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Editorial

In the present era, the pursuit of knowledge has become increasingly rigorous, with scholars across diverse disciplines engaging in systematic inquiry and empirical investigation. As both a methodological framework and an epistemological instrument, research serves as a pivotal driver of the expansion and advancement of human knowledge and understanding. Through sustained intellectual engagement, researchers have not only extended existing theoretical paradigms but have also critically examined and, in certain cases, refuted entrenched assumptions, thereby fostering the development of novel theoretical insights and practical applications. This dynamic process affirms research as a structured, intellectually disciplined endeavor dedicated to the generation, refinement, and dissemination of knowledge. Moreover, such scholarly activity transcends individual academic advancement, forming the foundation for collective intellectual growth, societal progress, and evidence-based policy formulation. Consequently, research functions not merely as an academic undertaking, but as an indispensable mechanism for fostering innovation, critical reasoning, and informed decision-making in an increasingly complex global context.

In the continuity of intellectual practice, university professors have undertaken diverse studies and research endeavors, systematically drawing upon their expertise and accumulated knowledge. The Research Management Cell of Sanothimi Campus has, in recent years, prioritized the publication of *The Educational Journal* with the aim of systematically consolidating the ideas, reflections, empirical studies, and research endeavors of scholars, thereby contributing to the enrichment of the academic discourse.

In this issue, the journal includes a total of nine research-based articles — six written in English and three written in Nepali. These articles have been reviewed by subject-specific peer reviewers and published after necessary revisions and improvements. In shaping the current form of the journal, the contributions of the authors who provided their articles, the scholarly peer reviewers, the campus administration, staff, and other individuals who supported various technical aspects have been very significant. We extend our heartfelt thanks to all.

Editorial team

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Revisiting the Case Study Method in Social Research: A Reflective and Argumentative Review for Novice Researchers

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Abstract

This article provides a qualitative review of case study method in social research. The core purpose of this paper is to guide novice researchers in doing case study to explore complex social phenomenon. It begins by clarifying foundational concept of case study and its purpose. It highlights the historical evolution of case study research beginning from Frederic Le Play during 18th century to three key methodologists, Robert K. Yin, Robert E. Stake, and Sharan B. Merriam. It further presents definition, purpose, and philosophical stance of case study from these key philosophers' perspectives. Based on general qualitative research design it provides detailed exploration of philosophical underpinnings including ontology, epistemology and axiology to guides researcher on making better choice of design and interpretation of case studies. Key features that distinguish case study, like intensive focus on bounded system, holistic exploration, rich description, multiple sources of evidence, and flexibility in design types as defined by Yin and Stake are highlighted. Further, it provides the overview of data collection tools, analysis procedures, and strategical considerations to be followed. Finally, it examines this methodology critically to mention inherent challenges and limitation of case study. This paper integrates theoretical insight with methodological guidance that can serve as the foundational source for early-career researchers. It can be helpful to those researchers who wants to adopt or better understand case study method in social inquiry.

Keywords: *Qualitative research, case study, social research, novice researchers, reflective review*

Introduction

If you are trying to understand complex social phenomena, then a case study can be the best choice for you. Doing a case study is like taking a very close look at some specific situation, group, event, or person in its natural setting. This is an argumentative and reflective review on the case study method, where you will get an opportunity to explore its methodological foundation, philosophical orientation, and practical application. You will get to know how you can collect data while doing your case study research, along with how you can produce knowledge from your data using a case study-specific data analysis method. This paper will not only limit your understanding to its methodological details, rather you will also explore several challenges you might face while doing case study research. Also, it will provide some insight into the criticisms of the case study method. Now, let's begin with the meaning of the case study in the research world.

Methodology

This paper is based on general qualitative research design with aim to explore and reflect upon case study method. The focus of this study is to understand case study method in depth, diversity, and complexity drawing from ideas of several scholars. Descriptive method has been used to present key aspects of case study research including its origins, purpose, characteristics, variations in data collection and analysis and some interpretation. The data for this paper were gathered entirely from secondary sources. It includes published books; academic journal articles and credible online resources related to case study methodology. This paper provides multiple perspectives together from classical definitions to recent developments. For data analysis and interpretation, verbal and thematic analysis approach has been followed. It follows deeply interpretive and reflective process where we aimed to capture multiple aspects of case study methodology.

