participation, underactive civil society, disempowered grassroots democratic institutions, and poor coordination among political and community-level organizations. Additionally, judicial delays and limited involvement of disadvantaged groups in decision-making processes impede progress in local governance.

This study assesses how the Right to Information (RTI) Act can address these challenges and improve local governance for development. It provides an analytical foundation for exploring how RTI can resolve issues affecting local governance. Citizens currently face obstacles to public service delivery, including delays, lack of transparency, and corruption. Enacted in 2007, the RTI Act is critical legislation that grants citizens access to information from public authorities, aiming to enhance transparency in local governance decision-making. By reducing unnecessary secrecy, the Act enables individuals and groups to stay informed about decisions

that impact them. This increased transparency fosters participatory democracy by involving citizens in administrative and political processes. The RTI Act is seen as a powerful tool for improving local governance in Nepal, supporting democratic participation, accountability, transparency, and citizen empowerment, and fostering a balance of power between rights holders and duty bearers for better governance outcomes

Scope of RTI in Local Development

The RTI Act is an important legislative measure aimed at keeping citizens informed about government activities and maintaining good governance in development administration. So, the study has assessed the role of RTI in enabling local development governance in Nepal. The assessment was conducted with Kathmandu Metropolitan City and Sunkoshi Rural Municipality, where more than 30 local development issues were forwarded for consideration through the RTI mechanism. Those are demand-side indicators for the public to fulfill from the supply side or the local government authority.

Table 1

Responses to Specific Issues that can be solved with RTI

SN	Issues of local development	Responses in Percentage (%)		
		Kathmandu	Sunkoshi	Average
1	Communication gap	100	100	100
2	Delays in service delivery	84	100	92
3	Wastage of time	84	100	92
4	Wrong Users committee selection	100	100	100
5	Un-transparent system of local government	84	100	92
6	Benefits to Non-Poor	84	100	92
7	Dependency on Government	100	100	100
8	Poor participation of beneficiaries	84	100	92
9	Agencies involved for the misuse of fund	84	100	92

SN	Issues of local development	Responses in Percentage (%)		
		Kathmandu	Sunkoshi	Average
10	Poor control of government agencies with poor beneficiaries	84	100	92
11	Lack of coordination	84	100	92
12	Paperwork based Implementation Complexities	84	84	84
13	Over lapping	84	84	84
14	Lack of awareness	84	100	92
15	Leakages	84	100	92
16	Lack of accountability	84	100	92
17	Absence of people's participation	84	84	84
18	Centralized trend of planning and deciding local priorities	100	100	100
19	High Cost of delivery	84	100	92
20	Absence of actual monitoring	100	84	92
21	Absence of actual evaluation	84	100	92
22	Lot of paper work	84	84	84
23	Use of less materials in construction than shown in the estimates or in the bills and vouchers	100	84	92
24	Payment to fictitious workers listed in muster rolls	84	100	92
25	Government programs in contravention of established rules	100	100	100
26	Exploitation	84	84	84
27	Failure to implement social legislation such as those related to minimum wages, gender and protection of disadvantaged groups	84	100	92

SN	Issues of local development	Responses in Percentage (%)		
		Kathmandu	Sunkoshi	Average
28	Rights and dignity of the individual	84	100	92
29	Taking decisions that critically and adversely affect people without consulting	100	84	92
30	Failure to perform duties effectively	100	100	100
Average in all Issues		88.8 %	95.73%	97.33 %

Source: Field Survey, 2022

The above-mentioned response was collected through multiple-choice questions, with responses received on identified issues. From the above data, it is clear that almost all stakeholders believe that RTI has significant potential to overcome hurdles in local development governance. Beyond this, it has been made to elicit the stakeholders' expressive opinions on the problems related to local development governance. Thus, from the above responses, it is evident that people believe RTI can be very useful in addressing problems in local development. People responded in terms of the types of issues in local development. Even people responded very specifically regarding how a particular issue can be resolved through using RTI. Beyond this, the respondent expressed concern about the problems and the hope they sought in the RTI instrument. The above responses addressed the problems that can be solved through RTI. The implementation of the RTI Act has been weak and relatively inadequate. One of the main reasons is the inadequate awareness and lack of well-trained personnel in public agencies. Nevertheless, there is a growing demand from civil society groups for the proper implementation of the Act, and one study showed that awareness of the RTI legislation in Nepal. The implementation of provisions on proactive disclosure has also been weak, and none of the surveyed public authorities published all the required information on their respective websites. A large proportion of public bodies have failed to appoint information officers as required under the law. Only a small number of government bodies have designated an information officer.

Role of RTI in Enabling Local Development

Respondents considered RTI an important instrument that has significantly improved local development governance by combating corruption, spreading

awareness among the masses, and promoting transparency and accountability. Likewise, RTI helps to strengthen democracy and remove regional disparities. According to respondents, RTI can improve administrative systems and public service delivery. It serves as a check on elected representatives and public authorities. The quality of service delivery and the openness of local development governance can also be maintained through the use of the RTI Act. Thus, the overall perception of stakeholders regarding its role in reforming governance, in general, and local development in particular, is quite positive and ambitious.

Table 2

Perception of Respondents about RTI and Local Development

Statement About RTI	Agree with Statement in Percentage (%)	Do not agree with the statement in Percentage (%)
The use of the RTI Act is very objective and productive in the development activity	87	13
The instrument of the RTI Act has provided an excellent opportunity to the beneficiaries for direct and decisive participation in local development governance	83	17
The RTI Act has played a vital role in containing corruption in local development at all stages and helped promote transparency in the process of local development	71	29
RTI controls irresponsible activities by people's representatives and local government administrators in local development governance.	70	30

Source: Field Survey, 2022

Table 1 makes it clear that most respondents believe that the use of RTI is highly objective and productive in development activities. A very small number of respondents doesn't agree with this. In case of another statement, "The instrument of the RTI Act has provided an excellent opportunity to the beneficiaries for the direct

and decisive participation in local development,” the majority of the respondents agree with this, while 13% don’t. The same is the case with the stakeholders’ perception regarding “RTI’s role in combating corruption” 71 % of the respondents believe that RTI played a role in combating corruption. 70 % respondents agree that the RTI Act controls the irresponsible activities of people representatives and local government administrators towards local development governance.

Table 3*Usefulness of the RTI Act*

Do you think that the RTI Act 2007 could be useful in strengthening the local development governance?	Numbers and Weightage of Responses in “YES”	Numbers and Weightage of Responses in “NO”
Supply Side (Mayors/Chairperson, Chief Administrative Officers, and Information Officers)	5 (83.33 %)	1 (16.66%)
Demand Side (Beneficiaries, Journalists, RTI Activists/ Civil Societies)	4(66.66%)	2 (33.33 %)
RTI Experts (Experts, NIC commissioners, NIC Chief commissioner)	6 (100 %)	0
Total	15 (83.33 %)	3 (16.66 %)

Source: Field Survey, 2022

As far as the usefulness of the RTI Act is concerned, 83.33% of the respondents replied affirmatively, indicating that they believe the RTI Act is useful for strengthening local development governance. Only 16.66% of total respondents gave a negative response to this question, which is negligible. If we analyze the responses category-wise, they seem affirmative. So, we can say that the general perception of RTI, especially regarding its potential to strengthen local development governance, is quite effective. There is no doubt that all people believe that RTI is useful for the sustainable development of local communities. Hence, the act can be considered an important part of an effective regime of transparent, participatory, and accountable local development governance.

The review and analysis of perceptions reveal that people see the Right to Information

(RTI) as a vital tool for addressing issues in local development governance. Public sentiment toward the RTI Act is largely positive, with many respondents recognizing its value in resolving governance-related challenges. There is a widespread belief that, without such an Act, ordinary citizens would struggle to access the information they need, making RTI an essential legal pathway to information access. The RTI Act has the potential to intervene in a range of local development issues, providing an effective mechanism for tackling governance challenges. While the Act promotes public awareness, civil society organizations play a significant role in educating the public and could further enhance these efforts. The RTI Act also serves as an instrument of public awareness by disseminating information on government programs to people at the local level, thereby contributing significantly to local governance and development.

However, the study indicates that the implementation of RTI has not met the Act's intended standards. While urban areas like Kathmandu show better compliance, rural areas, such as Sunkoshi, lag significantly behind. A large portion of the population, including public officials, remains unaware of the RTI Act's role in promoting effective local development governance. Many citizens lack insight into how public funds are allocated and spent, highlighting the need for greater awareness and engagement with RTI to strengthen local governance.

Findings

The RTI Act of 2007 has proven to be an effective tool for enhancing governance in local development by promoting transparency and curbing corruption. By enabling citizens to access information held by public authorities, particularly local governments, the RTI Act fosters accountability and responsible governance. Through this transparency, citizens gain insight into various development projects, budgets, and policies, which strengthens the accountability of local authorities. The Act provides a mechanism to reduce corruption and administrative inefficiencies in local governance by empowering citizens to request information and monitor officials' actions. With strategic policy adjustments and increased public awareness, the RTI's potential could be further optimized. Key findings of this study include:

- a) RTI plays a transformative role across various aspects of life—political, social, economic, cultural, and ethical—enhancing people's beliefs and ethical values.
- b) The Act promotes citizen participation in local development, enabling them to inquire about projects and decisions, thereby fostering active involvement in decision-making.

- c) Citizens can utilize RTI to access details about local development activities, budgets, and expenditures, facilitating independent oversight and evaluation of these initiatives to ensure effective implementation.
- d) RTI strengthens service delivery quality, as local development governance is grounded in transparent, open information.
- e) The Act promotes accuracy, accountability, impartiality, and public engagement in government activities.
- f) The RTI Act is a valuable tool for advancing local development governance, supporting structured and productive use in governance activities.
- g) The National Information Commission should launch extensive awareness campaigns to educate citizens on RTI, thereby encouraging their active use of this right.
- h) Local authorities have not sufficiently addressed the needs of underprivileged groups regarding RTI rights, indicating a gap in inclusive governance.
- i) Civil society organizations have been instrumental in RTI advocacy by collaborating with the government, civil society, and media to raise public awareness about RTI and access processes.

Conclusion

This study aimed to assess the impact of the Right to Information (RTI) Act on local development governance in Nepal, particularly in addressing challenges such as administrative delays, corruption, and a lack of transparency. Findings indicate that the RTI Act enhances transparency by ensuring public access to government rules, decisions, and processes, thereby strengthening the accountability of public authorities. For effective governance, the government must not only represent but also actively respond to citizens' needs. Key elements of good governance: rule of law, judicial independence, citizen participation, and social equity are integral to this framework.

To further promote effective local governance, ongoing RTI awareness campaigns should be prioritized as a joint effort by civil society, private organizations, and government. Additionally, supporting RTI activists through capacity building and resources will help sustain the Act's impact on fostering transparency, accountability, and citizen satisfaction in local development initiatives

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Indigenous Community Livelihood through Non-Timber Forest Products in Nepal: A Case Study of Jangjang, Sindhuli

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Abstract

Indigenous people, mainly Magars in Jangjang, are a highly marginalized nationality in Nepal who live near forests rich in Non-timber Forest Products (NTFPs) of commercial importance. These NTFPs can be a potential source of their income. This case study describes the role of Magar in the marketing channel for those NTFPs and analyzes the household socio-economic characteristics that influence the collection and marketing of NTFPs in Jangjang Village, Sindhuli District. The study shows that the collection and marketing of NTFPs are not an attractive source of income, especially for those relatively better-off in their households who possess larger landholdings, greater food self-sufficiency, and income from other sources. This is because the current price offered for the NTFPs collected by the community is very nominal and does not even cover the labour costs involved. The Community Forestry Users Group (CFUG), an indigenous community-based institution in Jangjang, is struggling to provide better prices for Magars. However, it faces challenges due to Magars' limited institutional management capacity. Further empowerment of CFUG can improve the Magar community's bargaining power in NTFP trade.

Keywords: backward multiple regression, household socio-economic characteristics, indigenous nationalities, marketing channel, MCFG

Introduction

Non-Timber Forest Products (NTFPs) are an important source of livelihoods for rural populations worldwide. Rural communities depend on forests to meet subsistence needs such as food, fodder, litter, and fuelwood. Different studies conducted by various organizations reveal that a significant proportion of the world's rural population is highly dependent on forest resources. For instance, according to an

estimate by the World Commission on Forestry and Sustainable Development, 350 million people depend almost entirely on forests and trees for their subsistence needs, and another 1 billion depend on forests and trees for fuel wood, food, and fodder. Similarly, the World Bank (2003) reports that 1.6 billion people depend to varying degrees on forests for their livelihoods, with 350 million living in or near dense forests and relying on them heavily. In the same line, the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) estimates that 80 percent of the population in developing countries relies on NTFPs for nutritional and health needs (FAO, 2003). Though the numbers estimated by different organizations may vary, these studies suggest that a significant proportion of the population lives in or near forests and depends on them to some degree. Forest products act as buffers during times of hardship and are often used as safety nets, with rural communities depending on these resources to bridge hunger gaps (Khatri-Chhetri, 2006). NTFPs not only meet the subsistence needs of the rural population but also generate cash income.

The Magars, one of the indigenous nationalities living in the hills of Nepal, are highly dependent on forest resources for their subsistence and are involved in the collection and marketing of NTFPs for cash income. Magars live in difficult terrain in the hills of Okhaldhunga, Udayapur, Sindhuli, Rolpa, Rukum, etc. Magars lived a fully nomadic life, depending entirely on forest resources for hunting and gathering. Their agriculture was the mainstay of their livelihoods, and they practiced khoriya or shifting cultivation. Similarly, this study was conducted in Jangjang Village, Sindhuli District, Nepal, in close cooperation with the Rufford Small Grant Foundation and organized by NCRP Nepal. Magars are the largest ethnic group in this region, accounting for 54 percent of the village's total population. Jangjang Village is linked to the Mahabharat range in Nepal, extending up to the district's foothills. Other adjoining hilly VDCs where Magars live (i.e., Khangsang, Ratnawati, Solpa, and Solidanda) are not connected by motorable roads. Thus, Jangjang is the main center of the inhabitants of the adjoining Villages. Elevation of Jangjang Village ranges from 1200 to 1500 meters above sea level; however, to collect important NTFPs, the Magar community from this village often travels to the forests of adjoining villages at higher elevations, the highest point being Solidanda, located in Solidanda Village. The maximum species richness of medicinal and aromatic plants occurs at elevations of 1000–2000 metres. Thus, forests in and around Jangjang Village have a rich diversity of commercially important NTFPs. Recognizing the potential of the NTFP market in the area, the Magar Community Forest Users Group (MCFG) was established in Jangjang; it received financial and technical support from NCRP Nepal and the Rufford Small Grant Foundation, after

which it was handed over to the Magar community. MCFG is currently owned and run solely by the Magar community.

Objectives

The objectives of the case study are as follows:

- a) To find out the real situation of NTFPs collection and marketing in the study area.
- b) To analyze the Socio-Economic Factors Influencing the Income Generation from NTFPs

Methodology

A household survey was conducted to obtain information on the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of Magar households, the diversity of NTFPs collected, and the income generated from these NTFPs. Fifty Magar households were randomly selected for the purpose of the household survey. It accounts for 15 percent of the total Magar households in Jangjang Village. Semi-structured interview schedules were used for the household survey, and self-administered questionnaires were completed by household members. Field visits were conducted in two phases: the household survey in August-September 2010, and follow-up visits in February-March 2011. All the households covered by the survey lack access to transportation facilities and electricity. To generate information about the marketing channel, key informant interviews were conducted with three local businessmen in Jangjang, and the MCFG was involved in the trade of NTFPs with Magars. A list of NTFPs collected for marketing was prepared for each household, and income generated from their sale was recorded. The unit prices of those products were also recorded and later cross-checked during an interview with the road-head businessmen in Ghurmi Bazaar, the nearest Bazaar to Jangjang. The marketing channel for major NTFPs traded from Jangjang was prepared using information from the household survey and interviews with road-head traders. The respondents also recorded the annual income of the households, recalling income from all sources. Socio-economic factors affecting the actual harvesting and marketing activities of NTFPs differ spatially and are important for understanding local dynamics.

Results and Discussions

Collection and Marketing of NTFPs

NTFPs are collected by households for either subsistence or commercial purposes. All Magar households covered by the survey depend on NTFPs for their livelihoods

and for domestic use, including fodder, fuelwood, litter, food, and medicine. However, discussion of the NTFPs used for subsistence purposes is beyond the scope of this paper. This study thus includes only the commercially traded NTFPs in the area. Nearly 70 percent of the households covered by the study collected NTFPs for commercial purposes. A total of 23 NTFP types were collected and sold by Magar households in Jangjang. In terms of trade volume, Kaulo, Chiuri butter, and Daar were the most traded. Fruit was the most commonly traded plant part, followed by bark. Besides fruits and bark, butter, vines, flowers, roots, young shoots, spikes, leaves, and exudates were also traded. These NTFPs were mostly traded for medicinal purposes, and others were traded for various purposes such as incense, cosmetics, spices, dyes, fibers, vegetables, and tea. Kurilofetched the best price, followed by honey; however, the total transaction volume for these products is quite low. Chiuri butter ranks second in volume of trade and third in price, implying that market demand for Chiuri butter is high and that it serves as an important source of cash income for the community near Jangjang Village. With the rapid commercialization of NTFPs, unsustainable harvesting of a few species is evident in the field. Destructive harvesting is a serious problem, especially for those species whose bark and roots are traded. During the interview, the trade in the bark of Kaulo and Daar was at its peak, with the annual quantity of dried bark traded from Jangjang being several tonnes for Kaulo and Daar. The trees of all ages were debarked for sale; as a result, during the authors' subsequent field visits, no mature Kaulo and Daar trees remained in the forest.