Understanding the Case Study in Research

Case study methodology is a cornerstone of qualitative research (Starman, 2013). It offers us an overwhelming approach to understand complex phenomena within our real-life context (Crowe et al., 2011). A case study enables us to perform in-depth analysis, understand phenomena within their real-world context, and derive rich interpretations from complex situations. It is a philosophically neutral methodology that can be used for both qualitative and quantitative research projects (Miller et al., 2023). Rather than being a basic or inferior one, it offers a strong and valuable way to explore complex issues, develop theories, and evaluate programs related to social sciences, education, and health services. At its core, a case study is a method that focuses on closely studying specific cases in detail. It is an in-depth investigation of a bounded system (case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time through detailed data collection from multiple sources.

What is the case?

A case represents a bounded system, an object of study (Johansson, 2007), or a unit of analysis (Patnaik & Pandey, 2019). Case binding in a case study defines the boundaries of a case, allowing researchers to stay focused and avoid too much information at once. Boundaries of a case can be defined based on time, place, activity, definition, and context, as explained by separate philosophers. We have extracted the way to define boundaries of a case in a different way from the paper by Njie and Asimiran (2014), and added one reflective example for each scenario for your better understanding (**Table 1**).

Table1
Defining Boundaries of the Case in a Case Study

Defining Case	Examples
By Time and Place (Creswell, 2003)	Studying the effectiveness of the smart classrooms in the ABC school from 2019-2023.
By Time and Activity (Stake, 1995)	Observing how students engage in reflective discussion forums on Moodle during one academic year.
By Definition and Context (Miles & Huberman, 1994)	A case is defined as "a synchronous online course conducted via Zoom" in the context of the university's ICT capacity-building project post-COVID-19.

Why is it necessary to bind our case?

While doing case study research, we must define the boundaries of our study. The boundary makes our study focused, doable, credible, and analytically clear. It helps in the prevention of scope creep means the researcher might try to study everything when there is no boundary. It helps us as researchers to ensure who, what, when, and where we are studying. Also, it helps our readers to understand the limits of our findings.

Intent of the Case Study Method

The fundamental intent of the case study methodology lies in the development of an in-depth, multifaceted, and holistic understanding of complex phenomena within a real-world context (Crowe et al., 2011; Njie & Asimiran, 2014). We can use a case study approach if we want to understand "what", "how," or "why" something happens in a real-life situation, particularly when it is complicated and hard to separate some phenomena from their surroundings. A crime investigation scenario is a prime example of a case study. It aims to explore what exactly happened, how the crime occurred, and why it was committed. So, the purpose and rationale of the case study method can be identified through different situations where we can use this approach.

It is especially useful when researchers seek to answer descriptive questions like what is happening or has happened. Or, more importantly, it can be used to answer explanatory questions like how or why something happened. A case study can also serve as a powerful tool for theory building, and rarely for theory testing as well (Coombs, 2022). We can use case studies to explore and develop new ideas about how things work, or to check if an existing idea is true in a real-life situation.

Also, it is very useful when the boundaries between context and phenomenon are not evident (Njie & Asimiran, 2014). It refers to the scenario where the thing we are studying (phenomenon) is deeply connected to its real-life setting or circumstances (the context). In such a situation, we can't understand that phenomenon properly without understanding its surrounding context. For example, if we want to study how a new teaching method affects student engagement, then our case could be a specific classroom (a bounded system). Here, the classroom can be the context, and how the teaching method affects engagement can be the phenomenon.

Overall, this method helps us to provide a holistic understanding of our research setting. It provides a rich and thick description of the phenomenon under study through multiple

sources. However, the actual intent of a case study can vary a little bit based on the introduction and its types, categorized by several key proponents.

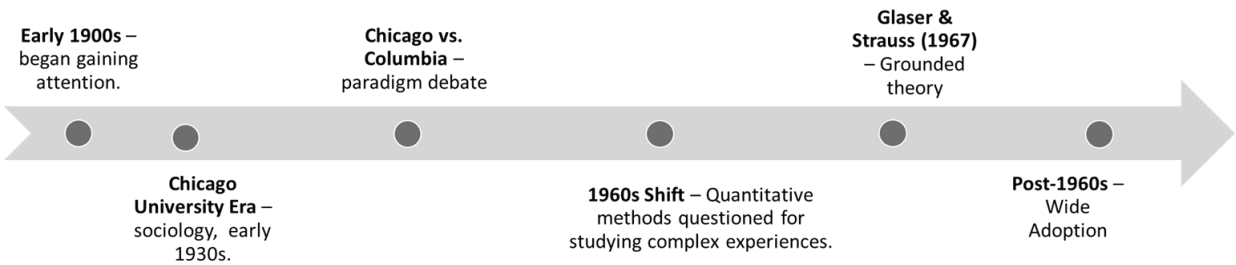
Tracing the Historical Evolution of Case Study