Table 1
Major NTFPs Traded in Jangjang Village

Scientific name	Nepali Name	Part traded	Purpose
<i>Perseabombycina</i>	Kaulo	Bark	Incense
<i>Bassiabutyracea</i>	Chiuri	Butter	Medicine, Cosmetics
<i>Boehmeriarugulosa</i>	Daar	Bark	Incense
<i>Tinosporasinensis</i>	Gurjo	Vine	Medicine
<i>Terminalia bellirica</i>	Barro	Fruit	Medicine
<i>Terminalia chebula</i>	Harro	Fruit	Medicine
<i>Phyllanthusemblica</i>	Amala	Fruit	Medicine
<i>Sapindusmukorossi</i>	Rittha	Fruit	Cosmetics
<i>Thysanolaena maxima</i>	Amriso	Spike	Broom

Scientific name	Nepali Name	Part traded	Purpose
<i>Myricaesculenta</i>	Kaafal	Bark	Medicine
<i>Asparagus racemosus</i>	Kurilo	Root	Medicine
Honey	-	-	Medicine
<i>Shorearobusta</i>	Saldhup	Exudate	Incense
<i>Zanthoxylum</i> sp.	Boke timur	Fruit	Medicine
<i>Girardinia diversifolia</i>	Allo	Bark	Fiber
<i>Dryopteris cochleata</i>	Niuro	Young shoot	Vegetable
<i>Bambusa nepalensis</i>	Bans	Young shoot	Vegetable

Source: Field survey, 2011

Similarly, the case for Kurilo and Bajuri whose roots are traded. For sustainable harvesting of barks, only branches of mature trees should be debarked from one side of the trunk, while allowing the younger trees to grow. The study reports that destructive harvesting was carried out only in the state-owned forest, whereas in community-managed forests, debarking was performed only on one side of the trunk, without killing the whole tree. This suggests that although the collectors are aware of the consequences of destructive harvesting, they are not following it. To prevent biodiversity degradation and resource depletion, MCFG can help formulate and enforce rules and regulations for the sustainable harvesting of commercially important NTFPs in its working area. Also, the staff of MCFG can be trained as resource persons in the community and mobilized to train communities on the scientific way of harvesting NTFPs. There are three different levels of middlemen involved in the NTFP trade there. The collectors sell their products to MCFG or road-head businessmen in Ghurmi market. Besides MCFG, there are three individual road-head businessmen in Jangjang who collect NTFPs. Almost all the Magar households are located in the hilly ridges of the Village. Thus, they carry the NTFPs from their settlements to the roadhead, where businessmen or MCFG at the foot of the Village, where the main market centre of Jangjang is located. The price that collectors receive from road-head middlemen or MCFG does not include the labour costs of collecting these NTFPs and carrying them down to the market. The next level of middlemen are the wholesalers from Ghurmi and Katari, who come to Jangjang to buy NTFPs from the road-head businessmen, which are then sold to traders from India. It was found that nearly 50 percent of the total volume of NTFP traded from Jangjang was exported in crude form to India, while only 50 percent of

the NTFP was purchased by national processors. The detailed marketing channel, showing the actors involved and the Magars' role in the market chain, was limited to collectors. No collectors had access to the middlemen outside the district. Except for MCFG, an institution run by the Magars, all the road-head businessmen involved in the trade were non-Magars. Although MCFG is an important community-based institution for the Magars, only 30 percent of the total NTFP volume in Jangjang was traded by MCFG. MCFG faces two major business challenges in competing with local businessmen. Firstly, MCFG lacks the working capital needed to pay collectors while buying NTFPs; collectors are reluctant to wait for payment and would prefer to sell the NTFPs to businessmen who pay immediately. Secondly, Magars have to rely on businessmen for loans during emergencies. During food shortages, Magars borrow food and cash from these businessmen, which they repay in NTFPs. Thus, the relationship between the Magar community and the road-head businessmen is not only that of a buyer-seller, but also acts as a social safety net that the Magars cannot easily break. They therefore continue selling their NTFPs to these businessmen. Furthermore, Magars lack the institutional and business management skills needed to formulate effective business plans for MCFG. There are several reasons why the Magars' role is limited to collectors. Firstly, NTFP traders need to obtain a collection license from the District Forestry Office to collect NTFP and pay taxes to the government. Magars are largely ignorant of official procedures and thus reluctant to obtain the license. Secondly, NTFPs need to be collected in sufficient volumes before they can be sold to wholesalers, and they need to be stored properly. Magars lack the capital needed for initial investment in constructing storage houses and buying packaging materials. Thirdly, they lack access to market information, and, furthermore, limited communication facilities and the geographical isolation of the Magar settlements prevent them from establishing a network with other agents along the market chain. NTFP-related studies in the Magars areas show that collectors have the lowest profit margins in the value chain. To increase the collectors' share of profits, a popular recommendation is to shorten the market channel to reduce the number of middlemen. However, collectors are often the weakest actors in the NTFP market chain and thus have the least bargaining power, so even if collectors bypass the middlemen, they are not necessarily assured of a higher profit margin. Collectors do not have the necessary capital to bear the risks associated with stockpiling perishable NTFPs. As Magars lack the necessary knowledge, capital, risk-bearing capacity, or legal rights to exploit market opportunities when they exist, the road-head businessmen play an important role in creating income-generating opportunities for the Magars. They bear the

associated risks of stockpiling NTFPs, provide an outlet for sale, and thus play an important role in maintaining a robust NTFP market. Development interventions targeting the Magars should rather focus on community capacity building. In the case of the Magar community in Jangiang, increasing MCFG's competitiveness in NTFP trade would improve the Magar community's bargaining power. For this, the MCFG should receive financial and technical support. Since it is solely owned by the Magar community, increasing MCFG's profit margin automatically means more dividend shares for the community.

Socio-Economic Factors Influencing the Income Generation from NTFPs

On average, NTFPs contributed 15 percent to households' total income, ranging from 0 percent to 65 percent. The income generated from NTFPs thus varied greatly across the sample households. To assess the factors determining the collection and sale of NTFPs by households, a backward multiple regression analysis was performed, with annual income generated from NTFP sales as the dependent variable and 10 household socio-economic attributes as independent variables. The education of the household head, food self-sufficiency, and income from sources other than NTFPs significantly affect the annual income households earn from NTFPs. Better-educated household heads depend less on NTFP as a source of income. Similarly, the higher the food self-sufficiency and the higher the income from other sources, the less is the dependence on NTFPs. The area of paddy land owned also shows a negative relationship with income earned from NTFP. Paddy land is the most fertile category of land compared to upland and khoriya; thus, paddy land contributes more to the crop production and thereby the food self-sufficiency of the household. Thus, households owning more paddy land depend less on NTFPs as a source of income.

Similar finding has been reported by other studies. This is because the labour involved in collecting, cleaning, drying, sorting, and carrying NTFP from their settlements to the market is not usually accounted for when setting the price of NTFP. If the cost of family labour involved is deducted from the sale values of NTFP, the collectors actually have little or no profit margin. Despite this, collectors continue to engage in the activity in the absence of local alternative income opportunities. In a cash-constrained economy, even a small amount of income has significant value, as it helps meet subsistence needs. Nevertheless, the demand for NTFPs is very high both in national and international markets. Besides, the altitude of Magar settlements lies within the zone of maximum species richness of medicinal and aromatic plants. Thus, NTFPs can still be an important source of income for this community, but only

if they can be offered better prices for the products they collect. For this, primary processing and storage facilities, training, and capacity building to understand the legal requirements of NTFP trade and the community's bargaining power are required. Studies have shown that bringing households together in groups through community-based institutions like cooperatives can help communities receive better prices for their products by empowering them and lending them a collective voice for bargaining with intermediaries. The MCFG is already a functional community-based institution for the Magar community and can be developed as a collection centre at the roadhead. Short-term financial support for the MCFG and training for staff and members on institutional management can significantly enhance the MCFG's bargaining power and improve its competitiveness in the NTFP market. Development agencies need to empower the manpower in the MCFG by providing training related to business and institutional management. If MCFG's profit margin can be improved, it will serve as an important channel for the Magar community in Jangjang to derive greater benefits from the NTFP business.

Conclusion and Recommendation

Magars live near the forest in altitudinal ranges where forests are very rich in biodiversity. There is a huge demand for NTFPs in both national and international markets. Thus, marketing of commercially important NTFP can be a potential source of livelihoods for Magar households. However, the commercial exploitation of species such as Kaulo, Daar, Kurilo, and Bajuri has led to destructive harvesting. This calls for training collectors on the importance and methods of sustainable, scientific harvesting of such products. Further data analysis shows that marketing of NTFP is not a very profitable business for Magar households, who are relatively better off in terms of food self-sufficiency and higher household income from sources other than NTFPs. This is because, under the current situation, the price offered to collectors is not profitable when the labour costs of collection, drying, sorting, and bringing it to market are also accounted for. Still, more than 60 percent of the Magar households covered by the study collect and sell NTFPs. This is because of the lack of alternative employment opportunities locally in the Magar settlements, and in a cash-constrained economy, even a small amount of cash income is of great importance. To improve the Magars' profit margins in Jangjang, capacity-building in technical training, preliminary processing, financial support, storage facilities, and knowledge of legal requirements can strengthen the community's bargaining power. MCFG is an already functional community-based institution in Jangjang run by the Magar community, and its members cum shareholders consist of Magar households

from Jangjang, Khangsang, Ratnawati, and Solidanda. MCFG was established with the objective of improving the bargaining power of Magars in the NTFP marketing. MCFG can provide institutional backup for the community and lend a group voice to negotiate for better prices. MCFG can also play a role in setting rules and regulations for the sustainable harvesting of NTFPs to help prevent over-extraction of resources. If MCFG's profit margin can be improved, it will serve as an important channel for the Magar community in Jangjang and adjoining villages to derive greater benefits from the NTFP business. However, MCFG faces tough competition from road-head businessmen in Jangjang and has been facing challenges in the NTFP trade due to a lack of financial capital to buy NTFPs from the community. MCFG needs financial, technical, and capacity development support from development agencies for a few more years before the Magars can assume institutional responsibilities on their own. The government is recommended to promote sustainable NTFP businesses in the area by adopting an 'innovation policy'. Adaptation research, extension, adult education, and sustainable institutions are the important components of innovation policy. Possibilities for domestication of NTFPs, optimal harvesting age, harvesting time, and harvesting methods can be determined through NTFP-related adaptation research. The findings of the research can then be disseminated to the communities through training, with the staff of the MCFG first trained as local resource persons, who in turn can extend the research findings at the household level. MCFG can be promoted as the sustainable institutional component of innovation policy, since it is easier to strengthen an existing institution than to start a new one. Finally, this study fails to gather data on the risks and costs borne by various agents along the market chain, and on the selling price for agents further down the channel. A future study covering the associated costs and selling prices for all agents in the channel, and the calculation of marketing and profit margins distributed along the market chain, is highly recommended.

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Nature of Agriculture and Rural Development in Nepal: Overview of the Economic Sector

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Abstract

Agriculture remains the key sector for rural economic development in most developing countries, like Nepal. It is critically important for ensuring food security, alleviating poverty, and conserving the vital natural resources that will be entirely dependent upon for their survival and well-being. Agriculture continues to provide a broad base to the Nepalese economy. Nearly four-fifths of all Nepalese households are essentially farm households, which derive nearly half of their income from agricultural sources, including farm income and agricultural wage income. Engaging two-thirds of the labor force, this sector alone contributes some one-third to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). As such, the growth originating in agriculture holds high potential to have a relatively wider impact on poverty reduction and inclusiveness.

Introduction

Nepal is a landlocked country situated between the two most populous countries of the World – China and India. Despite its relatively small size, it is a very diverse country in terms of both agro-ecological and socio-economic conditions. It has evolved various farming systems that integrate crop and livestock production; they also use forest products in the process. It is also a mountainous country lying in the foothills of the Himalayas, approximately between 80 degrees and 88 degrees 15 minutes east longitude and 26 degrees 15 minutes to 30 degrees 30 minutes north latitude. The area of the country is 147,181 sq km. It has diverse topography, ranging from 60 meters in the south to 8848 meters above mean sea level, over a width of 200km. Almost all famous summits and the highest peaks on the earth lie in Nepal. There are about 6,000 rivers in Nepal, ranging from small streams to major rivers, flowing from the Himalayas and other high mountains towards the Terai plain. The hydropower potential of those rapid rivers is estimated to be about

83000MW. The country is divided into five physiographic regions, as follows, each covering a different percentage of the country's total area: Terai (plains) 14.4%, Siwalik (low mountains) 12.7%, Middle Mountains 29.5%, High Mountains 19.7%, and High Himalayas 23.7%. (Acharya: NA)

Nepal's agriculture is overwhelmed by subsistence family farms. Seventy-eight percent of farm holdings have been reported to be producing mainly for home consumption. The proportion of holdings that produce mainly for sale is less than 1 percent, while little over 21% of farm families use their farm produce almost equally for both sale and home consumption (CBS, 2001). Ironically, these subsistence farms are unable to support the farm families' subsistence. For 60 percent of holdings, the annual farm production was not sufficient to feed their household until the next harvest; 40% holdings were deficient for up to 6 months, while 20 percent holdings were deficient for more than half a year. Agricultural production is mostly dominated by the crop sub-sector, in which cereal crops account for over 80% of the annual cropped area; paddy alone occupies 40%, followed by maize (about 20%) and wheat (about 17%). Cropping intensity is low, averaging 1.8 (Acharya: NA). Farms operate in a mixed farming system of crop and livestock, interfacing with the forest. A large livestock population provides sources of meat, milk, draft power, and farmyard manure. Production of staple food grains is a common priority for farms, especially paddy, wherever it is possible to grow.

Nepal has tremendous natural resources that remain unexplored and unimagined, and substantial efforts have not yet been made. Although governments have been adopting various strategies to promote economic growth for rural populations in recent years, the poverty gap is widening. Most men from rural mountain areas work as seasonal labor in India. They earn some money and return for rice planting in the rainy season, June/July. Then they celebrate the great national religious festivals, Dasain and Tihar, in October, and return to work in India. It is easy to imagine that the poorest of the poor live in the mountains. In the eastern and mid mountains, most men are employed in the Indian and British armies and in the Gulf countries. The remittance is pretty nice but is mostly used for unproductive sectors, such as migration to urban areas and house construction. This trend is towards the destruction of the sustainable rural economy and ecological practices. Considering rural resources, water resources can be considered a boon bestowed by nature on Nepal. It might be a sharp weapon to mitigate poverty. Proper mobilization of the resources must be guided by national policies and must be well backed up

by geo-spatial information. But due to a lack of clear vision, the ways and means of exploring and utilizing natural resources have been quite challenging. Given the agricultural economy and the majority of the economically active population engaged in agriculture, the small water bodies could be used for drinking water, water wheels, irrigation, fisheries, and environmental balance in the country.

Rural Sector Economy and Agriculture

Landlocked and mountainous, Nepal has remained one of the world’s poorest countries. A majority of the people still live in rural areas, and the country is characterized by widespread regional disparities in human development and living conditions, rapid population growth, a fragile environment, chronic poverty, and escalating insurgency. All of these have combined to make poverty reduction a very difficult task. Agriculture contributes about 40 percent of the gross domestic product and employs 60 percent of the labour force. Agricultural labour productivity, as measured by GDP per capita, is low. During the second half of the nineties, agriculture was the only sub-sector with a higher growth rate than in the first half of the nineties (Table 1). This reversal in agricultural growth was attributed to favourable weather conditions and overall policy changes in market orientation, participation, and decentralization. It should be noted that the share of public expenditure in agriculture declined from 15.9 percent of the total budget in the first half to 11.3 percent in the second half.

Table 1

Growth rate of GDP components in different periods

S.No	GDP Component	Growth Rate over Period:			Last 2 periods
		1990/91 to 1999/00	1990/91 to 1994/95	1995/96 to 1999/00	Percent Change
1	Agriculture fisheries and Forestry	2.70	1.75	2.94	0.68
2	Mining and Quarrying	5.59	4.76	3.79	-0.20
3	Manufacturing	8.07	11.89	6.57	-0.45
4	Electricity Gas Water	5.78	5.78	3.89	-0.33
5	Construction	5.55	6.01	4.87	-0.19
6	Trade Restaurant and Hotel	5.39	6.72	4.78	-0.29
7	Transport Communication and Storage	7.81	8.80	7.31	-0.17
8	Finance and Real estate	5.63	5.56	5.25	-0.05
9	Community and Social Services	5.98	7.39	5.05	-0.32
10	Total GDP	4.72	4.83	4.47	-0.07

Source: SARD-M: 2008, Page 11

The overall economy and agriculture have not doing well in recent years. Overall

economic growth rate declined from 4.8 percent in the 1990s to 3.2 percent during 2001-2008. Agriculture virtually stagnated; the agriculture sector's growth rate was 2.7 percent per annum in the 90s and 2.8 percent during 2001 to 2008. Marred by low labor productivity, agriculture is not able to contribute to the economy, its due (33 percent share of GDP with 66 percent of the country's labor force employed in the sector). Growth in cereal production remained weak, cash crops performed mixed, while high-value horticultural crops performed relatively better. Yields of cereals are persistently low. Yield estimates per hectare for 2007 have been reported at 2.77 Metric tons (mt) for paddy, 2.16 mt for maize, and 2.23 mt for wheat. It is noted that this year is considered a good crop year due to better monsoon records (SARD-M, 2008).

The average annual production of food grains is estimated at 7.7 million tons, of which paddy alone accounts for nearly half. During deficit years, the food grains shortfall ranged from 22 thousand tons to 485 thousand tons, while surplus during better harvest years ranged from 68 thousand tons to 213 thousand tons (Table 2). Agriculture registered an impressive 5.7% growth last year, 2008. Whether this rate will persist depends largely on the monsoon pattern this year and in the years that follow.

Table 2

Nepal: annual edible cereal grain production and requirement, 1994 – 2009

(Quantity in Mt.)

Year	Production	Requirement	Balance
1994	3373	3562	-188
1995	3292	3634	-342
1996	3585	3724	-139
1997	3398	3883	-485
1998	3914	3948	-34
1999	3973	4079	-107
2000	4027	4178	-151
2001	4098	4279	-182
2002	4452	4383	68
2003	4513	4430	83
2004	4543	4463	80
2005	4641	4566	76

Year	Production	Requirement	Balance
2006	4884	4671	213
2007	4943	4780	163
2008	4869	4891	-22
2009	4737	5005	-268

Source: MoAC

Issues and Challenges

Climate change

The changing monsoon pattern is reflected in the observed irregularity in annual rainfall. It has implications for cropping patterns and crop calendars – especially the paddy-led cropping patterns. The phenomenon of climate change has, among others, increased the vulnerability of both water-intensive cropping systems and rainfed agriculture. Global warming could occur faster than expected, contributing to water shortages and reducing yields in irrigated agriculture, while increasing risks in rainfed agriculture. While access to irrigation water is already low in the hills, construction of large, capital-intensive irrigation structures in a fragile hill environment exposes them to high risks of damage from frequent landslides triggered by unexpected downpours and flash floods. The reliability of glacial melt as a source of irrigation water is being threatened.

Soaring food prices

Food prices in Nepal are influenced more by overall supply, including imports from India, than by domestic food production, given Nepal's porous 1,800 km border with India. This year's 17% increase in domestic production could not offset the upward pressure on rice prices, as India tightened supply and announced export restrictions. Rising food prices are generally considered an opportunity for farmers to benefit from supply response. However, millions of Nepalese small farmers become worse off as they are the net food buyers. According to recent estimates, 80 per cent of farmers are buyers, and only 20 per cent are landlords who can produce surplus products. Those with limited access to land, high food expenditure as a share of total expenditure, and a low share of income from the sale of agricultural produce are likely to lose.

Youth unemployment

The unemployment rate among youth at 15 percent is substantially higher than the national average, which is below 4 percent. Moreover, the underemployment

in agriculture is alarming. Presently, agriculture is the least preferred vocation for youth. Many youths aspire to work in non-agricultural, non-rural sectors and seek opportunities in urban areas or abroad for higher wages. 53 percent of remittances originate in overseas countries; migration within Nepal or to India (almost fifty-fifty) is the source of the remaining 47 percent of remittances (MoAC). The migration of youth leaving aged and illiterate people behind on farms is a concern. The stigma of low living standards inherent in traditional agriculture, caused mainly by the low income generated there, is the main reason youths lose interest in agriculture. This is further reinforced by the demonstration effects of the perceived high living standards acquired by their migrating peers. Agriculture can be attractive to youth if it appears to be a modern enterprise with expanded income opportunities, unlike traditional agriculture, which involves hard work and low income. Transforming small agricultural activities into commercial farms connected to markets can unleash agriculture's potential, but this is not happening in Nepal.

Conflict

Widespread violent conflict and the Government's inability to enforce the law across most of its territory have severely limited both development efforts and the delivery of public services. Only projects that rely on decentralized approaches, using civil society and NGOs, seem to function. Political uncertainty casts doubt on the prospects for agricultural development in Nepal.

Obstacles to the commercialization of agriculture

Mountainous terrain and a poorly developed road network restrict access to markets, constraining agricultural growth and diversification into higher-value-added and non-farm activities. Weak and poorly integrated institutions, along with inadequate technical support for supply chain development, have further limited marketing opportunities. The Agriculture Perspective Plan (APP) to increase agricultural productivity through irrigation, fertilizer use, infrastructure, and technology is not fully implemented. However, the recent National Agricultural Policy, which updates the APP, places commercialization, private sector-led development, and trade at the forefront of the development agenda.

The trade challenge

Nepal's entry into the WTO presents opportunities, alongside formidable challenges to meet food safety rules, animal health regulations, and quality standards, as well as to re-evaluate domestic support programs, price controls, and competitive

advantage. Nepal's location between the two largest countries in the world presents both a blessing and a curse. Subsidies in India's agricultural sector mean that Nepal's Terai region faces competition with Indian cereal production. However, Nepal's diverse agro-ecological zones offer promising opportunities for the export of off-season horticultural products, niche products, and non-timber forest products, such as medicinal plants.

Inefficient exploitation of water resources

Despite significant expansion in irrigation, Nepal has not reached its irrigation potential. Less than 40 percent of cultivable land is irrigated, while there is potential to reach two-thirds.

Lack of equitable and secure access to land

Tenancy restrictions, high land fragmentation, absentee landlordism, and unequal distribution pose key challenges to tenure security and, in turn, private investment. Land disputes are common, yet most cannot afford to file court cases, and the judicial process can be lengthy. Moreover, policy restrictions, such as on large-scale contract farming on various commodities, still remain.

The Solution and Way Out Commercialization

This will require action along several fronts, including policy support, meeting quality standards, capacity building, and market information for producers, applied research, and investment in the supply chain for high-value commodities. Trade can be promoted by strengthening institutions and systems for quality control and certification, and investing in laboratories, testing stations, and human resources.

Irrigation and emphasis on farmer management

Irrigation infrastructure can be improved by: (a) promoting both surface and groundwater irrigation for commercial and industrial crops in the Terai, while encouraging high-value horticulture and cereal production in the Mountains and Hills; (b) developing year-round irrigation in perennial flow areas and small storage facilities in other areas; (c) building low pressure sprinklers and drips for high value crops, and shallow and deep tube wells only where profitable; and (d) investing in mini- and micro-hydro facilities, to facilitate power generation and lift irrigation in the hills. The Government should encourage farmer-managed irrigation infrastructure and support matching grants for demand-driven farm interventions.

Improving the functioning of factor markets

Factor markets should be reviewed based on analytical work and cross-country experience. Those can promote land redistributive policies, achieve a more accessible legal system to address land disputes, and identify market and non-market mechanisms to improve access to land. Measures should be defined to improve land administration systems, particularly cadastral and land title records, to enhance ownership security and reduce transaction costs. Work on rural finance should develop strategies to provide services to people in isolated areas, where the traditional Grameen model is unsuitable.

Reaching out to the poor and investing in basic infrastructure

Due to the protracted conflict and the Government's instability, a decentralized approach to empower communities and devolve decision-making power to the local level has become the hallmark of better service delivery. The use of non-governmental agencies has become an important means of facilitating access to livelihood opportunities and income-generating activities, particularly for the most disadvantaged groups. A mix of local, public, and private investments in roads, communication, and power remains critical to improving access to assets, integrating with markets, and generating off-season employment, especially in the most backward areas. As political, administrative, and fiscal decentralization is brought back on track, the role of local government will need to be defined to meet local demands, involve communities, and improve accountability

Mitigate the effects of climate change

Irregularity in the pattern of regional and seasonal precipitation variability, along with more frequent and intense floods and droughts, creates uncertainty for rainfed agriculture. Awareness, information, adaptation, and risk management are the emergent needs for mitigating the effects of climate change.

Conclusion

Agriculture is the principal source of food, income, and employment for the majority, particularly the poorest. Growth in agriculture is, therefore, crucial for reducing poverty, and the agricultural sector has made a significant contribution to poverty reduction. The sector's current one-third share of national GDP is declining, although there is considerable scope to increase productivity and value-added. Despite an increasing reliance on remittances from laborers abroad, the lack of

economic opportunities beyond subsistence agriculture keeps most Nepalese poor, further limiting prospects for rural development and perpetuating a vicious cycle of poverty. The economy has been undergoing structural changes, with agriculture shrinking relative to the secondary and tertiary sectors. Within agriculture, some commercialization and diversification have been taking place in recent years, capitalizing on rapidly unfolding market opportunities created by improvements in accessibility and by the growth in the size of the urban population. Despite greater intensification of crop production, returns from crop production declined, while returns from livestock rearing improved. Cost -- price squeeze intensified in crop agriculture. Likewise, the importance of agriculture as a source of household income declined, though it remains the single largest source. Thus, we should understand how to produce high-value commodities for commercial purposes. Fruits, vegetables, spices, tea, and livestock products should be increased, and new products like coffee and honey should emerge. The transformation of commercial agriculture and market management is to be a major way to promote agriculture, rural development, and national development efforts.

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Effects of Community Forestry Programs on Poorer Families' Livelihood in Nepal: An Experience Case Sharing from Okhaldhunga

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Abstract

This paper explores the effects of community forestry programs on the livelihoods of poorer families in Okhaldhunga. Forestry is a successful participatory approach for forest protection and management in Nepal. Until now, about 850,000 hectares of forest in Nepal have been handed over to 11,000 forest user groups. Forest users generate income from the sale of forest products, membership fees, fines, and donations. Community development activities such as irrigation canal improvements, schools, community building, temple construction, and drinking water schemes are carried out with community forestry income. These activities have little or no benefits to poorer families. The community forest operation costs for poorer households exceed the benefits they receive because free access to collect forest products has been restricted to improve forest condition. This directly affects poorer people's ability to keep livestock. In addition, some poorer households living near the town and along the roadside were selling fuelwood to hotels and teashops. This has now been stopped, but it has created a problem for these poorer families in generating day-to-day income for survival. As a user, every household, whether rich or poor, should pay an equal monthly membership fee and buy once, freely collected forest products in accordance with the forest operational plan's rules and regulations.

Keywords: community forestry, livelihood, household, population

Introduction

Community forestry is a participatory forest management system in Nepal that was started in the late 1970s. Gilmour and Fisher (1991) defined community forestry as the control, protection, and management of forest resources by rural communities

for whom trees and forests are integral to their farming systems. The Community Forest Act 1993 gives local people significant control in the management and harvest of forest resources (Euphrat & Shrestha, 2002). As a result of this progressive act, the community forest handover process has accelerated significantly over the past nine years. Bhatta (2000) reported that about 850,000 hectares of forest area have been handed over to 11,000 forest user groups. In a forest user group, there are rich, medium, and poor families. The contribution of rich and poor households to community forest protection and management is equal. Forest products such as tree and grass fodder, fuelwood, and timber are used to meet users' subsistence needs and to generate income from sales. Group income is also generated from monthly membership fees, fines and penalties, and donations from various organizations. Forest user groups are using this amount to undertake community development activities, including irrigation canal improvements, community building, school and temple construction, drinking water schemes, and foot trail improvements. However, many community development activities are not directly helpful in meeting the needs of poorer families, which raises the issue of equity in group fund management.

Forest protection and management

In the mid-hill district of Nepal, Okhaldhunga, community forestry programs have played an important role in improving forest conditions by adopting better forest protection and management measures. Through forest management, users generate income that supports community development activities. However, there are some problems with this system of forest management regarding poorer families within a forest user group. That is, the cost of operating a community forest by poorer families exceeds the benefits they receive. Before the introduction of community forestry programs, all users living in and around forests could collect most forest products free of charge at any time. In community forests, free access to collect forest products has been restricted to improve forest conditions. The result of this practice is a decrease in the supply of forest products, including tree and grass fodder, from the community forest. It has directly affected poorer families keeping livestock. Forest resources are very important to them for maintaining their livestock population, which is needed to generate income for survival, as they have small landholdings that are not sufficient to grow tree and grass fodder to support their livestock. In addition, some poorer families living near the roadside were selling fuelwood to hotels, teashops, etc. This practice in community forest areas has been stopped, creating a problem for poorer people in generating income for day-to-day survival.

Community forestry activities also increase the contributory burden of poorer people for forest protection and management. As a user, every household, whether rich or poor, pays the same monthly membership fee. In addition, poorer families buy forest products in accordance with rules and regulations set out in the forest operational plan. People of Okhaldhunga pay money for fuelwood, timber, cut grass, resin, and stone gathered from community forest areas. Finally, the community forestry program has encouraged community development work that requires compulsory labour contributions and has had a direct effect on poorer households, generating daily income for livelihoods, as they have to engage in community development activities rather than work as casual labourers.

Use of group funds in community development

Almost all forest user groups in Okhaldhunga generate income from community forests, but the amounts vary widely between groups. Balakhu, Sisnery, Chyanam etc., community forest user groups of Okhaldhunga are generating income from external sources by selling timber obtained from thinned pine plantations compared with their neighboring broad leaf forests. Income in natural broad-leaf forests mostly comes from internal sources. Such sources include membership fees, fines, and penalties levied on members who break the rules of the forest operational plan, and the sale of forest products such as leaf litter, tree and grass fodder, dry and green fuelwood, tree seeds, round poles, and timber, to some extent. The contribution of poorer families to such funds would be higher than that from external sources, such as planted pine forests. Most forest user groups spend their income on various activities, such as buying stationery, salaries for forest watchers and school teachers, irrigation canal improvement, school, community building and temple construction, road and foot trail improvement, electricity systems, soil conservation works, drinking water schemes, school furniture, and nursery and plantation. These activities have little or no impact in meeting the needs of poorer families. The reason for this is that poorer families often need to earn income to support their day-to-day lives. Activities such as salaries for school teachers, irrigation canal improvements, school, community hall, and temple construction, electricity systems, school furniture, etc., are not income-generating for the benefit of poorer families. Hunt et al. (1995) reported that not all members of the user group benefited from the group's community development activities, raising questions about equity in forest user group decision-making. Decisions for community development are usually made at annual assemblies of group members by consensus, and the elite, more powerful committee members of the groups dominate these meetings. In this situation, group

funds are most often used to serve the interests of elite and powerful members of forest user groups.

Recommendations for improvement

The forest operational plan and constitution are the main documents guiding the forest user group. Therefore, the following points should be considered in preparing the community forest operational plan to maximize community forestry benefits for the poorer families within a forest user group.

- a) Some forest user groups of the Okhaldhunga district of Nepal have initiated a user group development planning process for the preparation of community development plans in addressing the needs of all sub-group members of a forest user group. These plans are then included in the forest operational plan. Eijnatten and Acharya (2001) reported that the production of a high-quality community development plan required a high degree of participation from all sections of the community and reflected a focus on benefiting the poor, underprivileged, and women. These user groups showed strong ownership of their plans and a commitment to implementation. Therefore, this practice should be followed by other forest user groups in Nepal to deliver greater benefits from community forests to poorer households.
- b) Some community forest user groups of Nepal have initiated a scholarship program for poorer students, as well as programs for women and poorer people, and saving and credit activities from group money for loans to user group members in operating income generation activities. Poorer households are also benefiting from the loan program to plan and implement income-generating activities suited to their circumstances. Such activities should also be promoted among other forest user groups of Nepal.
- c) Community forest development and management activities generate employment opportunities such as employment for forest protection, tree felling, log extraction, sawing, and timber transportation, non-timber forest production, collection and marketing, as well as nursery and plantation establishment. Priority should be given to such activities for poorer and disadvantaged households.
- d) Priority for grass and tree fodder collection should be given to those poorer families who have no or little forage production on their farmlands in order to support their livestock farming systems.

Conclusion

The condition of most community forests has improved after they were handed over to local users, but these forests have increased the burden on poorer households. Poorer households also do not benefit much from community development activities implemented through group funds. To overcome these problems, user groups should be encouraged to prepare community development plans that address the needs of poorer and disadvantaged households and deliver greater benefits from community forests to them. These plans should be included in the community forest operational plan and implemented as a priority, with greater emphasis on income and employment opportunities for poorer and disadvantaged families.

Some forest user groups in the Okhaldhunga district of Nepal have initiated user-group development planning processes to prepare community development plans to address the needs of all forest user groups, and have included these plans in the forest operational plan. Saving and credit activities from the forest user group's funds have been used to provide loans to all group members for operating income-generation activities and to create income and employment opportunities for poorer families through community forest development and management activities, in line with the community development plans and forest operational plans. This kind of community development practice needs to be adopted nationwide to deliver greater benefits from community forests to poorer families.

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The Management of Rural Natural Resource Conflict in Nepal

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Abstract

Resource conflict encompasses clashes among interest groups, disagreements, public protests, physical assaults, and the filing of lawsuits. Conflict occurs at different levels for different reasons. Such groups may be among individuals, between individuals and a group, or among groups. The article explores how natural resource conflicts arise from these factors and explains how they are managed in daily practice in rural Nepal. Discrepancies between rules and behavior, social relations, and the incompatibility of goals, actions, and interactions, framed within their specific context and time, would be considered in analyzing resource conflict. Such conflict can be managed through formal practices such as rules, regulations, and law, and through informal practices such as traditional methods.

Keywords: conflict, natural resource, management, governance

Introduction

Nepal is a mountainous country situated between the two largest countries, India and China. The beauty of the natural resources always highlights their appeal. Because of the good climate and beauty, most people like living here. Population pressure and poverty are considered the main drivers of natural resource degradation and conflict in Nepal. Natural resource management practices in Nepal are rapidly changing, alongside social and political changes, advances in technology, increased information flow, and market liberalization (Upreti, 2000). These changes are posing new challenges to existing policies, plans, institutional arrangements, and legal provisions related to natural resources and are becoming a source of conflict. Natural resource conflicts arise from contradictions and inconsistencies in the application of formal legal norms and values. Although various GOs, I/NGOs, and other agencies invest significant effort, time, and money in natural resource

management, natural resource conflicts are increasing. Land, water, pasture, and forest are the most important natural resources for the survival of the rural people of Nepal. Therefore, the main focus of this article is conflict over these four natural resources: Land, Forest, pasture, and water.

Clashes of interest, disagreements, public protests, and physical assets are the causative factors of resource conflict. Resource conflict is an active stage of disagreement over resource utilization practices. Such conflict occurs at different levels (between individuals, between individuals and a group, and between groups) for different reasons (Upreti: 2002). Feelings of suspicion, injustice, anger, and mistrust help to inflame conflict. This article explores the causes of this natural resources conflict and explains how such conflicts can be managed in Nepal's rural sector.

Nepal is a rich country of poor people because it has high-value natural resources but lacks the skilled manpower to exploit them. Land, water, forests, and pasture are the backbone of Nepal's economy. But there has been a natural resource conflict in the state. Historical context is a strong determinant of the present governance of natural resources and the management of associated conflicts. Prior to 1734, when present-day Nepal was a fragmented group of petty states, people were encouraged to cultivate as much forest and pastureland as possible. In turn, they had to pay a certain portion of the returns to the state. In this way, the state had begun to regulate the available natural resources. This led to the establishment of a control mechanism: various departments and regional offices, along with policies, acts, rules, and regulations, were put in place to systematically control the use of available natural resources (Upreti, 2002). Until 1950, the state granted tax-free land to officials, religious organizations, and individual favorites of kings or rulers (Malla, 1997). Traditionally, land was considered the property of the state, and this land is called raikar. Only the state had the right to alienate land through sale, mortgage, or bequest. Thus, the state granted state-owned raikar lands to individuals in various forms. Almost one-third of Nepal's agricultural and forestlands had granted to individuals by 1950, and the remainder belonged to the Ranas themselves (Malla, 1997). Local functionaries, all favorites of the Ranas, implemented the land-grant policy in the villages and ensured the greatest benefit for themselves. They obtained a great deal of land from the state through jagir and birta grants and rented it to peasant farmers under tenancy arrangements. In this way, local functionaries turned into landlords and introduced the Kut (contract) system, under which only tenants able to pay high rents could obtain a contract. After 1951, the government nationalized all the

forests in Nepal to release land from birta holders, especially from Rana families (Upreti, 2001). The history of land-tenure systems in Nepal shows that the mode of production and distribution of natural resources was highly feudalistic. The conflict was ubiquitous, not only between landlords and the landless but also between the state and the poor, and between the state and landlords. The government initiated land reform measures in terms of land distribution, mainly due to its feudalistic socio-political structure. The enforcement of stable land rights granted by the Land Act is weak, and customary land rights are heavily skewed in favor of the elite and are largely limited to maintaining patron-client relationships.

Problems in Nepalese natural resource management (NRM)

Population pressure and poverty are the root causes of natural resource-related conflicts in Nepal. Land, forest, and pasture resources are overexploited due to the heavy dependence of the ever-growing population on the natural resource base. Mineral and water resources, however, are underutilized due to limited financial resources and infrastructure. Increasing natural resource degradation and its negative impacts on the environment and society are creating several conflicts. Due to a government and donor focus on economic development, there has been little attempt to effectively integrate poor people's concerns and conservation objectives into these economic objectives. These problems are directly linked with governance accountability and transparency, as well as a historically skewed socio-cultural legal system.

It is important to note that the natural resource-related conflicts occur in differentiated, specialized local environments across the country. The specific natural resource-related conflicts in the Terai differ from those in steep hills and mountains. However, more common problems are resource degradation, conflicts over access, rights, and obligations, fair distribution, and maintenance and benefit sharing. Various endogenous and exogenous factors, such as population growth, market globalization, and environmental and technological changes, are creating new conflicts in the natural resource sector. Many large and small NRM projects implemented by different agencies are introducing new conflicts and causing various negative impacts on society. For example, ignorance of the importance of indigenous knowledge in planning and designing new systems, alteration of local rights and regulations, replacement of old institutions with new ones, and imposition of technocratic solutions are among the immediate implications of new interventions. This intervention has its own family-fixed and uniform policy and a rigid procedure based on a reductionist, positivist orientation. They are technocratic

in nature and generally do not acknowledge local diversities. This is becoming one of the major causes of conflict on NRM (Upreti, 2001)

Several factors are causing conflict over natural resources. Conflict may arise if the government's new NRM policy contradicts local cultural practices. The economic motive of people to acquire more from the existing natural resources on a competitive basis also leads to conflict, which is also growing due to the contradiction between environmental and economic interests. Changes in historical patterns of use of natural resources can create conflict within a community. Similarly, contradictions between legal arrangements and customary practices have led to several conflicts, and natural resource conflicts produce both positive and negative consequences, affecting existing social relations. They induce changes in resource management and utilization, policy processes, livelihood strategies, land and agricultural gender relations, power structures, and collective behavior and livelihoods. In most cases, the combined effect of some or many of such factors can escalate or resolve a conflict. Moreover, the intensity and effects of these factors differ between communities and within a community, depending on when they are felt.

Case study site

Balakhu VCD of Okhaldhunga district is the case study site. Okhaldhunga, in the eastern part of Nepal, is a hilly region, and Balakhu is in the western part of Okhaldhunga. Land, water, forest, and pasture are the most important natural resources in this region. Most of the people depend on natural resources for their existence. Various classes of people, different castes, religions, different life standards, cultures, social norms and values, and traditional production systems create contradictions in resource use. Thus, the resource conflict is increasing in this region. On the other hand, overpopulation and poverty are the primary drivers of conflict.

Methodology

First, all common conflicts over Nepalese natural resources have been studied by consulting different literature. Some information has been collected from books, articles, journals, papers, etc. For secondary data and cases, observations, focus group discussions, and interviews with respondents were conducted to collect primary data. Balakhu VDC was purposively selected to study the condition and use patterns of its natural resources. It is a general study only to prepare this article. It is not for other broad objectives. For the interview, almost all informants were

from the older people's group because they can describe the past conditions of resources and resource conflicts, which helps compare past and present conditions of resource conflicts. This article focuses solely on the management of resources and resource conflict.

The most common natural resource conflicts in the study area

Land-related conflicts

Land-related conflicts were the most serious in terms of their intensity and social effects. Boundary demarcation, changes of the ownership, looting of and damage to crops, tenancy rights, the alignment of new canals, roads, pates or drinking water systems on particular lands, land encroachment, mortgages, guthi land use, partition and gifting of land are the main land-related conflicts documented in the study area. Napi system has also created conflict here. Most resource conflicts are related to land-use practices.

Water-related conflict

Major conflicts over water reported in the study area included source disputes, sharing of water for different purposes such as drinking water, irrigation, and power generation, and conflicts over compensation for destruction caused by water-related projects. Most water-related conflicts occur in irrigation systems, canals, and khanepaniko palo (the term for drinking water).

Forest Related Conflicts

The most common forest related conflicts documented in the study area were concerned with Ownership, identification of users, access to forest products, illegal use of non-timber forests products and hunting and poaching of wild animal product from forests, encroachment of forests, collection of fire wood, use of forest trees, political impacts on forest user groups, FUG (poor group and low caste people are excluded FUGs) are concerned the most common forest related conflicts documented in the study area.

Pasture-related conflicts

The most common pasture-related conflicts concern animal grazing, grass cutting, land ownership, user identification, access, distribution of pasture land, encroachment on pasture land, etc.

Important cases of resource conflicts in study areas.