The root of the case study can be traced back to the 18th century when Frederic Le Play first introduced the case study approach to social science in 1829 (Freemantle, 2016). He has explored European working men, including 57 family case studies, in his book Les Ouvriers européens (Nair et al., 2023). It has started gaining popularity since the early 1900s. That time has reflected the emergence of a "first generation" of case studies, predominantly in anthropology and social sciences (Johansson, 2007). Chicago University has widely used qualitative case study research in sociology until quantitative methods became more prominent in the early 1930s. The paradigm debate between Chicago and Columbia universities has contributed to qualitative case study research losing some acceptance as a methodology. However, during the 1960s, researchers became concerned that quantitative methods could not be suitable for exploring the complex issues of personal experience.

Then, the "second generation" of case study methodology began to take shape in the late 1960s by bridging the gap between positivism and hermeneutics as philosophical foundations (Johansson, 2007). Hermeneutics views research as an interpretive journey into meaning and human experience. However, Positivism treats it more like a scientific quest for objective facts and measurable truths. This key evolution was guided by the emergence of the Grounded Theory of Glaser and Strauss in 1967. This work has used a case study methodology and helped the case study regain its popularity. Since the 1960s, case studies have been widely used in education for evaluating programs.

Figure:1

Historical Evolution of a Case Study



Source: (Miller et al., 2023)

Today, Robert K. Yin, Robert E. Stake, and Sharan B. Merriam are widely recognized as prominent methodologists for contemporary case study research (Patnaik & Pandey, 2019). **Table 2** lists the definitions of case study from different contributors along with their purpose, philosophical stance, and their generalizability.

Table2

Key Contributors of a Case Study

Contributors	Robert K. Yin	Robert E. Stake	Sharan B. Merriam
Definition	A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a phenomenon in depth and	Defines case study primarily by the researcher's intrinsic interest in individual cases.	A case study is an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a bounded phenomenon.

	within its real-life context.		
Purpose	For addressing "how" or "why" questions when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not evident.	Helps understand unique cases, gain insight into the issue and generalize that, and understand multiple cases jointly.	Focuses on a specific situation, provides rich descriptions, and illuminates the reader's understanding.
Philosophical Stance	Positivist philosophy that emphasizes objectivity, validity, and generalizability.	It aligns with constructivist epistemology that values multiple perspectives of reality.	Also adopts a constructivist orientation, leading to multiple interpretations of reality.
Generalization	Promotes analytical generalization than statistical generalization.	Not chosen for statistical but naturalistic generalizations.	It also focuses on naturalistic generalizations.

Source: (Njie & Asimiran, 2014; Miller et al., 2023; Yazan, 2015)

Philosophical Stance of a Case Study Research

Understanding the philosophical orientation, like ontology, epistemology, and axiology, is important for any research. It helps shape the chosen method and the interpretation of the findings. It can guide you towards the selection of topic, data collection and data analysis strategies.

Ontological Orientation

Ontology talks about the nature of reality (Aliyu et al., 2015). It answers questions like, what kind of world do we believe exists? It informs what a researcher believes can be known or is real in the world. The ontological foundation of case study research varies significantly depending on the researcher's philosophical orientation. Ontological beliefs, guided by Robert Yin's approach, can be referred to as realist ontology. It assumes that phenomena exist independently of our knowledge of them. They can be studied objectively through empirical inquiry. This is mostly an appropriate view for a researcher who wants to conduct their study following a post-positivist approach (Harrison et al., 2017).

However, most of the qualitative research ontological assumptions are guided by the idea of Robert Stake and Sharan Merriam. They view reality as socially constructed and contextually dependent. This ontological assumption often posits that reality is subjective and multiple, as constructed by individuals in various social and cultural contexts (Chowdhury & Shil, 2021). This idea contrasts with the assumptions of quantitative research. That focuses on the objective and singular reality. However, the constructive reality values the meanings and interpretations of participants. It emphasizes the subjective nature of experience. Also, it prioritizes the importance of multiple perspectives in social research.