Based on documentation of common conflicts in the study area, selected cases are examined to identify their causes and the measures taken to resolve them. This article is based on the case study of Balakhu VCD and seeks to identify the causes of resource conflict in this area. Some causative cases of resource conflicts are given below:

Conflict between village elites and local people over forest and grazing land

Village elites want to get ownership of the resources. They made the public forest and pastureland their own during the Napi (measurement programme) in 2045 BS. Nowadays, they start selling to local people, but local people refuse to buy public forest and pastureland, which creates a resource conflict between elites and local people. The control of a community-managed forest and pastureland is also the main cause of this conflict. The local elite and powerbrokers have started to terrace the forest and pastureland. They encroach on the forest and pastureland, undermining the symbolic and economic value the local community has traditionally attached to it. Though the local people respect the invaders' status, they strongly oppose this invasion and have made every effort to reclaim the land. However, the invaders were unwilling to compromise, and the conflict intensified. Population growth and poverty accelerate the encroachment of pastureland and forest into cultivated land. They start to destroy the jungle and pastureland to change them into agricultural land. The protectors do not allow doing so. So the conflict started between protectors and users.

Conflict between two villages and two communities over a spring water source

The sharing of a source of drinking water lay at the core of a conflict between two villagers and villagers. The households in both villages are of similar socio-economic conditions and belong to the same Brahmin/Chhetri caste group. The existing users were not willing to share the water source with the people of the next village, arguing that there would not be enough water left for their own irrigation. Potential users wanted to share the water source because they were experiencing a severe drinking water shortage. Several protests, oppositions, and complaints are filed with the local administration, but these authorities are not eager to resolve the conflict. They avoided taking sides, and therefore, the conflict continues.

Conflict between landlords and tenants

Tenants have been cultivating the land for 20 to 30 years. They want to protect their

tenants' rights over the land. But landlords don't like to do so. Landlords reject it. That's why the tenants are strongly organized; they have discussed their problems with other people in the village, and they can win the support of all tenants and villagers, but the landlords reject it. So the conflict over the land-use system is rapidly escalating.

Conflict between developers and local people

NGOs, I/NGOs fund the local development programme in the villages. The World Bank, the Asian Development Bank, various local NGOs, VDCs, Dices, etc., always want to fund projects for drinking water, roads, building construction, irrigation, and electricity. But elite people, for their facilitations, have always taken these programmes. Poor, ethnic, low-caste people are always exploited in development. So they like to protect their rights to catch the development opportunities. So the conflict arises in resource-using development projects.

Conflict between head-led and tail-end farmers in an irrigation system

Balakhukhola is a main source of irrigation in Balakhu VCD. Head-led people always use sufficient water in their canals, but tail-end people do not get the chance to use water in their canals. Almost all the tail-end farming fields seem dry by lacking irrigation. When water scarcity occurs, farmers have to share water nationally, but head-led people reject it. So the conflict arises between head-led people and tail-end people.

Conflict in the grass and wooden things

Not all the villagers are innocent. They want to steal grass, timber, firewood, etc., from the neighbor's grassy field or private forest. They are also stealing these materials from protected forests. When the victims find the thieves, they punish them harshly. So the conflict between thieves and victims arises in different cases.

Major factors affecting conflict over natural resources

Legislation polices and strategies, as well as changing power structures and social relations, together with political changes, have provided fertile ground for natural resource conflict. The focus on completion over access and control, the ineffective jurisdictional roles of government agencies, and political and commercial interests have encouraged the growth of conflict. The majority of natural resources-related conflict cases involve control over natural resources. Different land and forest-related conflicts arise, mainly due to an unsystematic and incomplete land

registration and record-keeping process. Power structures and social relations within a community are among the main determinants of natural resource conflict. Contradictions between formal laws and local practices, and external development interventions, are the causal factors in resource conflicts. Corruption of resources, exploitation of elites, etc., also help to arise resource conflicts.

Resource conflict management practices

Informal practices for conflict management

In the study area, people use to practice the informal conflict management system. They always use to apply the different informal methods to solve the problem of conflict,

Dharma bhakaune (sacred test)

It is a common method of conflict management. During the process, the negotiators perform activities such as taking contending parties to the local temples and asking them to undergo a test, and asking conflicting parties to take an oath of innocence while touching sacred materials such as shaligram, copper, peepal, dubo, books, children, etc

Jhakrirakhne (exploration by shamans)

This method is based on belief that shamans have received supernatural powers from a god to control particular problems and is applied most commonly to cases of witch allegation. In this method, the shaman treats culprits mostly by setting fire to hair, pouring hot water onto the body, severely beating, etc. This was the crudest method of conflict resolution in the study area.

Sagun garne (Reconciliation)

This exchange function is performed after discussing the matter in a meeting attended by villagers, negotiators, and the conflicting parties. When a settlement is reached, they start sugan garne. The conflict is declared settled when both parties accept a gift, followed by a small celebration where everyone drinks jad. It is most common among matwalis.

Jarimana and kshatipurtibharaune (fine and compensation)

The negotiators hear the opinions of both parties and also seek the villagers' opinions. Based on the hearing, they decide the level of kshatipurti and jarimana.

This practice involves reimbursing losses to those found guilty and imposing an additional punishment in the form of a fine.

Mafi magne (public apology)

As in other local methods, negotiators invite villagers and disputants to discuss the conflict issue and decide to make a public apology. This is sometimes also combined with an additional fine or other punishment. This is also used in formal conflict resolution processes.

Formal conflict management practices

Organizations that adopt formal conflict management practices fall into two main categories. The first includes the court system, and the second includes the VDC, the government's natural resources-related offices, the police, and the district administration office. All of these work within the government's regulatory framework. The district administration office and the police have a mandatory responsibility to address all types of organizations; only those conflict cases that could not be resolved there went to court.

Conclusion

The bordering socio-political system, power dynamics, and local politics affect conflict over natural resources tremendously. All in all, there appears to be little evidence of effectiveness in the existing linear, top-down approach of government-instituted organizations to resolving natural resource conflicts. In the current system, only powerful people and the elite are benefiting. The existing conflict management system in Nepal is not sufficiently responsive to address the growing conflict and warrants prompt reform. We can use formal and informal techniques to resolve the current resource conflicts. Panikadne, Maphi dine, Jariwanatiraune, Jhankrirakhne, and Sagun garneetc are traditional informal practices of conflict resolution in Nepal. But the court system, reconciliation, mediation by CDOs, VDCs, and DDCs, mediation among different organizations, etc., help resolve conflicts within formal systems.

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General Articles

Social Media

Prabin Jha

Today, I reflected deeply on the role of social media in modern society, particularly in Nepal. Social media is no longer just a platform for entertainment; it has become a powerful digital ecosystem where individuals, groups, businesses, and governments interact, influence, and shape public opinion. Through text, images, and videos, ideas now travel faster than ever before. A single post can influence thousands within minutes.

In Nepal, the use of social media has expanded rapidly over the past decade. From young children to elderly citizens, people are actively engaged on various platforms. For many, it is a source of entertainment. For others, it is a tool for learning, networking, business growth, and even political participation. However, with this expansion comes responsibility.

Advantages of Social Media

Global Connectivity

Social media has removed geographical barriers. Families living abroad can stay connected with their loved ones in Nepal through instant messaging and video calls. Information travels across borders in seconds, creating a sense of global unity. This connectivity strengthens relationships and expands opportunities.

Educational Growth

One of the most powerful impacts of social media is in education. Students can access tutorials, skill-based courses, and global knowledge beyond textbooks. A student in a rural village can learn programming, graphic design, digital marketing, or even artificial intelligence from free online resources. This has the potential to reduce educational inequality and empower self-learners.

Business and Entrepreneurship

Social media has transformed business in Nepal. Small businesses and startups can promote their products without large marketing budgets. Entrepreneurs build personal brands, connect with customers directly, and expand their reach nationally

and internationally. This digital marketplace encourages innovation and economic growth.

Social Awareness and Civic Participation

Social media has become a space for raising awareness about social issues, corruption, environmental concerns, and political matters. During elections and national events, citizens can express opinions and engage in discussions. It gives voice to people who were previously unheard.

Platform for Creativity

Artists, writers, musicians, and content creators can showcase their talents to a broad audience. A person with skill and consistency can build recognition without depending on traditional media channels.

Disadvantages of Social Media Addiction and Loss of Productivity

Despite its benefits, social media is designed to capture attention. Endless scrolling, short-form content, and algorithm-driven feeds stimulate the brain's reward system, making users spend excessive time online. This often leads to reduced productivity, distraction from goals, and weakened discipline.

Mental Health Challenges

Constant exposure to curated lifestyles can create unrealistic comparisons. Many young people compare their real lives to the edited highlights of others, leading to anxiety, low self-esteem, and depression. Without awareness, this psychological impact can silently damage confidence.

Spread of Misinformation

False information spreads rapidly on social media. During politically sensitive times, such as elections in Nepal, misinformation can manipulate public opinion and create social tension. Citizens must verify information carefully before believing or sharing it.

Privacy and Cybersecurity Risks

Personal data shared online can be misused. Cybercrimes such as hacking, phishing, and identity theft are increasing. Many users are unaware of how their data is collected and used. Digital literacy is essential to protect oneself in this environment.

Cyberbullying

Online harassment has become a serious issue. Behind the safety of a screen, individuals may post harmful comments that affect others emotionally. In severe cases, cyberbullying has contributed to mental trauma and even suicide. Reporting such behavior and maintaining digital boundaries is crucial.

Conclusion

Social media is neither inherently good nor inherently harmful. It is a powerful instrument shaped by the intention and discipline of its users. In Nepal, where digital growth is accelerating, citizens must develop critical thinking, digital literacy, and self-control.

If used wisely, social media can educate, empower, and create opportunities. If misused, it can divide, distract, and damage mental well-being. Therefore, the responsibility does not lie only with the platform but with each individual. We must control social media before it begins to control us.

वी.पी. कोइराला: लोकतान्त्रिक, समाजवाद र वर्तमान नेपालको आवश्यकता

गणेश लुईटेल

सहायक प्राध्यापक, सुनकोशी कालिका क्याम्पस

नेपाली राजनीतिको एक शिखर व्यक्तित्व जस्ले झण्डै चार दशकसम्म लगातार नेपालको आधुनिक राजनीतिक इतिहासलाई आन्दोलित, आकर्षित एवं प्रभावित गरिरह्यो र सामाजिक तथा सांस्कृतिक परिवर्तनका मान्यताहरूमा सर्वथा नयाँ आयाम थपिरह्यो, त्यो युगपुरुष हाम्रो माझ नरहेको झण्डै तीन दशक पुग्न थालिसकेको छ । एक पटक हेर्नी किसिन्जरले भनेका थिए—“राजनेताहरूलाई अन्य राष्ट्रहरूका राजनीतिक, शक्ति, क्रियाकलाप र घरेलु अवरोधहरूले नियन्त्रित गर्न खोज्दछन्, तर आदर्श राजनेताले नियन्त्रण र अवरोधहरूलाई विवेचना गर्न, आफ्नो अधिनमा राख्न र आफ्नो इच्छा अनुसार मोड्न सक्नुपर्दछ ।” किसिन्जरले भनेझैं अनिश्चित संक्रमणको दलदलमा परिरहेको नेपालका लागि आन्तरिक र बाह्य संरचनामा विद्यमान अवरोधहरूलाई बुझ्न, नियन्त्रणमा राख्न र राष्ट्रिय हित अनुकूल मोड्न सक्षम नेतृत्वको आवश्यकता रहेको अवस्थामा उहाँको अभाव हर नेपालीको लागि खड्किनु स्वभाविकै हो । यो असुखद वास्तविकता हो, दैहिक दृष्टिले उहाँ हाम्रो माझ हुनुहुन्न तर उहाँले छोडेर गएका विचार, चिन्तन र आदर्शहरू अहिले पनि त्यत्तिकै सान्दर्भिक र समयसापेक्ष रहेका छन् ।

जननायक वी.पी. कोइरालाले लोकतान्त्रिक समाजवादी आन्दोलनमा दिनु भएको योगदान र वर्तमान राष्ट्रिय परिप्रेक्ष्यको विवेचना समय र समाज विकासको सापेक्षतामा गर्नु उपयुक्त होला । आजको विश्व आजभन्दा तीन दशक अगाडिको अवस्थामा छैन । असिका दशकको अन्त्य र नब्बेका दशकको शुरुवाततिर उदार लोकतान्त्रिक लहर सँगसँगै आएको आर्थिक उदारीकरणको प्रवाहले समाजवादी चिन्तन र सोचमा नयाँ चुनौतिको सिर्जना गराएको छ । सूचना, प्रविधिमा आएको क्रान्तिले राष्ट्र—राष्ट्रहरू बीचका सम्बन्धमा नयाँ आधार र मान्यताहरू थप्दै गएको छ । विश्व आर्थिक, सामाजिक संरचनामा रहेका पुराना मूल्य पद्धतिहरू बदलिँदै छन् । साँच्चि नै सूचना प्रविधिको अभूतपूर्व विकासले विश्वलाई एउटै गाउँजस्तै बनाएको छ । राष्ट्रिय परिप्रेक्ष्यमा हेर्दा एक दशकभन्दा बढी समयसम्म चलेको सशस्त्र द्वन्द्वले मुलुक आक्रान्त बनायो । इतिहासको कुनै पनि कालखण्डमा नेपाली जनताले यत्रो असुरक्षा, यातना र वियोगको पीडा शायदै भोग्नुपन्थो होला । आज मुलुक १२ बुँदे समझदारीदेखि द्वन्द्व व्यवस्थापनका सन्दर्भमा आठ बुँदे सम्झौता एवं संयुक्त राष्ट्रसंघलाई पठाएको पाँचबुँदे पत्र, संविधान सभाको दोस्रो निर्वाचनसम्म आइपुगेको छ । अझै द्वन्द्व रूपान्तरणको प्रक्रियाले ठोस आकार लिन सकेको छैन । संक्रमणले वाञ्छित राजनीतिक दिशा लिन्छ कि लिँदैन ? संविधान वन्छ कि वन्दैन ? आशंकाहरू सिर्जना भइरहेका छन् । समावेशी लोकतन्त्रका मान्यता अनुरूप राज्य पुनःसंरचनाका वहसहरू राजनीतिक दलका संरचनाहरू देखि लिएर नागरिक समाजका मैदानसम्म चलन थालेका छन् । यस्तो अवस्थामा हामी जननायक वी.पी. कोइरालाको लोकतान्त्रिक समाजवादी आन्दोलनमा के योगदान रह्यो ?

त्यसको वर्तमान अवस्थामा के सान्दर्भिकता रहेको छ ? समावेशी लोकतन्त्र र लोकतान्त्रिक समाजवादका वीचका सामीप्यता र दूरता के के हुन् ? वर्तमानमा उठेका राष्ट्रिय वहसका मुद्दाहरूले समाजवादी चिन्तनलाई अग्रगामी दिशा दिन कुन हदसम्म मद्दत पुऱ्याउँछन् ? र कुन हदसम्म मद्दत पुऱ्याउन सक्दैनन् ? भन्ने विषय आजको मुख्य विषय हो ।

लोकतान्त्रिक समाजवाद भनेको सामान्य अर्थमा राजनैतिक स्वतन्त्रता सहितको जनउत्तरदायी शासन प्रणाली र न्यायोचि वितरणको प्रबन्धबाट मानिसलाई आर्थिक र सामाजिक शोषणबाट मुक्ति दिलाउने राजनैतिक-आर्थिक संरचना निर्माण तर्फ उन्मुख सैद्धान्तिक मान्यता हो । यो एक लौकिक र गतिशील विचार प्रवाह हो । मानवीय अस्मिता, शोषण र दमनका विरुद्धको आन्दोलन हो । न्याय, समानता, स्वतन्त्रता र सहचार्य यसका आधारभूत मान्यताहरू हुन् । यसको प्रयोग गणितीय हिसावले हुन सक्दैन । समाज र समय सापेक्षता यसको मौलिकता हो । आधारभूत लोकतान्त्रिक संरचना, प्रक्रिया तथा आत्मनिर्णयको अधिकार सहित समातामूलक सामाजिक-आर्थिक र राजनैतिक व्यवस्थाको निर्माण यसको शाश्वत उद्देश्य हो । लोकतान्त्रिक समाजवादी व्यवस्थाले पूँजीवाद र साम्यवादलाई समान दूरीमा अस्वीकार गर्दा गर्दै पनि यी दुवैबाट केही आधारभूत मान्यताहरू ग्रहण गरेको छ । पूँजीवादीहरूले जस्तै आत्म निर्णयको अधिकार र वैयक्तिक स्वतन्त्रताको वकालत गर्ने र साम्यवादीहरूले जस्तै आर्थिक समानताको पक्ष लिने हुनाले यदाकदा लोकतान्त्रिक समाजवाद प्रति केही भ्रमहरू पनि उत्पन्न हुने गरेका छन् । तर पूँजीवाद र साम्यवादका केही आधारभूत मान्यताहरूलाई ग्रहण गर्दै पनि तिनीहरूबाट सिर्जित खरावी र विकृतिहरूका प्रति लोकतान्त्रिक समाजवादीहरू पूर्णरूपले सचेत देखिन्छन् ।

लोकतान्त्रिक समाजवादी व्यवस्थाको मौलिक तत्व लोकतन्त्र हो । समाजवादको अभ्यास लोकतन्त्रमा मात्रै सम्भव हुन्छ र समाजवादद्वारा नै लोकतन्त्रले पूर्णता प्राप्त गर्दछ । विभिन्न वर्ग, जात-जाति, धर्म र संस्कृतिमा विश्वास राख्ने विविध सम्प्रदायहरूको हित संरक्षण र तिनीहरूका बीचको व्यवहारिक समन्वय लोकतान्त्रिक समाजवादी व्यवस्थाको अर्को मौलिक मान्यता हो । कतिपय पूँजीवादी दार्शनिकहरू आर्थिक सामाजिक क्षेत्रलाई नागरिकहरूको नितान्त निजी क्षेत्र मानेर राज्य व्यवस्था तटस्थ रहनुपर्छ भन्ने दृष्टिकोण राख्दछन् । सामाजिक-आर्थिक आधारहरू सवल र सक्षम रहेका वर्ग वा व्यक्ति विशेषका लागि राज्य तटस्थ रहनुको अर्थ गरिब, निरीह र उपेक्षित वर्गका प्रति शोषण र दमन गर्ने मैदान खालि गरिदिनु हो । लोकतान्त्रिक समाजवादी व्यवस्थाले संपत्ति र शक्ति दुवैको समान र न्यायपूर्ण वितरणको अपेक्षा राख्दछ । यद्यपि आजको लोकतान्त्रिक समाजवादी शासन व्यवस्थाले विसौं शताब्दीको पाँचौं र छैटौं दशकको जस्तो सोच राख्न सक्दैन । तर आज पनि राज्य आर्थिक जीवनका परिस्थितिहरूलाई बदल्ने प्रतिवद्धताबाट भाग्न पाउँदैन । सम्पत्ति र अधिकार विहीन वर्गको एकतालाई मात्रस र एंगेल्सले आफ्नो जीवनस्तर उठाउने क्रममा एक पूर्व शर्त ठान्नुको पछाडि पनि निश्चित रूपले केही अर्थ छ । मुडिभर व्यक्तिको बहुसंख्यक जनतामाथिको वर्चस्व र शोषणलाई लोकतान्त्रिक समाजवादी राज्य व्यवस्थाले मुक्त दर्शक भएर हेरिरहन सक्दैन । आम नागरिकहरूका बीचको आपसी एकता र एक आपसको आत्म निर्भरताको चेतना समाजवादी राज्यव्यवस्थाको अर्को आधार हो । लोकतन्त्र भनेको केवल पार्टी स्वतन्त्रता, आवधिक निर्वाचन र बहुमतको सरकार मात्रै होइन, यो त आम नागरिकहरूको जीवन पद्धति पनि हो । त्यसैले सामाजिक जिम्मेवारीबाट मुक्त राज्य व्यवस्था समाजवादी हुनै सक्तैन ।

लोकतान्त्रिक समाजवादीहरूका लागि पुरातनपन्थी राज्य व्यवस्थाको पुनः संरचना अर्को दायित्व हो । यथार्थमा भन्ने हो भने जुन वर्गका लागि सामाजिक संरचनाको आवश्यकता लोकतान्त्रिक समाजवादी शासन व्यवस्थाले ठान्दछ, त्यो

पुनः संरचनाको आधार तिनै मानिसहरूको वास्तविक रहन-सहन, क्षमता र कार्य प्रणालीबाट स्थापित हुनु पर्दछ । एउटा समाजवादी राज्य व्यवस्थाले सीमान्त अवस्थामा रहेको विशालतम् वर्गको अनुभव र आवश्यकताबाट आपूमलाई अभिप्रेरित गर्न सक्ने भने समाजवादीहरूका लागि त्यो भन्दा अर्को विडम्बना के हुने ?

अर्को कुरा लोकतान्त्रिक समाजवादी शासन व्यवस्थाले सामाजिक सुरक्षा व्यवस्थाको अवधारणालाई इन्कार गर्न मिल्दैन । विपन्न, पिछडिएका र सीमान्त अवस्थामा रहेका वर्गका लागि यो व्यवस्था शिक्षा, औषधोपचार, रोजगारको अतिरिक्त वृद्ध, असहाय, अपाङ्ग आदिको पक्षमा उभिनै पर्दछ । लोकतान्त्रिक समाजवादी शासन व्यवस्थामा राज्य शक्तिशाली र टालुहरूका हितको संरक्षणका लागि लुटको उपकरण बन्न सक्दैन । लोकतान्त्रिक समाजवादी शासन व्यवस्थाले माथिबाट थोपरिएका पक्षहरूलाई ग्रहण गर्न सक्दैन, न कुनै व्यक्ति वा समुदायको विशेषाधिकारलाई प्रोत्साहित गर्न सक्दछ । शक्ति र सम्पत्तिको समान र न्यायोचित वितरणको संबन्धमा प्रश्न उठ्ने गरेको छ । पहिले उत्पादन बढाउनु पर्छ । उत्पादन नबढाएसम्म राज्य सम्पन्नशाली हुन सक्दैन । तुरुन्तै वितरण गर्दा उत्पादनमाथि आघात पर्दछ भन्ने गरिन्छ । तर प्रश्न उठ्छ—राष्ट्र सम्पन्नशाली नभएसम्म गरिब र शोषित वर्गलाई कति समयसम्म भोकै र नाङ्गै वस भन्ने ? उत्पादनका नाममा जनताका आवश्यकताहरूलाई कति दिनसम्म थाति राख्ने ? उत्पादनका प्रक्रियालाई नै वितरणमुखी तुल्याउन मिल्ने कि नमिल्ने ? यो यस्तो प्रश्न हो, जसको उत्तर लोकतान्त्रिक समाजवादी समाजको निर्माण गर्ने चाहने हरेक व्यक्ति र संस्थाले खोज्नु पर्ने स्थिति छ । यद्यपि वि.पी. कोइरालाले पनि उत्पादनमा जोड दिनु भएको छ । तर उत्पादनमा जोड दिने कुरा नयाँ होइन । युरोपको औद्योगिक क्रान्ति र पूँजीवादको विकाससँग सँगै यो नारा आएको हो । दोस्रो विश्वयुद्ध पछि तेस्रो विश्वका अधिकांश मुलुकहरूले उत्पादन वृद्धिको मसला युरोपबाटै ग्रहण गरेका हुन् । अहिले पनि यो नारा त्यत्तिकै सशक्त छ । के यो वाटोले यी मुलुकहरूको आर्थिक समस्या समाधान गर्न सकेको छ ? विचार गर्नु पर्ने अवस्था छ ।

फेरि समाजवाद भनेको विचार मात्र नभएर आचरण, व्यवहार, संस्कार र सभ्यता पनि हो । बोलिचाली, खानपीन, वसउठ जस्ता मानिसले अवलम्बन गर्ने जीवन शैलीसँग पनि यसले गम्भिर सरोकार राख्दछ । त्यसैले समाजवादी मान्यता अनुरूप समाजको पुनर्गठनको लागि नयाँ नीति र कार्यक्रम त्यत्तिकै महत्वपूर्ण हुन्छ तर त्यो भन्दा पहिले समाजवादी मानसिकता र चरित्रको पुनर्गठन हुनु जरुरी छ किनभने नयाँ समाजको निर्माण पुरानो मानसिकताबाट सम्भव हुँदैन ।

नेपालमा समाजवादी आन्दोलन निर्माणको क्रममा नेपाली काँग्रेसलाई वैचारिक दिशा र नेतृत्व प्रदान गर्ने काम जननायक वी.पी. कोइरालाले गर्नु भएको हो । उहाँ समाजवादका एक प्रखर चिन्तक हुनुहुन्थ्यो । नेपालको समाजवादी आन्दोलनलाई मुलुकको आर्थिक, सामाजिक र सांस्कृतिक परिवेश अनुरूप वैचारिक दृष्टिले गति प्रदान गर्ने काममा उहाँको अविस्मरणीय योगदान रहेको छ । यथार्थमा वी.पी. कोइराला सन् १९३० को दशकदेखि आजीवन समाजवादी आन्दोलनमा प्रत्यक्ष संलग्न रहँदै आउनु भयो । भारतीय समाजवादी नेताहरू उहाँको क्रान्ति सहयोद्धा थिए । प्रारम्भमा भारतीय स्वतन्त्रता आन्दोलन र समाजवादीहरूसँगको सम्पर्कबाट वी.पी. कोइरालाको राजनीतिक जीवन शुरुभए तापनि नेपालमा लोकतन्त्रको स्थापना र समतामूलक समाजवादी नेपाली समाजको निर्माण नै उहाँको चिन्तनको भावभूमि रहेको थियो । साथै उहाँको विचार प्रवाह विश्व सन्दर्भबाट निरपेक्ष थिएन । विश्व समाजवादी आन्दोलनमा समेत सशक्त अग्रणीको रूपमा मान्यता पाउनु भएका वी.पी. कोइरालाले नेपालको सन्दर्भमा मात्र होइन विश्व समाजवादी

दर्शनमा समेत नयाँ र मौलिक चिन्तन थप्नु भएको छ ।

उहाँको विचारमा समाजवाद भनेको एउटा ठूलो सभ्यता र संस्कृति हो, जसले केवल आर्थिक पक्षलाई मात्र नछोएर मानव सभ्यताका तमाम कलात्मक र सांस्कृतिक पक्षलाई छिचोलेको हुन्छ । मानिस केवल रोटीका लागि मात्र बाँच्दैन । रोटीले मात्र उसलाई सन्तुष्ट तुल्याउँदैन । मार्क्स र मार्क्सवादको गहन अध्ययन गर्नु भएका वी.पी. कोइराला निःसन्देह मानिसमा विद्यमान आर्थिक आयामलाई महत्वपूर्ण मान्नु हुन्थ्यो । तर मानिसलाई केवल आर्थिक आधारमा मात्र हेर्न र मूल्याङ्कन गर्न खोजियो भने मान्छे साह्रै सानो, सीमित र क्षुद्र भएर जान्छ । मान्छे भनेको त भावना र चेतनाको प्राणी हो । मान्छेको उत्थानमा भावनाले महत्वपूर्ण स्थान ओगटेको छ । यसरी वी.पी. कोइराला आर्थिक पक्षलाई मात्र जोड दिने र मानिसलाई केवल आर्थिक प्राणी मात्र सम्झने मार्क्सवादी विचारसँग सदैव असहमत रहनु भयो । “मार्क्सवाद र त्यसका अनुयायीहरूको भनाइलाई मात्र समाजवाद मान्ने हो भने हामी समाजवादको लक्ष्यमा कदापि पुग्न सक्दैनौं” भन्ने कुरामा वी.पी. ले जोड दिनु भएको थियो । उहाँको चिन्तनको मूल तत्व चेतना हो, पदार्थ होइन । मस्तिष्क पक्षलाई गौण रूपमा हेरेर समाजवादी संस्कृति अगाडि बढ्न सक्दैन । यही विचारको सारको रूपमा उहाँ भन्ने गर्नु हुन्थ्यो “मानिस ब्रेडले होइन ब्रेनले सञ्चालित हुन्छ ।”

वी.पी. कोइरालाको समाजवादी चिन्तनको अर्को आधार लोकतन्त्र हो । लोकतान्त्रिक व्यवस्था कुनै पनि हालतमा समाजवादी हुन सक्दैन । उहाँको विचारमा जनताले राजनीतिक स्वतन्त्रताको उपभोग गर्न पाएनन् भने आर्थिक समानता केवल नाराको विषय भएर जान्छ । उहाँको दृष्टिमा समाजवादका स्पष्ट रूपले दुई पोया छन्, राजनीतिक स्तरमा लोकतन्त्र र आर्थिक क्षेत्रमा गरीब जनतालाई न्याय दिने खालको विकास अर्थात् समानता । सन् १९८१ फरवरीमा अष्ट्रियाको राजधानी सिड्नीमा भएको समाजवादी सम्मेलनलाई सम्बोधन गर्दै वी.पी. ले “समाजवादीहरूका लागि संसारमा सर्वत्र चलिरहेको लोकतान्त्रिक आन्दोलनप्रति उदासीन रहनुभन्दा बढी खतरा अरु केही हुन सक्तैन” भन्ने विचार व्यक्त गर्नु भएको थियो । लोकतन्त्र उहाँको जीवन पद्धति थियो, जसको लागि उहाँ आजीवन लडिरहनु भयो । उहाँको समाजवादी चिन्तन समाज र परिस्थितिको गतिसँगै अगाडि बढेको छ । जीवनका साधन सबैका लागि समानरूपमा उपलब्ध हुनुपर्छ भन्ने दृष्टिकोण राख्ने वी.पी. कोइराला आर्थिक विषयमताको घोर विरोधी हुनुहुन्थ्यो । उहाँको विचारमा आर्थिक क्रान्ति राजनीतिक क्रान्तिजस्तो एकै पटकमा परिवर्तनको अनुभव गराउने प्रकृतिको हुँदैन । यो त क्रमिक योजनाहरूको कार्यान्वयन हो । वी.पी. कोइरालाका लागि उत्पादनको वृद्धि समाजवादको स्थापनाका लागि अनिवार्य आधार थियो । उत्पादनको यथेष्ट बृद्धिले न्यायोचित वितरण सम्भव गराउँछ भन्ने कुरालाई उहाँले धेरै जोड दिनु भएको छ । समाजवाद हरेक देशको परिस्थिति अनुरूप हुन्छ भन्ने दृष्टिकोण राख्ने वी.पी. कोइराला समाजवादी चिन्तन नेपालको वस्तुवादी वास्तविकतामा आधारित छ । जुन काम गर्दा गरीब, किसान र गाउँले जनताको हित र कल्याण हुन्छ त्यो नै नेपालका लागि समाजवादी कार्यक्रम हो भन्ने उहाँको स्पष्ट धारणा थियो ।

यसरी वी.पी. कोइरालाले नेपालको सन्दर्भमा समाजवादी कार्यक्रमको केन्द्र गाउँलाई बनाउनु भएको छ, जहाँ मानिस गरिब छन्, निमुखा छन्, अशिक्षित छन्, पिछडिएका छन्, भोको पेट र नाङ्गो आङ लिएर बाँचेका छन्; उनीहरूको कल्याण र उत्थान नभई नेपालको उत्थानको कसरी कल्पना गर्ने ? उहाँले सीमित शहरी क्षेत्रमा प्राप्त आधुनिक सुविधाहरूलाई कहिल्यै विकासको संज्ञा दिनु भएन । उहाँ सधैं गाउँको सम्वृद्धिका लागि नहर, खानेपानी, स्वास्थ्य, शिक्षा र सांस्कृतिक विकासमा बढी जोड दिनु हुन्थ्यो । जुन विकासले ग्रामीण जनतालाई पछाडि छोडिदिन्छ उहाँको

दृष्टिमा त्यो विकास विकास नै होइन । उद्योगको सम्बन्धमा साना र मझौला खालका उद्योगको पक्षमा उहाँ हुनुहुन्थ्यो । ठूला उद्योग र त्यसले निर्माण गरेको पूँजीवादी आर्थिक विश्व संरचना प्रति वी.पी. कोइराला अत्यन्त सचेत हुनुहुन्थ्यो । मानवको अस्तित्वको मोलमा स्थापित हुने त्यस्ता उद्योगहरूले प्रोत्साहन पाउनु हुँदैन भन्ने उहाँको दृष्टिकोण थियो । आफ्नै घर भित्रको प्राकृतिक सम्पदा र कच्चा पदार्थको उपभोग गर्न सक्ने किसिमका उद्योगहरूको प्राथमिक विकास गर्नुपर्दछ भन्ने उहाँको मान्यतामा गान्धीको विचारले पनि प्रभाव पारेको देखिन्छ । विदेशी साधन, स्रोत र विदेशी जनशक्तिकै आडमा सञ्चालित उद्योगहरूले नेपाली जनताको आवश्यकता पूर्ति गर्न सक्तैनन् भन्ने कुरामा उहाँलाई द्विविधा थिएन ।

संक्षेपमा भन्ने हो नेपालको विकासकोलागि आज पनि जनचेतना वी.पी. कोइरालाको लोकतन्त्र र समाजवादले नै भविष्य सुनिश्चित हुनेछ यसको कनै विकल्प छैन, यो कुरा आजका सम्पूर्ण राजनिति दलका नेताहरूले बुझ्न जरुरी छ ।

डिजिटल सुरक्षा

निकेस कोइराला

आजको संसार डिजिटल प्रविधिसँग पूर्ण रूपमा जोडिएको छ । हाम्रो दैनिक जीवनका प्रायः सबै कामहरूमा प्रविधि प्रयोग भइरहेको छ । अनलाइन बैङ्किङदेखि सामाजिक सञ्जाल, व्यवसायिक प्रणालीदेखि व्यक्तिगत तथा व्यावसायिक कामसम्म हामी डिजिटल उपकरणमा निर्भर छौं । हाम्रो जीवन इन्टरनेट र प्रविधिमा धेरै हदसम्म आधारित छ।

प्रविधि र इन्टरनेटले हाम्रो जीवनलाई सजिलो र छिटो बनाएको छ, तर यसले नयाँ प्रकारका जोखिम र खतराहरू पनि बढाएको छ । त्यसैले डिजिटल सुरक्षाको आवश्यकता अत्यन्त महत्वपूर्ण भएको छ। डिजिटल सुरक्षाले डिजिटल सूचना र सम्पत्तिसँग सम्बन्धित जोखिमहरूलाई कम गर्न वा नियन्त्रण गर्न मद्दत गर्छ ।

डिजिटल सुरक्षा मुख्य रूपमा हाम्रो अनलाइन पहिचान, डाटा, उपकरण र प्रणालीलाई सुरक्षित राख्न केन्द्रित हुन्छ, ताकि हाम्रो सूचना र सम्पत्ति चोरी वा दुरुपयोग हुन नपाओस् । धेरैजसो व्यक्तिहरूले आफूलाई ठूलो संस्था, कम्पनी वा सरकारजस्तो जोखिममा नपरेको ठान्छन् । तर वास्तविकता भने तेस्तो हैन किनकि, स्मार्टफोन, कम्प्युटर वा इन्टरनेट प्रयोग गर्ने प्रत्येक व्यक्ति समान रूपमा जोखिममा हुन्छ । त्यसैले डिजिटल उपकरण प्रयोग गर्ने हरेक व्यक्तिका लागि डिजिटल सुरक्षा अत्यन्त आवश्यक छ ।

डिजिटल सुरक्षा किन महत्वपूर्ण छ ?

हामी इन्टरनेट विभिन्न कामका लागि प्रयोग गर्छौं जस्तै मनोरञ्जन, बैङ्किङ, अनलाइन किनमेल, सामाजिक सञ्जाल तथा ई-गभर्नेन्स पोर्टलमार्फत सरकारी सेवा लिन प्रयोग गर्दछौं । प्रत्येक पटक इन्टरनेट प्रयोग गर्दा हामी डिजिटल छाप (Digital Footprint) छोड्छौं । यसमा पासवर्ड, व्यक्तिगत विवरण, फोटो, आर्थिक जानकारी र सन्देश आदान-प्रदानका अभिलेखहरू समावेश हुन्छन् ।

यी जानकारीहरूलाई सही रूपमा सुरक्षित नगरेमा यसको दुरुपयोग हुन सक्छ । जस्तै ठगी (Fraud), पहिचान चोरी (Identity theft), बल्याकमेल वा आर्थिक नोक्सानी समेत हुनसक्छ ।

विद्यार्थीहरूको शैक्षिक अभिलेख र विभिन्न शैक्षिक पोर्टल खाताहरू सुरक्षित राख्न आवश्यक हुन्छ। त्यसैगरी, कम्पनीहरूले आफ्ना ग्राहकको विवरण र आर्थिक डाटा सुरक्षित राख्नुपर्छ । सरकारका लागि त झन् महत्वपूर्ण हुन्छ, किनकि उनीहरूले नागरिक का सुचनाहरू जस्मा व्यतिगत र सम्पत्ति, राष्ट्रिय पूर्वाधार, संवेदनशील सूचना तथा कहिलेकाहीं राष्ट्रिय सुरक्षसँग सम्बन्धित डाटा सुरक्षित राख्नुपर्छ ।

सामान्य डिजिटल खतराहरू

ह्याकरहरूले विभिन्न किसिमका प्रविधी, तरिकाहरू वा आक्रमण प्रयोग गरी हाम्रा सुचना चोरने गर्दछन ति मध्य केही सामान्य खतराहरू निम्न छन्:

फिसिड (Phishing) आक्रमण

फिसिड एक प्रकारको साइबर आक्रमण हो जसमा कसैले विश्वासिलो व्यक्ति वा संस्थाजस्तो भई तपाईंलाई गोप्य जानकारी दिन भनेर ठग्ने प्रयास गरिन्छ । सामान्यतया यसका तीन चरण हुन्छन्:

तपाईंलाई आधिकारिक जस्तो देखिने इमेल वा सन्देश आउँछ (जस्तै बैंक, फेसबुक, जीमेल, नेटफिल्क्स आदि बाट आएको जस्तो देखिन्छ) ।

सन्देशमा डर वा अत्यावश्यकता सिर्जना गरिन्छ, जस्तै “२४ घण्टाभित्र तपाईंको खाता बन्द हुनेछ ।”

लिंकमा क्लिक गरेपछि तपाईंलाई नक्कली वेबसाइटमा लगिन्छ, जुन वास्तविक जस्तै देखिन्छ, र त्यहाँ तपाईंको जानकारी चोरी हुन्छ ।

मालवेयर (Malware)

मालवेयर भनेको त्यस्तो हानिकारक सफ्टवेयर हो जसले तपाईंको उपकरणबाट डाटा चोरी गर्न वा क्षति पुऱ्याउन सक्छ ।

र्यान्समवेयर (Ransomware)

यो मालवेयरको एक प्रकार हो जसले तपाईंको फाइलहरू लक गर्छ र खोल्नका लागि पैसा माग्छ ।

पहिचान चोरी (Identity Theft)

कसैले तपाईंको व्यक्तिगत जानकारी चोरी गरेर ठगी गर्ने कार्यलाई पहिचान चोरी भनिन्छ ।

सामाजिक इन्जिनियरिङ (Social Engineering)

मानिसको विश्वास जितेर गोप्य जानकारी लिने तरिकालाई सामाजिक इन्जिनियरिङ भनिन्छ ।

कसरी सुरक्षिता रहन सकिन्छ त ?