Epistemological Orientation

Epistemology deals with our understanding of knowledge itself (Aliyu et al., 2015). It focuses on the nature of knowledge along with how it is acquired and how it is validated. The epistemological stance of the researcher has a direct impact on their methodological choices

and how they gather and interpret data. The epistemological orientation of the case study can lie between the positivist and interpretivist paradigms.

Yin's epistemological position demonstrates the mix of positivist and post-positivist philosophy. It emphasizes objectivity, validity, and generalizability (Yazan, 2015). Positivist researchers seek to identify patterns and relationships from data. The post-positivist philosophy accepts that knowledge is uncertain. However, it emphasizes the methodological rigor and triangulation to ensure the validity of knowledge.

However, Robert Stake and Merriam support epistemology for qualitative case study research. They argue for an interpretivist and constructivist orientation as a guiding philosophy for case study (Miller et al., 2023; Yazan, 2015). The constructivist epistemology believes that knowledge is primarily constructed rather than discovered. Researchers are the interpreters who gather data and present interpretations of constructed realities through research findings. It values naturalistic generalization of findings. This is to ensure the transferability of research over statistical generalization. Then, interpretivist researchers focus on understanding subjective influence and reflective practices. They believe that knowledge is an insight from participants' perspectives. They present it through rich and descriptive details in research reports. This thick description also supports the naturalistic generalization of research findings.

Axiological Orientation

The axiological consideration focuses on the role of value and ethics in research. It determines how researchers integrate value into their study. It places strong emphasis on the researcher's reflexivity to acknowledge and reduce personal biases. They should make sure that the study is fair. Yin's (2003) axiological assumptions emphasize the importance of being honest and truthful in research. Positivism and post-positivism follow methodological rigor to minimize bias and standard tools to collect objective data. However, the interpretivist and constructivist approaches acknowledge the value of the researcher in the case study (Boblin et al., 2013). It believes that the background, experience, and perspective of the researcher can shape their understanding of the case in the research.

The integration of ethics in case study research refers to maintaining confidentiality and respecting participants' rights (Crowe et al., 2011). It is about being careful while reporting sensitive information. Researchers must consider their responsibility to participants and communities while maintaining their scholarly integrity. In simple words, axiology of case study research guides researchers to make value-laden decisions. They should make decisions about what is important to investigate and how to conduct it ethically. They must also focus on how to present the research findings responsibly.

In short, the philosophical underpinnings of ontology, epistemology, and axiology are not only a theoretical consideration. But they are deeply integrated into the design and execution of case study research. It helps in making every decision from question formulation to data interpretation and reporting.

Major Features of the Case Study Method

The case study method possesses several distinctive features. All of which set it apart from other research approaches. The combination of these characteristics enables the unique contribution of a case study to understand complex phenomena.

Intensive focus on Bounded System

A core feature of a case study is that it investigates a bounded entity or bounded system, which is also called a case or the main unit of analysis (Njie & Asimiran, 2014). As we have

introduced in the beginning, boundaries of a case can be based on time, place, activity, or definition. Time-bound can refer to two scenarios, one is the time when we study it, like when we will start or stop it, and another can be the time when the thing we are studying happened. Further, a place, activity, or definition helps to clarify the context of study for its well-defined scope. Binding the case is necessary in any case study research to put parameters on our study and avoid being too broad. Cases for our study can be individuals, groups, organizations, events, programs, or communities, but we must define clear boundaries by mentioning what will be included and excluded from our investigation.

Holistic Exploration of Real-Life Context

A case study allows for in-depth, multi-faceted exploration of complex issues (Crowe et al., 2011). It investigates contemporary phenomena within their real-life context or naturalistic setting. The case study method aims for a holistic understanding from a system and context perspective. It considers the interplay between phenomena and the environment (Njie & Asimiran, 2014). From a system perspective, case studies examine the case as a whole, looking at the interaction and interconnectedness within the system. The context in which our case exists is vital to understanding it. So, it also focuses on contextual understanding.

Rich Description

The hallmark of the case study research is its richly descriptive nature (Patnaik & Pandey, 2019). Case studies are not superficial research studies, but they delve deeper into the subject matter to provide a detailed understanding and a vivid picture. A vivid picture refers to the presentation of data in a way that the reader can visualize people, setting, events, and interactions being studied. It's like painting a clear picture with words so the readers feel they were there or can understand it like a tangible story. Rich description in a case study helps readers understand the complexity of many variables that are inherent in the phenomenon being studied (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006).