अनलाइन सुरक्षित रहन अत्यधिक प्राविधिक ज्ञान आवश्यक पर्दैन । साना तर महत्वपूर्ण बानीहरूले ठूलो फरक पार्न सक्छन्:

बलियो पासवर्ड प्रयोग गर्नुहोस्

अक्षर, अंक र चिन्हहरूको मिश्रण प्रयोग गरेर जटिल पासवर्ड बनाउनुहोस्। एउटै पासवर्ड धेरै खातामा प्रयोग नगर्नुहोस्।

टु-फ्याक्टर प्रमाणीकरण (2FA) सक्षम गर्नुहोस्

आजभोलि धेरै पोर्टलहरूले पासवर्डकालागी टु-फ्याक्टर प्रमाणीकरण दिने गरेकाछन जसले तपाईंको कुनै एउटा प्रमाणीकरण बाट एक स्टेप अगाडी गए नि अर्को स्टेपले login गर्न रोक छ जसले अतिरिक्त सुरक्षा तह थप्छ।

सफ्टवेयर नियमित अपडेट गर्नुहोस्

तपाइले प्रयोग गरेका सफ्टवेयरहरूले नियमित अपडेटहरू दिइराखेका हुन्छन ति अपडेटहरूमा सुरक्षा कमजोरीहरू सुधार गरिएका हुन्छन त्यस कारण नियमित अपडेट गर्नु कमजोरीहरू सुधार गर्नु नै हो।

सन्देशास्पद लिंक वा फाइल नखोल्नुहोस्

भरसक कुनै पनि ईमेल वा मोबाइल मा आएका लिंक न खोल्नु नै उत्तम झन अपरिचित इमेल वा लिंकको त खोल्नै भएन। जब सम्म तपाईं त्यो लिंक सुरक्षित छ भन्ने हुँदैन कसैले पठाएको भए नि न खोल्नु उत्तम वा सुरक्षितहुने उपाए हो।

सुरक्षित नेटवर्क(Network/Internet) प्रयोग गर्नुहोस्

सार्वजनिक Wi-Fi प्रयोग गर्दा आफ्ना कुनै पनि संवेदनशील सुचना access वा प्रविष्ट न गर्नु होस। धेरै सार्वजनिक Wi-Fi नै प्रयोग गरेर मोबाईल Banking प्रयोग गरे को देखिन्छ त्यो सुरक्षित हुँदैन।

एन्टिभाइरस र फायरवाल प्रयोग गर्नुहोस्

यी उपकरणहरूले सम्भावित खतराहरू पत्ता लगाउन र रोकन मद्दत गर्छन्।

अन्त्यमा, आफ्ना पासवर्ड र पिन जस्ता संवेदनशील सुचना कसैसँग शेयर नगर्नु अर्को सुरक्षित हुने माध्यम हो। साथै कुनै ईमेल, SMS वा फोनबाट बैंक तथा अन्य official निकायबाट फोन गरे को भनी मागेमा आफु सम्बन्धित निकायमै गएर बुझ्ने तर phone, Email वा SMS कै भरमा भने नदिने।

निष्कर्ष

डिजिटल युगमा सुरक्षा सबैको जिम्मेवारी हो। प्रविधिले हाम्रो जीवनलाई सहज बनाएको छ, तर जोखिमहरू पनि बढाएको छ। व्यक्तिगत प्रयोगकर्ता, विद्यार्थी, व्यवसायी वा सरकारी संस्था सबैले डिजिटल सुरक्षालाई प्राथमिकता दिन आवश्यक छ। सचेतना र सही अभ्यास अपनाएर हामी सुरक्षित डिजिटल वातावरण निर्माण गर्न सकौं।

सुनकोशी कालिका बहुमुखी क्याम्पस सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगाको स्थापनाकालदेखि हालसम्मको विकासक्रम

मिनकुमार घिमिरे
संस्थापक क्याम्पस प्रमुख

क्याम्पस स्थापनाको “सोच तथा परिकल्पना”

वि.सं. २०७६ सालमा विश्वव्यापी रूपमा फैलँदै गइरहेको कोभिड-१९, कोरोना भाइरस आतंकले सबैलाई सताइ रहेको थियो। जसको त्रास, भय र आतंकको कारण नेपाल लगायत संसारका अधिकांश मुलुकहरूमा लकडाउन घोषणा गरिएको अवस्था थियो। हाम्रो देशमा पानि लकडाउन शुरु भएको थियो।

नेपालका बिभिन्न शहरहरूमा विभिन्न पेशा, व्यवसाय र रोजगारी गरेर वसोवास गरिरहनु भएका व्यक्तित्वहरूलाई आफ्नो जन्मभूमीमा फर्कन र सुरक्षित हुन नेपाल सरकारले आवाहन गर्यो। त्यसैबेला गाउँ गाउँमा विद्वत वर्ग, शिक्षाप्रेमी, समाजसेवीहरूको उपस्थिति हुन पुग्यो। सो समयमा बलखु, सिस्नेरीका शिक्षा विकासको चाहना भएका व्यक्तित्वहरूको भेटघाट हुने अवसर मिल्यो। सुनकोशी-३, सिस्नेरीका तत्कालिन वडाध्यक्ष विष्णुकुमार खड्का, हालका वडाध्यक्ष गिर्वराज थापा मगर, शिक्षक दुर्गाबहादुर खड्का, कमल राना मगर र म बीच सिस्नेरीमा कुनै उपायले सिस्नेरीमा क्याम्पस स्थापना गर्न पाए शिक्षा क्षेत्रको तीव्र विकास हुन सक्थ्यो भन्ने प्रसंगमा केही दिन अधि कुरा भएको थियो।

लकडाउन शुरु भएको केहि दिनपछि काठमाडौँबाट शिक्षाप्रेमी आदरणीय डा.खिलानाथ सापकोटा घर आउनु भयो। उहाँसँग मैले सिस्नेरीमा क्याम्पस स्थापना गर्न हामीहरूबीच भएको कुरा गरेँ। उहाँले मेरो कुरा एकैछिनमा बुझिहाल्नु भयो र भन्नु भयो, “विष्णु अंकलहरू क्याम्पस स्थापना गर्न चाहनु हुन्छ भने भेट गरेर सल्लाह गरौँ”। भोलि बोलाएर सल्लाह गर्नुपर्छ भन्नु भएपछि खुशीसाथ खबर गरेँ। भोलिपल्ट सिस्नेरीबाट विष्णुकुमार खड्का, गिर्वराज थापा मगर, दुर्गाबहादुर खड्का लगायतका व्यक्तित्वहरू लगायतका संस्थापकहरू बलखु आउनुभयो। तत्कालिन वडा सचिव पेशलकुमार अधिकारी, चुडामणी पहाडी र म लगायतका साथीहरू खिलासरको घरमा बसरे क्याम्पस स्थापना गर्ने निधो गर्यौँ।

एकजना संस्थापकबाट एकलाख रुपैयाँ ऋण सापटी लिने र सोही रकमबाट सम्पूर्ण संस्थापकहरूको पवित्र चाहना भनेको “उच्च शिक्षा लिने दृढ इच्छा, चाहना र आवश्यकता हुँदाहुँदै पनि भौगोलिक विकटता, गरिबी र अवसरबाट वञ्चित हुनु परेको कारण उच्च शिक्षाको मुलधारमा आउन नसकेका तमाम न्यून तथा मध्यम वर्गीय परिवारका छोराछोरीहरूलाई व्यवहारिक शैक्षिक क्रियाकलापको माध्यमबाट न्यून शुल्कमा गुणस्तरीय र उपयोगी शिक्षा प्रदान गर्ने

साझा उद्देश्य हो"। सो उद्देश्य पूरा गर्नको लागि क्याम्पस स्थापना गर्न सबैजना कम्मर कसेर लाग्ने प्रण गरियो। उक्त कार्य पूरा गर्नको लागि आवश्यक क्याम्पस विधान निर्माण गरि त्रिभुवन विश्वविद्यालयबाट स्विकृत गर्ने जिम्मेवारीसहित तपशिल वमोजिमको सात सदस्यीय संस्थापक क्याम्पस व्यवस्थापन समिति गठन गरियो।

क्र.सं.	पद	नाम,थर	ठेगाना	सम्पर्क नं.
१	अध्यक्ष	डा.खिलानाथ सापकोटा	सुनकोशी-१, बलखु, ओखलढुंगा	९८५१०११७८०
२	सदस्य	विष्णुकुमार खड्का	सुनकोशी-३, सिस्नेरी, ओखलढुंगा	९८४२९७२३३३
३	सदस्य	पेशलकुमार अधिकारी	सुनकोशी-१, बलखु, ओखलढुंगा	९८४२९७१५२०
४	सदस्य	गिर्वराज थापा मगर	सुनकोशी-३, सिस्नेरी, ओखलढुंगा	९८५२८६३११९
५	सदस्य	जनक गिरी	उदयपुरगढी-६, उदयपुर	९८५१०९६२८८
६	सदस्य	सुवासचन्द्र गिरी	सुनकोशी-१, बलखु, ओखलढुंगा	९८५१०४८८७०
७	क्याम्पस प्रमुख	मिनकुमार धिमिरे	सुनकोशी-१, बलखु, ओखलढुंगा	९८५१०५७०६३

संस्थापक क्याम्पस व्यवस्थापन समितिले निर्णय गरेअनुसार नेपाली वर्णानुक्रम अनुसार क्याम्पसको संस्थापक सदस्यहरुको नामावली क्याम्पसको विधानमा तपशिल अनुसार व्यवस्थित गरिएको छ।

क्र.सं.	पद	नाम,थर	ठेगाना	बाबु/आमा	ना.प्र.नं.
१	संस्थापक सदस्य	अजम्बर लुईटेल	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	कृष्णलाल/कालिकादेवी	१००३
२	संस्थापक सदस्य	अनुपम सापकोटा	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	अम्बिकाप्रसाद/ टिकालक्ष्मी	१३३०४३/१३९
३	संस्थापक सदस्य	इन्द्रबहादुर खड्का (सुनील)	सुनकोशी-२, ओखलढुंगा	प्रेमबहादुर/टीकामाया	५३५५१६११०
४	संस्थापक सदस्य	इन्द्रबहादुर थापा मगर	सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगा	शान्तबहादुर/धनमाया	१२५२/२००२
५	संस्थापक सदस्य	इन्द्रबहादुर श्रेष्ठ	सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगा	धननारायण/डम्बरकुमारी	१४८/१०७९
६	संस्थापक सदस्य	एकनारायण "वासु" श्रेष्ठ	सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगा	भीमनारायण/धनकुमारी	१४४/१८८७
७	संस्थापक सदस्य	कमल राना मगर	सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगा	आइतबहादुर/धनमाया	१८७५/११७७
८	संस्थापक सदस्य	किरण श्रेष्ठ	सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगा	जयबहादुर/पदमकुमारी	१९२२/२३२९/१४२९
९	संस्थापक सदस्य	कुमार लुईटेल	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	कृष्णलाल/दोजेन्द्रकुमारी	१७५२/९७२
१०	संस्थापक सदस्य	कुमार श्रेष्ठ	सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगा	जयबहादुर/पदमकुमारी	६२६
११	संस्थापक सदस्य	कौशल धिमिरे	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	चक्रबहादुर/राधाकुमारी	४५७९३/१२
१२	संस्थापक सदस्य	डा.खिलानाथ सापकोटा	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	कपिलमुनी/अम्बिका	३९२
१३	संस्थापक सदस्य	गणेशप्रसाद लुईटेल	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	टंकनाथ/झुलादेवी	१०८०
१४	संस्थापक सदस्य	गिर्वराज थापा मगर	सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगा	जगत/डीलमाया	५९५५०/७४३५
१५	संस्थापक सदस्य	गोकर्ण लुईटेल	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	छत्रप्रसाद/झनकुमारी	१३/०१/७२/०२१४४
१६	संस्थापक सदस्य	गोविन्द गिरी	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	नारायण/सावित्री	३०५७१/५२८
१७	संस्थापक सदस्य	चक्रबहादुर राई	सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगा	सक्कलबहादुर/नौसरी	४०७८८/३९२
१८	संस्थापक सदस्य	चन्द्रलाल गिरी	सुनकोशी-१०, ओखलढुंगा	शिवलाल/मधुमाया	३०९८३/३७७/०४४
१९	संस्थापक सदस्य	चित्रबहादुर थापा	सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगा	दलबहादुर/गंगामाया	११५५
२०	संस्थापक सदस्य	चुडामणी पहाडी	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	अनिरुद्र/गंगामाया	५७६८०/६१९०
२१	संस्थापक सदस्य	छत्रनारायण श्रेष्ठ	सुनकोशी-४, ओखलढुंगा	सर्वलाल/सञ्चमाया	१२७९/६२१
२२	संस्थापक सदस्य	जनक गिरी	उदयपुरगढी-६, उदयपुर	नत्रराज/नन्दमाया	७४९८७
२३	संस्थापक सदस्य	जमुना धिमिरे	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	कृष्णबहादुर/इन्द्रमाया पति:मिनकुमार धिमिरे	५४६५३/६०

क्र.सं.	पद	नाम,थर	ठेगाना	बाबु/आमा	ना.प्र.नं.
२४	संस्थापक सदस्य	जालन्धर कार्की (कुमार)	सुनकोशी-१०, ओखलढुंगा	लोकबहादुर/नन्दमाया	६१५५३/१४२२
२५	संस्थापक सदस्य	जीतबहादुर श्रेष्ठ	सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगा	धननारायण/डम्मरकुमारी	२७११/१९१५
२६	संस्थापक सदस्य	टंकलाल गिरी	सुनकोशी-१०, ओखलढुंगा	भगवान/बुधमाया	२०५३
२७	संस्थापक सदस्य	दुण्डीराज पहाडी	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	तुलशीराम/लक्ष्मीमाया	६१३२८/९२०७
२८	संस्थापक सदस्य	तारानाथ पहाडी	सुनकोशी-२, ओखलढुंगा	होमनाथ/खिनमाया	६/१५७/२५१२/३२७
२९	संस्थापक सदस्य	दलबहादुर खत्री (सुशील)	सुनकोशी-९, ओखलढुंगा	रत्नबहादुर/गंगामाया	४२००६२/२५४५
३०	संस्थापक सदस्य	दुर्गाबहादुर खड्का	सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगा	प्रेमबहादुर/प्रेमकुमारी	३८४६/९२१
३१	संस्थापक सदस्य	धर्मराज भट्ट	दोधरा चाँदनी-१, कञ्चनपुर	उत्तरप्रसाद/वशन्तिदेवी	७५३००४/११०
३२	संस्थापक सदस्य	नवराज श्रेष्ठ	सुनकोशी-४, ओखलढुंगा	मानबहादुर/नरमाया	६०३
३३	संस्थापक सदस्य	पेशलकुमार अधिकारी	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	पिताम्बर/मायादेवी	११८/६०२
३४	संस्थापक सदस्य	प्रकाश श्रेष्ठ	सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगा	जयबहादुर/पदमकुमारी	१३००२/७६३
३५	संस्थापक सदस्य	प्रकाश सापकोटा	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	डण्डप्रसाद/कमलकुमारी	१३३०४३/५०१
३६	संस्थापक सदस्य	प्रकृति सापकोटा (संग्रौला)	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	कपिलमुनी/अम्बिका पति:मेदिनिप्रसाद संग्रौला	
३७	संस्थापक सदस्य	प्रभात खड्का	सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगा	जगतबहादुर/पवित्रामाया	१३१०४५/१५५
३८	संस्थापक सदस्य	बाबुराम बस्नेत	सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगा	शेरबहादुर/डम्मरकुमारी	१११४
३९	संस्थापक सदस्य	विष्णुकुमार खड्का	सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगा	प्रेमबहादुर/बालिका	३१९४/१०२३
४०	संस्थापक सदस्य	विष्णुलाल गिरी	सुनकोशी-१०, ओखलढुंगा	धनमाना/इन्द्रमाया	५९९४०/७८२८
४१	संस्थापक सदस्य	बुद्धबहादुर तामाङ	सुनकोशी-२, ओखलढुंगा	पदम/आशा	४५८०४/७०९
४२	संस्थापक सदस्य	भवराम श्रेष्ठ	सुनकोशी-४, ओखलढुंगा	भीमबहादुर/रणमाया	४९८/१८७७
४३	संस्थापक सदस्य	मदन श्रेष्ठ	सुनकोशी-४, ओखलढुंगा	कृष्णबहादुर/नन्दकुमारी	६३४६०/११५६३
४४	संस्थापक सदस्य	मिनकुमार घिमिरे	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	दिनानाथ/थनमाया	४५७९२/६
४५	संस्थापक सदस्य	मिलन गिरी	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	माधवप्रसाद/एकाकुमारी	१३१०४३/५९४
४६	संस्थापक सदस्य	मिलन लुईटेल	सुनकोशी-२, ओखलढुंगा	ओमप्रकाश/कुन्तादेवी	६३३५७/११४५२
४७	संस्थापक सदस्य	यदु गिरी	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	खडानन्द/चन्द्रमाया	५२३/३६३
४८	संस्थापक सदस्य	राजकुमार श्रेष्ठ	सुनकोशी-४, ओखलढुंगा	नरबहादुर/नरमाया	४००५८/५३४/०४४
४९	संस्थापक सदस्य	प्रा.डा.राजेश राई	ललितपुर म.न.-१४, ललितपुर	धर्मध्वज/धर्मकुमारी	१७७५०
५०	संस्थापक सदस्य	रामबहादुर थापा मगर	सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगा	बीरबहादुर/बीरमाया	४१२४/१०१७
५१	संस्थापक सदस्य	रामकृष्ण सापकोटा	सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगा	पदमबहादुर/जानुकीमाया	३५०/११७५
५२	संस्थापक सदस्य	रेवतिरमण सापकोटा	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	देवीचरण/लक्ष्मीदेवी	१३८७/१६६९
५३	संस्थापक सदस्य	रोशन गिरी	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	ईश्वरी/मिना	१३/०१/७३/०२४५१
५४	संस्थापक सदस्य	लोकेन्द्र पराजुली	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	तुलशीप्रसाद/पदमकुमारी	६०४४/५१०
५५	संस्थापक सदस्य	शंकर गिरी	सुनकोशी-१०, ओखलढुंगा	विष्णुलाल/इन्द्रकुमारी	६६३५१/१५८३१
५६	संस्थापक सदस्य	शान्तिप्रसाद पराजुली	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	लक्ष्मीप्रसाद/कालिमाया	१५५५२/०४८/०४४/४५
५७	संस्थापक सदस्य	शोभा गिरी (सापकोटा)	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	प ति: डा . खि ला ना थ सापकोटा	
५८	संस्थापक सदस्य	सुवासचन्द्र गिरी	सुनकोशी-१, ओखलढुंगा	यदु/नन्दमाया	५२९२४/१८५०

“उत्कृष्टताको लागि सोध” भन्ने मूल मान्यता र आदर्शलाई आत्मसात गर्दै

त्रिभुवन विश्वविद्यालयबाट सम्बन्धन प्राप्त भई शिक्षाशास्त्र संकायमा एम.एड. र वि.एड. तथा व्यवस्थापन संकायमा वि.वि.एस. कार्यक्रमहरू सञ्चालनमा रहेको तत्कालिन सान्दिपनि सामुदायिक कलेज, कोटेश्वर, काठमाडौंलाई नियमानुसार स्थानान्तरण गरि ओखलढुंगा जिल्लाको दुर्गम र विकट यो स्थानमा स्थापना गर्न समाजसेवा र शिक्षाप्रेमले ओतप्रोत ५८ जना समाजसेवीहरूको सामुहिक ऋण सापटी लगानी र प्रयासमा वि.सं.२०७७ साल माघ २९ गते सुनकोशी कालिका बहुमुखी क्याम्पस, सुनकोशी-३, ओखलढुंगाको विधिवत् स्थापना भएको हो। यस क्याम्पसको विधिवत् स्थापनाको प्रमाणपत्र प्राप्तपश्चात त्रि.वि. को शैक्षिक कार्यक्रमका आधारमा शैक्षिक सत्र २०७७/७८ मा स्नातक तहको वि.एड. र वि.वि.एस. मा औपचारिक रूपमा विद्यार्थी भर्ना कार्य प्रारम्भ गरियो।

१) फर्निचर र भौतिक व्यवस्थापन

शैक्षिक सत्र २०७७/७८ मा विद्यार्थी भर्ना गर्ने, अध्ययन अध्यापन गर्ने र कार्यालयीय व्यवस्थापन गर्नको लागि आवश्यक फर्निचर, कक्षाकोठा, क्याम्पसको कार्यालय आदि आवश्यकीय पक्षहरूको व्यवस्थापन गर्नमा आदरणीय संस्थापक सदस्यज्यूहरूको महत्वपूर्ण र अहम् भूमिका रहेको छ। कक्षाकोठा र विद्यार्थीहरूलाई आवश्यक पर्ने फर्निचरहरू श्री कालिका मा.वि. सिस्नेरीबाट उपलब्ध गरियो। क्याम्पस स्थापना, सञ्चालन र व्यवस्थापन गर्नमा उक्त विद्यालय परिवारले पुर्याएको योगदान, तत्कालिन विद्यालय व्यवस्थापन समितिले गरेको सहयोग अतुलनीय र अविस्मरणीय छ। विद्यालयका पुराना भवनहरू हटाई नयाँ भवन निर्माण कार्य प्रारम्भ भए पश्चात विद्यालयको चार कोठे भवन र अस्थायी सिकाई केन्द्र (TLC) मा विद्यालयसँग अनुमति लिई विहानी सत्रमा पठनपाठन कार्य गरिएको थियो।

साथै कार्यालय प्रयोजनको लागि यस क्याम्पसका संस्थापक सदस्य श्री ईन्द्रबहादुर श्रेष्ठको घरको दुईवटा कोठा वार्षिक रु.३०,०००। (तीस हजार मात्र) तिर्ने गरि भाडामा लिई सञ्चालन गरिएको थियो। उक्त कार्यालयमा फर्निचर व्यवस्थापन गर्ने सन्दर्भमा उपलब्ध फर्निचरहरूमध्ये चालिस हजार मूल्य बराबरको पुस्तक र्याकसहितको काउन्टर टेबल संस्थापक सदस्यद्वय बुद्धबहादुर तामाङ र सुवासचन्द्र गिरीज्यूले सहयोग गर्नु भएको थियो। साथै २३ हजार मूल्यको कार्यालय टेबल संस्थापक सदस्यद्वय चित्रबहादुर थापा र वावुराम वस्नेतज्यूले सहयोग गर्नु भयो। त्यस्तै १२ हजार मूल्यको स्टील दराज समाजसेवी आदरणीय नारद सापकोटाले सहयोग गर्नु भयो। त्यस्तै चार हजार मूल्य बराबरको एउटा काठको टेबल र प्रतिगोटा १४ सय मूल्यका ४ वटा कुर्सी संस्थापक सदस्य यदु गिरीज्यूबाट प्राप्त भएको थियो।

क्याम्पस संस्थापनको संकटपूर्ण समयमा हरतरहले सहयोग गर्नुहुने आदरणीय सहयोगीहरू धन्यवादको पात्र हुनुहुन्छ।

उल्लेखित फर्निचरहरूका अतिरिक्त अन्य आवश्यक फर्निचरहरू क्याम्पसले विभिन्न समयमा खरीद गरि प्रयोगमा रहेका छन्। उपलब्ध फर्निचरहरूको विवरण तपशील वमोजिम रहेका छन्:

क्र.सं	फर्निचरको विवरण	परिमाण/मात्रा	कैफियत
१	फलामको फ्रेम भएको डेस्क/बेन्च	३० जोर	
२	नोटिस बोर्ड	६ वटा	
३	ह्वाइट बोर्ड	६ वटा	
४	फलामको फ्रेम भएको टेबल	६ वटा	
५	फलामको फ्रेम भएको कुर्सी	६ वटा	
६	अफिसियल टेबल	५ वटा	
७	अफिसियल कुर्सी	३ वटा	
८	स्टील दराज	२ वटा	
९	सानो टेबल	२ वटा	
१०	प्लास्टिक कुर्सी	१५ वटा	
११	पोडियम	१ वटा	

२) जग्गा खरीद तथा व्यवस्थापन

क्याम्पसको आधिकारिक स्थानान्तरण प्रकृया पूरा भै प्रमाणपत्र प्राप्तपश्चात क्याम्पसको नाममा जग्गा हुनैपर्ने वाध्यात्मक परिस्थितिलाई आत्मसात गर्दै कक्षा १२ सहितको माध्यमिक तह सञ्चालित विद्यालयबाट ५ सय मिटर भन्दा बाहिर लैजान नपाउने त्रि.वि.को नियमसमेतलाई ध्यानमा राखि कम्तिमा ५ रोपनी जग्गा खरीद गर्नुपर्ने सन्दर्भमा मिति २०७८ साल असार ३१ गतेका दिन सुनकोशि-३, सिस्नेरी निवासी रत्नबहादुर मगर र डिलमाया मगरको नाममा रहेको जग्गाको मुल्याङ्कन गरी गराई रु.१५ लाख मुल्यमा जिल्ला मालपोत कार्यालय ओखलढुंगाबाट रजिष्ट्रेसन पास गरियो ।

उक्त जग्गा खरीद गर्ने सन्दर्भमा तपशिल वमोजिमका समाजसेवी, शिक्षाप्रेमी व्यक्तिहरुबाट ऋण सापटी लिइएको थियो ।

तपशील:

क्र.सं.	ऋण सहयोगीहरुको नाम, थर	सापटी रकम रु.	कैफियत
१	जीतबहादुर श्रेष्ठ	३,००,०००।-	
२	इन्द्रबहादुर मगर	२,५०,०००।-	
३	रुद्रबहादुर थापा	२,००,०००।-	
४	इन्द्रबहादुर श्रेष्ठ	१,००,०००।-	
५	टंकबहादुर श्रेष्ठ	५०,०००।-	

६	दीर्गबहादुर बुढाथोकी	५०,०००।-	
७	टेकबहादुर मगर	५०,०००।-	
	जम्मा सापटी रकम	१०,००,०००।-	
८	क्याम्पसको आन्तरिक स्रोत	५,००,०००।-	

उल्लेखित ऋण सापटी रकम स्रोत व्यवस्थापन गरेर फिर्ता गरिसकिएको छ ।

३) संस्थापक सदस्यज्यूहरूबाट लिएको ऋण सापटी रकम सम्बन्धमा

क्याम्पसको स्थापना गर्ने पवित्र सोच भएका शिक्षाप्रेमी महानुभावहरू प्रत्येकसँगबाट सापटी स्वरूप प्रतिव्यक्ति रु. १ लाखका दरले रकम जम्मा गरि क्याम्पस स्थानान्तरणमा लाने खर्च व्यवस्थापन गर्ने अवधारणा सहित मिति २०७७ साल असार १ गते सिस्नेरी र बलखुका १०/१० जना व्यक्तिहरूबाट पहिलो चरणमा रु. ५० हजारका दरले रु. १० लाख जम्मा गरि क्याम्पस स्थानान्तरण प्रकृयाको लागि काठमाडौं पठाइएको थियो । तत्पश्चात् उक्त पवित्र कार्यको निमित्त सुनकोशी गाउँपालिकाका अन्य ठाउँमा वसोवास गर्ने शिक्षाप्रेमी, समाजसेवी व्यक्तित्वहरूसमेतलाई सहभागिताको लागि अनुरोध गरिएपछि ५८ जना व्यक्तिहरूबाट प्रतिव्यक्ति रु. १ लाखका दरले विभिन्न समयमा रकम जम्मा भयो। यस अनुसार जम्मा ऋण सापटी स्वरूप प्राप्त भएको रकम रु. ५८ लाख रहेको छ । जम्मा ऋण सापटी रकममध्ये ५७ लाख रकम फिर्ता भैसकेको र १ लाख फिर्ता गर्न बाँकी रहेको छ ।

उक्त ऋण सापटी रकम प्रदान गर्नु हुने शैक्षिक अभियन्ताहरूको योगदानप्रति क्याम्पस सँधैभरि कृतज्ञ छ ।

क्याम्पस स्थानान्तरणको समग्र प्रकृया पूरा गरि विधिवत रूपमा सुनकोशी कालिका बहुमुखि क्याम्पसको प्रमाणपत्र प्राप्त गर्दासम्मको कुल खर्च ४८ लाख ५ हजार भएको थियो। जसमध्ये राष्ट्रिय वाणिज्य बैंकमा रहेको मुद्दति खातामा रु. ६लाख ५० हजार र चलित खातामा रु. ४६ हजार ८ सय ३८ गरि जम्मा रु. ६ लाख ९६ हजार ८ सय ३८ रुपैयाँ वचत भएको थियो । जस अनुसार क्याम्पस स्थानान्तरणको सम्पूर्ण प्रकृया पूरा गर्दा लागेको जम्मा खर्च रु. ४१ लाख ८ हजार १ सय ६२ रुपैयाँ रहेको थियो। अन्य आम्दानीको स्रोत व्यवस्थापन नभइसकेको अवस्था र खर्च गर्नेपने वाध्यतावस कार्यालय व्यवस्थापन र विद्यार्थी भर्ना अभियान समयमा केहि रकम खर्च भएकोमा सोध भर्ना गरिएको थियो ।

४) सापटी रकम फिर्ता सम्बन्धमा

उच्च शिक्षा लिने अवसरबाट वञ्चित भएका गरीब, दलित, महिला जनजाति, अल्पसंख्यक समुदाय आदिको इच्छा, चाहना र आवश्यकतासमेतलाई मध्यनजर गरि क्याम्पस स्थापना गर्न आवश्यक आर्थिक व्यवस्थापनको लागि लिइएको ऋण सापटी रकम फिर्ता गर्नुपर्ने सन्दर्भमा क्याम्पस विधानमा भएको व्यवस्था र अधिल्लो क्याम्पस सभाबाट पारित निर्णय अनुसार आ.व. २०८०/०८१ र २०८१/०८२ मा फिर्ता गरिएको छ । साथै जग्गा खरीदको लागि लिइएको ऋण सापटी रकमसमेत चुक्ता गरिसकिएको व्यहोरा सादर अनुरोध छ ।

५) स्नातकोत्तर तहको सञ्चालन तथा सुरक्षण

स्नातकोत्तर तहको एम.एड. कार्यक्रममा शिक्षाशास्त्र संकाय डीनको कार्यालय, कीर्तिपुरको शैक्षिक क्यालेण्डर तथा सूचना अनुसार शैक्षिक सत्र २०७७/०७८ को लागि इन्ट्रान्स परीक्षा फारम खुलाइ विद्यार्थीको फारम भरि भराइ अघि बढ्ने क्रममा जिल्लाभन्त तथा बाहिर रहेका यो क्याम्पसको स्थापनाप्रति नै इर्ष्या र डाह गर्ने केहि व्यक्तिको मौखिक उजुरी र वाधा विरोधको कारण डीनको कार्यालयले नेपाली, अंग्रेजी, स्वास्थ्य तथा शारीरिक शिक्षा र शैक्षिक योजना तथा व्यवस्थापन (EPM) विषयहरुरहेको यस क्याम्पसमा भर्ना हुन इच्छुक भइ आवेदन फारम भरेका ५३ जना विद्यार्थीहरूमध्ये अंग्रेजी विषयमा मात्र ११ जना विद्यार्थी भर्ना गर्न सीमित गरियो। सेमेष्टर प्रणालीमा आधारित एम.एड तहको अंग्रेजी विषयका उक्त ११ जना विद्यार्थीहरूको परीक्षा दिने व्यवस्थाको लागि विभिन्न किसिमबाट अवरोध सिर्जना गरिएको कारण विद्यार्थीहरूले क्याम्पस प्रशासनसमेतलाई विपक्षी बनाएर सम्मानित सर्वोच्च अदालतमा रीट दायर गर्नुपरेको थियो। सो रीट निवेदन उपर सम्मानित सर्वोच्च अदालतले त्रि.वि.लाई सम्बन्धित क्याम्पसबाट नै परीक्षा दिने व्यवस्था गर्नू गराउनु भन्ने परमादेश दिएपछि मात्र विद्यार्थीहरूले पढ्ने अवसर पाएको व्यहोरा अवगत गराउँछु।

न्यायिक व्यवस्थापनबाट मात्र क्याम्पसमा स्नातकोत्तर तहको सुरक्षण हुने कुरामा प्रेरित गरि विद्यार्थीहरूलाई सम्मानित सर्वोच्च अदालतको ढोकासम्म पुग्न सहयोग र हौसला दिनुहुने क्याम्पस व्यवस्थापन समितिका संस्थापक अध्यक्ष डा.खिलानाथ सापकोटा, विद्वान वरिष्ठ अधिवक्ता डा. पदम गिरी, विद्वान अधिवक्ता सरोज गिरी र प्रमोद गिरीज्यूहरूप्रति क्याम्पस परिवार सँधै आभारी र ऋणी छ।

विभिन्न आरोह र अवरोहकाबीच स्नातकोत्तर तहमा भर्ना भइ अध्ययनरत नियमित विद्यार्थीहरूको जम्मा संख्या ६३ रहेको छ। उक्त शैक्षिक वर्षका विद्यार्थीहरूमध्ये ३ जना विद्यार्थी सम्पूर्ण परीक्षा उत्तीर्ण गरि सोधपत्र लेखन कार्य गर्दै रहुनु भएको छ भने अन्य ३ जना विद्यार्थीहरू सैद्धान्तिक परीक्षामा सहभागी रहँदै आउनु भएको छ।

शैक्षिक सत्र २०७८/०७९ को लागि स्नातकोत्तर तहको प्रथम सेमेष्टरमा विद्यार्थी भर्नाको लागि शिक्षाशास्त्र संकाय, डीनको कार्यालयबाट सूचित सूचनाको आधारमा विद्यार्थीहरूको इन्ट्रान्स फर्म अनलाइनमार्फत भर्न अवरोध भएपछि क्याम्पस व्यवस्थापन समिति र संस्थापकज्यूहरूसमेतको विशेष पहल र प्रयत्नमा डीन कार्यालयसँग गरिएको अनुरोधबाट क्याम्पसको पटकपटकको स्थलगत अनुगमन, निरीक्षण र अध्ययनवाट प्राप्त प्रतिवेदनसमेतका आधारमा विद्यार्थीहरूको त्रि.वि.कार्यकारी परिषद्बाट निर्णय भइ यस क्याम्पसमा एम.एड. सञ्चालनको लागि प्राप्त भएका कार्यक्रम सञ्चालन गर्न पुनःअनुमति प्राप्त भएको थियो। साथै विभिन्न कठिनाईका वावजुद एम.एड. तहमा नेपाली, अंग्रेजी र शैक्षिक योजना तथा व्यवस्थापन (EPM) विषयमा पठनपाठन भइरहेको छ।

६) स्नातक तहको सञ्चालन तथा व्यवस्थापन:

त्रि.वि.को शैक्षिक क्यालेण्डर तथा सूचना अनुसार शैक्षिक सत्र २०७७/०७८ मा यस क्याम्पसले पनि विद्यार्थी भर्ना अभियानलाई महत्व दिई विद्यार्थी भर्ना शुरु गर्यो। वि.एड. प्रथम वर्षमा शैक्षिक सत्र २०७७/०७८ मा १३१ जना र वि.वि.एस. मा २० जना विद्यार्थीहरूले रजिष्ट्रेशन फारम भरि भर्ना भएका थिए। विश्वव्यापी रुपमा फैलिएको कोभिड-१९ को आतंक र विविध कारणबाट भर्ना भएका सबै विद्यार्थीहरूलाई परीक्षामा सामेल गराउन सकिएन।

क्याम्पस स्थानान्तरणको प्रमाणपत्र प्राप्ति पश्चात शैक्षिक सत्र २०७७/०७८ मा स्नातक तहमा भर्ना भएका विद्यार्थिबाट संकलित शुल्क नै यस क्याम्पसको आन्तरिक स्रोत व्यवस्थापनको प्रारम्भ हो ।

प्रत्येक आर्थिक वर्षमा क्याम्पसको लेखा व्यवस्थापन लाई चुस्त दुरुस्त राख्न क्याम्पस व्यवस्थापन समितिबाट गठित सामाजिक परीक्षण समितिबाट सामाजिक परीक्षण गरी वार्षिक लेखा परीक्षण गर्ने गरिएको छ। क्याम्पस स्थानान्तरण भई सञ्चालनमा रहेको करिब पाँच वर्ष पूरा भएको छ ।

क्याम्पसको आ.व. २०७७/०७८ सम्मको आय/व्यय विवरणसहितको प्रतिवेदन अधिल्लो क्याम्पस सभाबामा प्रस्तुत गरिसकिएकोले आ.व. २०७९/०८० देखि हालसम्मको आय/व्यय समेटिएको छ । जसलाई देहाय बमोजिम उल्लेख गरिएको छ ।

आ.व.२०७९/०८० को विवरण

क्र. सं.	आम्दानी शीर्षक	रकम रू.	खर्च शीर्षक	खर्च रकम रू.	कैफियत
१	अल्या, मुद्दति खाता रा.बा. बैंक	६,५०,०००।-	तलब/ भत्ता सामाजिक सुरक्षा कर सहित	११,७८,१६५।-	
	चल्ती खाता रा.बा. बैंक	३७,२६,८८७.६२।-	यातायात	४१,६९७.६७।-	
	संस्थापक सदस्यबाट सापटी रकम	४,०४,१८८.१५।-	स्नातक तह परीक्षा शुल्क	१,७४,०६५।-	
	माछापुच्छ्रे बैंक	४,२१,१००।-	लेखा परीक्षण शुल्क	१७,०००।-	
२	आन्तरिक स्रोत		मसलन्द र स्टेसनरी	७०,७४५।-	
	भर्ना शुल्क	४,७७,७००।-	विविध	४६,७२५।-	
	माषिक पढाई शुल्क	६,६६,६८०।-	क्याम्पस सभा खर्च	२०,३२०।-	
	रजिष्ट्रेसन शुल्क	२३,६००।-	पुस्तक खरीद	२३,०७५।-	
	आ.प.शुल्क	३९,२००।-	प्रचार प्रसार	११,६९५।-	
	परीक्षा शुल्क	१,२०,१००।-	रा.बा. मुद्दति	६,५०,०००।-	
	एम.एड. पढाइ शुल्क	२,४२,५००।-	चल्ती खाता बैंक कर	३३६४२४.०४।-	
	सुनकोशी गा.पा. अनुदान	१६,८२,२००।-	कट्टी, रा.बा. बैंक	२८०९.१६।-	
	UGC नियमित अनुदान	१७,७३,०००।-	क्याम्पस नविकरण	२,१८,०००।-	
	UGC भवन निर्माण अनुदान	५०,००,०००।-	एम.एड.इन्ट्रान्स र परीक्षा शुल्क	१,०८,०००।-	
	कोशी प्रदेश सामाजिक विकास मन्त्रालय, विराटनगर	१४,७९,७७१।-	विधान प्रमाणिकरण शुल्क	१०००।-	
	मुद्दति व्याज	३१,८५०.६३।-	रजिष्ट्रेसन शुल्क	३८,५००।-	

क्र. सं.	आम्दानी शीर्षक	रकम रू.	खर्च शीर्षक	खर्च रकम रू.	कैफियत
	बोलपत्र कागजात विक्रि	१२,०००।-	जग्गा पास र यातायात	५,५६८।-	
	उपभोक्ता समितिबाट राजस्व फिर्ता प्राप्त	४,०९,५००।-	त्रि.वि. सेवा शुल्क	३५,९५०।-	
	क्याम्पस प्रमुखबाट सापटी	३,९०,६८३.९६।-	DPR तयारी र प्रमाणिकरण	१,५०,०००।-	
	घडेरी खरीदको लागि सापटी	१०,३३,५००।-	अनुगमन, निरीक्षण	७७,०२४.८८।-	
	व्यवस्थापन खर्च सापटी	१२,२६,५१०।-	घरभाडा	२१,६७०।-	
			तालिम	२४,०५०।-	
			सामाजिक सुरक्षा शुल्क	१२,०२३।-	
			जग्गा खरीद	१५,३३,५००।-	
			गा.पा.पेस्की फच्छौट फिर्ता रकम	४,०९,५००।-	
			भवन ठक्का विज्ञापन पत्रिका	६९,६०८।-	
			अतिथि खर्च भवन निर्माण	२०,५४५।-	
			भवन निर्माण टिडिएस	७६१३७।-	
			प्रस्ताव लेखन, तयारी तथा कार्यान्वयन	१,९२,०००।-	
			ICT र फर्निचर	१४,९९,६८०.५६।-	
			नेपाल पब्लिक क्याम्पस संघ सदस्यता नविकरण शुल्क	४७,०००।-	
			खप्ने सामान	४,२००।-	
			प्रयोगात्मक परीक्षा खर्च	११,२६०।-	
			घडेरीको सापटी फिर्ता	१०,३३,५००।-	
			भवन निर्माण UGC	५०,००,०००।-	
			भवन निर्माण आन्तरिक स्रोतबाट	१३,००,०००।-	
			बैंक कर कट्टी	५,२७७.६०।-	

क्र. सं.	आम्दानी शीर्षक	रकम रू.	खर्च शीर्षक	खर्च रकम रू.	कैफियत
			घडेरी सम्प्याउन इन्धन, ज्याला र प्राविधिक व्यवस्थापन खर्चसमेत	१,५६,९१०।-	
			मुद्दति खाता रा.बा. बैंक	६,५०,०००।-	
			चलित खाता रा.बा. बैंक	३२,७५,५३१.६५।-	
			चलित खाता माछापुच्छ्रे बैंक	२२,४१,०४८।-	
	कुल जम्मा	१,९८,१०,९७१.३६।-	जम्मा खर्च	१,९८,१०,९७१.३६।-	

आ.व.२०८०/०८१ को विवरण

क्र. सं.	आम्दानी शीर्षक	रकम रू.	खर्च शीर्षक	खर्च रकम रू.
१	अल्या, मुद्दति खाता रा.बा.वैंक	६,५०,०००।-	तलब/ भत्ता सामाजिक सुरक्षा कर सहित	१६,६७,३३५।-
	चलती खाता रा.बा. वैंक	३२,७५,५३१.६५।-	यातायात	७१,१२०.५०।-
			स्नातक तह परीक्षा शुल्क	१,६३,८९५.०५।-
	माछापुच्छ्रे वैंक	२२,४१,०४८।-	लेखा परीक्षण शुल्क	२७,८२०.०१।-
२	आन्तरिक स्रोत		मसलन्द र स्टेसनरी	५३,११५।-
	भर्ना शुल्क	५,९५,९४०।-	पुस्तक खरीद	२४,६३५।-
	माषिक पढाई शुल्क	४,४४,६८०।-	क्याम्पस सभा खर्च	२०,३२०।-
	रजिष्ट्रेसन शुल्क	२९,४००।-	पुस्तक खरीद	२३,०७५।-
	आ.प.शुल्क	५६,०००।-	प्रचार प्रसार	११,६९५।-
	परीक्षा शुल्क	९४,१४०।-	रा.बा. मुद्दति	६,५०,०००।-
	एम.एड. पढाइ शुल्क	६,२९,५४०।-	चलती खाता बैंक	३,३६,४२४.०४।-
	सुनकोशी गा.पा. अनुदान	१,९८,०००।-	कट्टी,रा.बा. वैंक	२८०९.१६।-
	UGC नियमित अनुदान	२१,७०,०००।-	क्याम्पस नविकरण एम.एड./ वि.एड.	४४,०००।-
	UGC भवन निर्माण अनुदान	५०,००,०००।-	एम.एड.इन्ट्रान्स र परीक्षा शुल्क	१,७२,८२७.०२।-
	कोशी प्रदेश सामाजिक विकास मन्त्रालय, विराटनगर	६,९४,४२४।-	विधान प्रमाणिकरण शुल्क	१०००।-

क्र. सं.	आम्दानी शीर्षक	रकम रू.	खर्च शीर्षक	खर्च रकम रू.
	मुद्दति व्याज	५२,२८९.१०१-	रजिष्ट्रेसन शुल्क	३१,५७७.९६१-
	बोलपत्र कागजात विक्रि	२७,०००१-	फर्निचर खरीद	४,२०,०००१-
	बोलपत्र सुरक्षण शुल्क	१,५२,०००१-	त्रि.वि. सेवा शुल्क	१४,५००१-
	क्याम्पस प्रमुखबाट सापटी	३,९०,६८३.९६१-	भवन निर्माण DPR तयारी र प्रमाणिकरण	९७,४०८१-
	डीनको कार्यालय	८,०००१-	अनुगमन, निरीक्षण	७७,०२४.८८१-
	क्याम्पस प्रमुख विज्ञापन दस्तुर	१०,०००१-	घरभाडा	३०,०००१-
	सापटी रकम	५,६४,८५१.५२१-	तालिम	१४,४५४१-
			सामाजिक सुरक्षा शुल्क	१२,०२३१-
			जग्गा खरीद	१५,३३,५००१-
			गा.पा.पेस्की फच्छौट फिर्ता रकम	४,०९,५००१-
			भवन ठेक्का विज्ञापन पत्रिका	४८,९७८.७२.-
			अतिथि खर्च अनुगमन र भवन निर्माण प्राविधिक	५३,६८०१-
			भवन निर्माण टिडिएस र ३०% भ्याट रकम	२,८३,२८०१-
			प्रस्ताव लेखन, तयारी तथा कार्यान्वयन	१,९२,०००१-
			बोलपत्र सुरक्षण शुल्क फिर्ता	१,५२,०००१-
			नेपाल पब्लिक क्याम्पस संघ सदस्यता नविकरण शुल्क	२०,०००१-
			सामाजिक परीक्षण खर्च	१२,२७०१-
			प्रयोगात्मक परीक्षा खर्च	६१,२८०१-
			घडेरीको सापटी फिर्ता	१०,३३,५००१-
			भवन निर्माण UGC	३८,०९,९८९१-
			बैंक कर कट्टी	६,९५४.७७१-

क्र. सं.	आम्दानी शीर्षक	रकम रू.	खर्च शीर्षक	खर्च रकम रू.
			घडेरी सम्प्राउन इन्धन, ज्याला र प्राविधिक व्यवस्थापन खर्चसमेत	१,५६,९१०।-
			विद्युत महसुल	४२८.७५।-
			संस्थापक सापटी र र क्याम्पस प्रमुख सापटी फिर्ता	३३,४०,६८३.९६।-
			थप भवन निर्माण(खाड्ग्री) कन्स्ट्रक्सन	९,१०,०२१.५१।-
			मुद्दति खाता रा.बा.बैंक	६,५०,०००।-
			चलित खाता रा.बा.बैंक	४८,३५,०४२.९८।-
			चलित खाता माछापुच्छ्रे बैंक	२,६६,२३१।-
	कुल जम्मा	१,७२,८३,५२८.२३।-	जम्मा खर्च	१,७२,८३,५२८.२३।-

आ.व.२०८१/०८२ को विवरण

क्र. सं.	आम्दानी शीर्षक	रकम रू.	खर्च शीर्षक	खर्च रकम रू.
१	अल्या, मुद्दति खाता रा.बा. बैंक	६,५०,०००।-	तलब/ भत्ता सामाजिक सुरक्षा कर सहित	२१,८८,९७१।-
	चलित खाता रा.बा. बैंक	४८,३५,०४२.९८।-	यातायात	१,२५,७१४.७९।-
			स्नातक तह परीक्षा शुल्क	४,६३,०२५।-
	माछापुच्छ्रे बैंक	२,६६,२३१।-	सामाजिक परीक्षण र लेखा परीक्षण शुल्क	४३,५००।-
२	आन्तरिक स्रोत		मसलन्द र स्टेसनरी	५३,३३५।-
	भर्ना शुल्क	११,४९,८४०।-	प्रयोगात्मक परीक्षा खर्च	१,५१,५५०।-
	माषिक पढाई शुल्क	१७,४८,४५०।-	फर्निचर खरीद	३८,९५०।-
	रजिष्ट्रेसन शुल्क	३५,७००।-	भवन निर्माण UGC	४०,५०,४९५।-
	परीक्षा शुल्क	४,६९,५४०।-	Guest Room Management को लागि भाँडाकुँडा व्यवस्थापन	४६,६६०।-
	एम.एड. पढाई शुल्क	१२,१८,०००।-	विद्युत महसुल	९,७३५।-
			संस्थापक सापटी फिर्ता	२७,३९,५००।-

क्र. सं.	आम्दानी शीर्षक	रकम रू.	खर्च शीर्षक	खर्च रकम रू.
४	UGC नियमित अनुदान	२०,३०,०००।-	तालिम	१,८८,०००।-
५	UGC भवन निर्माण अनुदान	५०,००,१५१.९१।-	एम.एड.इन्ट्रान्स र परीक्षा शुल्क सेवा शुल्कसमेत	४,५५,७८५।-
६	UGC क्षमता विकास तालिम	२,००,०००।-	भवन ठेक्का विज्ञापन पत्रिका	३५,६५३।-
	कोशी प्रदेश सामाजिक विकास मन्त्रालय, विराटनगर	४,५०,०००।-	भवन निर्माण टिडिएस र ३०% भ्याट रकम	२,५२,५३४।-
	मुद्दति व्याज	४३,०१५.९८।-	विभिन्न प्रस्ताव लेखन, तयारी तथा कार्यान्वयन	१,५७,३५०।-
	बोलपत्र कागजात विक्री	१५,०००।-	बोलपत्र सुरक्षण शुल्क फिर्ता	१,६३,०००।-
	बोलपत्र सुरक्षण शुल्क	१,६३,०००।-	नेपाल पब्लिक क्याम्पस संघ सदस्यता नविकरण शुल्क	४७,५००।-
	डीनको कार्यालय	४,२५०।-	बैंक कर कट्टी	६,७०२.३९।-
	UGC समतामा आधारित अनुदान	८,००,०००।-	घरभाडा	४२,०००।-
			डिजिटलाजेसन प्रशिक्षक पारिश्रमिक	१,२९,२००।-
			अतिथि सत्कार र वैठक खाजा	५६,८७६.७६।-
			विभिन्न सामान खरीद	२,५०,०००।-
			सापाटी फिर्ता	४,१२,८५१।-
			रिटेन्सन रकम फिर्ता, भरोसा कन्स्ट्रक्सन	४,६३,०००।-
			मुद्दति खाता रा.बा.बैंक	६,५०,०००।-
			चलित खाता रा.बा.बैंक	५४,११,०१३.४८।-
			चलित खाता माछापुच्छ्रे बैंक	५,१६,२५२.०५।-
			नगद	९१,९७८.४०।-
	कुल जम्मा	१,९०,७८,२२१.८७।-	जम्मा खर्च	१,९०,७८,२२१.८७।-

७) भवन निर्माण सम्बन्धमा:

क्याम्पस स्थानान्तरणको प्रमाणपत्र प्राप्तिसँगै पठनपाठन कार्यको लागि आवश्यक कक्षाकोठा र अन्य सुविधाहरूको लागि श्री कालिका मा.वि. सिस्नेरीको विद्यालय व्यवस्थापन समिति तथा विद्यालय प्रशासनसँग गरिएको सहमति/सम्झौता अनुसार उक्त विद्यालयको ४ कोठे भवन र TLC मा केहि वर्ष पठनपाठन गरियो । विश्वविद्यालय अनुदान आयोगको आर्थिक सहयोगमा आ.व. २०७८/०७९ देखि भवन निर्माण कार्यको लागि निरन्तर रूपमा भवन निर्माण कार्य हुँदै आइरहेको छ । शैक्षिक सत्र २०८०/०८१ देखि क्याम्पसको आफ्नो भवनमा नै कक्षा सञ्चालन हुँदै आइरहेको छ। यस भवनमा ८ वटा कोठाहरू सञ्चालनमा छन् भने दोस्रो तलाको निर्माण कार्य भैरहेको छ । यसको निर्माण कार्य सम्पन्न भएपछि १२ वटा कोठा उपलब्ध हुने छन् ।

आगामी दिनहरूमा अन्य दातृ निकायहरूमा समेत प्रस्ताव पेश गरि भवन निर्माण कार्य गर्ने लक्ष्य राखिएको छ ।

भौगोलिक विकटता र भू-बनोटको असहजताको कारण क्याम्पसमा खेलमैदानको अभाव रहेको छ । यसको व्यवस्थापनको लागि प्राविधिक रूपमा DPR गरि आवश्यक डिजाइन इष्टिमेट अनुसार भवन भन्दा तलपट्टीको भागबाट शेरवाल लगाउन प्रदेश तथा संघीय सरकारका बिभिन्न निकायहरूमा प्रस्ताव गरिएको छ। प्रस्ताव स्वीकृतिको लागि पहल गरिदिनु हुन सबैमा अनुरोध गर्दछु ।

८) विद्यार्थी भर्ना र नतिजा विश्लेषण:

शैक्षिक सत्र २०२० बाट विद्यार्थी भर्ना गर्न थालिएको यस क्याम्पसमा पहिलो पटक १३१ जनाले रजिष्ट्रेसन गरेकोमा चौथो वर्षको परीक्षामा ६३ जना विद्यार्थी सामेल भइ ४० जना विद्यार्थी उत्तीर्ण भएका छन् । २०२१ मा २३ जना, २०२२ मा २४ जना, २०२३ मा ३३ जना र २०२४ मा ७८ जना विद्यार्थीहरू भर्ना भइ परीक्षामा सामेल भएका छन् । २०२५ मा विद्यार्थी भर्ना भएरहेकोमा हालसम्म ४९ जना विद्यार्थीहरू भर्ना भएर अध्ययन गरिरहेको अवस्था छ । जसअनुसार वि.एडमा जम्मा विद्यार्थी संख्या २७० जना रहेको छ।त्यस्तै वि.वि.एसमा जम्मा विद्यार्थी संख्या २० जना र एम.एड.मा सबै सेमेष्टरको जम्मा संख्या ६३ रहेको छ।चौथो सेमेष्टर परीक्षामा सामेल भइ सम्पूर्ण परीक्षा उत्तीर्ण विद्यार्थी संख्या ३ जना रहेको छ । यस अनुसार यस क्याम्पसमा सम्पूर्ण विद्यार्थी संख्या ३५३ जना रहेको छ ।

विद्यार्थीहरू भर्ना हुने, परीक्षामा सामेल हुने तर नियमित कक्षामा सहभागी हुन नसक्नु र न्यून विद्यार्थी मात्र कक्षामा सामेल हुनु क्याम्पसको मुख्य समस्या र चुनौति विद्यमान छ ।

परीक्षामा सामेल विद्यार्थीहरूको नतिजा लाई हेर्दा भने सन्तोषजनक मान्न सकिन्छ ।

९) स्रोत व्यवस्थापन सम्बन्धमा:

यस क्याम्पसको प्रमुख चुनौति भनेको आर्थिक स्रोत व्यवस्थापन हो।विद्यार्थी शुल्कबाट हुने आमदानीले नै शिक्षक कर्मचारीको तलब भत्ता, संकाय नविकरण शुल्क, क्याम्पस अनुगमन खर्च, तथा क्याम्पसका अन्य सम्पूर्ण क्रियाकलापहरू गर्नुपर्ने वाध्यता रहेको छ।क्याम्पसलाई स्थानान्तरण गरी प्रमाणपत्र प्राप्त गर्ने सन्दर्भमा लिइएको संस्थापकज्यूहरूको ऋण सापटी रकम फिर्ता, जग्गा खरीद, भवन निर्माण, फर्निचर, कम्प्युटर लगायतका विभिन्न

सामानहरूको व्यवस्थापन जस्ता कार्यहरू गर्नु परेको हुँदा आर्थिक वचत उल्लेख्य रूपमा हुन सकेको छैन ।

जग्गा खरीद गर्दाको ऋण सापटी फिर्ता गर्न र घडेरी सम्प्राप्ति कार्यको गर्नको लागि आ.व. २०७८/०७९ मा सुनकोशी गाउँपालिका वडा नं.-०३ का तत्कालिन वडाध्यक्ष श्री विष्णुकुमार खड्काज्यूले रु.१३,००,०००।- (तेह लाख) रुपैयाँ विनियोजन गरिदिनु भएर क्याम्पसलाई पुर्याउनु भएको अतुलनीय योगदानको सदैव कदर गर्नुपर्ने हुन्छ ।

क्याम्पस परिवार सदैव उहाँलाई सम्मान व्यक्त गर्दछ ।

विद्यार्थीहरूबाट उठ्न बाँकी शुल्क,क्याम्पसको आन्तरिक स्रोत र अन्य स्रोत व्यवस्थापनबाट क्याम्पसका सम्पूर्ण गतिविधिहरू अघि बढाउनु पर्ने परिस्थिति छ ।

स्थानीय सरकार, विश्वविद्यालय अनुदान आयोग लगायत अन्य दाता सरकारी निकायहरूमा अनुदान व्यवस्थापनको लागि प्रस्ताव गर्नुपर्ने अबस्था रहेको छ ।

१०) शैक्षिक जनशक्ति व्यवस्थापन:

क्याम्पसको सवैभन्दा महत्वपूर्ण उद्देश्य गुणस्तरीय, व्यवहारिक, जीवनोपयोगी र समयसापेक्ष शिक्षा प्रदान गर्नु हो । प्रविधियुक्त समयानुकूल शैक्षिक व्यवस्थापनको निम्ति पर्याप्त दक्ष मानव संशाधनको आवश्यकता पर्दछ। स्नातकोत्तर तहमा अंग्रेजी, नेपाली र शैक्षिक योजना तथा व्यवस्थापन विषय साथै स्नातक तहको वि.एड.मा अंग्रेजी र वि.वि.एस.मा लेखा विषयको पूर्णकालीन तथा आंशिक शिक्षक व्यवस्थापन गर्नुपर्ने अवस्था रहेको छ । साथै क्याम्पसमा उपलब्ध भएको शिक्षक तथा कर्मचारीको संख्या अपुग रहेकोले थप जनशक्ति व्यवस्थापन गर्नुपर्ने आवश्यकता रहेको छ ।

छोटो समयमा क्याम्पसले चौतर्फी प्रगति गरेको छ। यस सफलताको लागि हरदम सहयोग पुर्याइदिनु भएकोमा क्याम्पस व्यवस्थापन समितिका अध्यक्ष डा.खिलानाथ सापकोटा लगायत सदस्यज्यूहरू, विश्वविद्यालय अनुदान आयोग,सानोठिमी,भक्तपुर सुनकोशी गाउँपालिका ओखलढुंगाका अध्यक्ष आदरणीय कमल तामाङ लगायत सिङ्गो गाउँकार्यपालिका परिवार र कोशी प्रदेश सरकारसमेतलाई हार्दिक धन्यवाद व्यक्त गर्दै निरन्तर सहयोगको अपेक्षा गर्दछु।

सन्दर्भ सामाग्रीहरू:

सुनकोशी कालिका बहुमुखी क्याम्पस विधान, २०७७

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2. The article should contain about 400-5000 words, which may vary depending on the nature of the topic. But a book review can be about 2500 words. It should strictly follow the latest version of the APA Manual style sheet/format.
3. The article should have an abstract in 200 - 300 words, including 4-6 key-words, which contains their research question(s), objective(s), hypotheses (if any), methodological approach, and the expected findings.
4. It should be typed in 12-point size Times New Roman font with 1 inch on the left margin, 1 inch on the right, 1 inch at the top, and 1 inch at the bottom.
5. The author should submit the complete manuscript in an electronic version before the fixed date. Any submission after the deadline shall not be considered for publication in the current volume/issue/number.
6. The Editorial Board will initially check the general structure of the manuscript and its compliance with the author guidelines. If the article contains plagiarism, duplication, or any other irregularities that violate the publication's motto, it may be rejected automatically. If it complies with the minimum conditions but requires further improvement, it will be returned to the author with suggestions from the editorial board. If it is suitable for review, it will be forwarded to the peer reviewers.
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3. The abstract reflects the aims, objectives, theoretical lens, methodology, findings, and implications of the study.

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1. The introduction explains the background of the study.
2. The background provides adequate information on the existing knowledge.
3. It clearly explains/justifies the aims and objectives of the study.
4. It is clear, concise, and logical.

Literature Review

1. The literature reviews include current research.
2. It includes knowledge gaps in the existing knowledge and scholarship.
3. These knowledge/research gaps are significant within the field and add new knowledge to the existing literature.

Methodological Approach

1. The methodological approach is consistent with the research paradigm, objectives, and research question and/or hypothesis.
2. All the necessary procedures been followed (e.g., ethical considerations and health as well as safety issues of participants involved) in the study.
3. The author/s consistently use the APA style guideline throughout the paper.

4. Discussion of the Results/Findings
5. The results/findings of the study are clearly formatted and presented in the paper
6. The interpreted and analyzed with reference to existing literature
7. The tables, graphs, and charts are appropriately presented in the paper
8. The discussion is supported by the data presented
9. They contribute to the focus of the journal

Conclusion and Implication

1. The author/s achieve their stated aim (as mentioned in the introduction.
2. The authors indicate trustworthiness, avoiding any bias in the study.
3. The conclusion addresses the questions posed.
4. The conclusions drawn are adequately supported by the results and arguments presented.
5. There is a logical flow of the main idea throughout the manuscript.
6. The implication explains how the study has moved the body of scientific knowledge forward (e.g., recommendations, future directions, limitations of the study, etc.).

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