Multiple Sources of Evidence (Triangulation)

A case study method utilizes multiple data sources and data collection methods. This multi-faceted approach is known as triangulation of data, which helps to confirm the findings (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Njie & Asimiran, 2014). It is about validating findings by checking them from different angles. During a case study, researchers must employ various techniques, including interviews, observations, document analysis, archival records, and physical artifacts, to develop a complete understanding of the case (Alpi & Evans, 2019; Salmons, 2021). It enhances the credibility of research findings.

Flexibility in Design Types

The case study research method offers various design types to suit different research purposes. Yin (2003) and Stake (1995) divide case studies into different forms based on research purpose, design structure, and research interest (Baxter & Jack, 2008).

Table3

Types of Case Study

Types	Subtypes	Description
By Research	Exploratory	Used to explore new or less understood situations to find out what is happening or generate new ideas.

Purpose (Yin, 2003)	Descriptive	Aims to describe a specific situation, event, or phenomenon in detail as it exists in its real context.
	Explanatory	Used to explain the reasons behind why something is happening by looking at the connection between different factors.
By Design Structure (Yin, 2003)	Single Case	Focuses on one specific, unique, extreme, or critical case.
	Multiple Case	Involves studying several cases and allows for comparison between cases or replication of findings across different settings.
	Embedded	A single or multiple case study, which allows the analysis of subunits of larger cases.
By Research Interest (Stake, 1995)	Intrinsic	Allows researchers to choose a topic that is interesting and unique to them. It is not to generate theory or generalization.
	Instrumental	Allows researchers to gain an understanding of a larger issue or question, where the case explains something broader. It also helps to refine theory.
	Collective	It is like a multiple case study defined by Yin (2003). It looks at multiple cases together to investigate a general phenomenon or condition across those cases.

All of these features collectively enable a case study to provide a comprehensive understanding of complex phenomena in their natural settings.

Particularistic and Heuristics

Case studies are particularistic as they focus on specific instances rather than seeking broad statistical generalizations (Harrison et al., 2017). An example can be a case study that explores how one school integrated STEAM into its curriculum. Because of the particularistic approach, the case study research is useful to explore unique or rare phenomena. Then, the term "heuristic nature" describes an open-ended, exploratory approach. Instead of theory building, it emphasizes learning, understanding, and gaining insight. It is beyond proving a specific hypothesis like in quantitative. Therefore, case study research is useful to explore unknown or poorly understood situations.

Data Collection Tools and Strategies

A case study follows multiple data collection tools and strategies to capture a holistic understanding of the phenomenon. Use of multiple sources of evidence to collect data enhances the trustworthiness of findings through triangulation. However, the research question, case features, and philosophical assumptions guide the selection of a particular approach. In a case study, interviews and observations are the most common data collection tools. But it can make use of other sources as well, like documents, archival records, physical artifacts, etc.

Interviews

Interviews are the most common source of data in a case study, which allows researchers to gather personalized and in-depth information about participants' experiences of an event (Crowe et al., 2011; Hancock & Algozzine, 2006; Patnaik & Pandey, 2019). It can range from informal to semi-structured interviews guided by a predefined purpose and research

question. First, researchers must prepare an interview guideline based on the purpose of the study. Then, they must obtain informed consent and ensure the confidentiality of participants. Researchers must focus on collecting knowledge, reasons, or opinions related to the case during the interview. They should encourage their participants to share their understanding of the case in depth and detail. With consent, they should also record an interview for data analysis later. And, they cannot violate ethical protection while conducting interviews.

Observations

Observation refers to the method where we can directly visualize real-life context and record it. Observations provide researchers with firsthand data about interactions, behaviors, and environmental factors within a case setting (Alpi & Evans, 2019). It collects more objective information about the research setting, unlike an interview, which collects perceptions of participants. Data can be collected through formal protocols or informal field notes during observation. Participant observation requires researchers to immerse themselves in the environment where their case exists (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006). It helps them gather insider perspectives on the phenomenon under study. It helps researchers to understand the case from the viewpoint of participants, as it allows them to observe actual behavior and interaction in natural settings. However, researchers require skills and persistence for meaningful observation. They must clarify their goals, explain the study purpose to participants, gain their trust, and be able to immerse themselves in the field.

Document Analysis

Analysis of the document involves a systematic review of those written materials that are relevant to the case. Documents can take many forms, including reports, correspondence, meeting minutes, policy documents, and media coverage (Alpi & Evans, 2019; Patnaik & Pandey, 2019). These documents are analyzed using a qualitative thematic analysis approach. The researchers must identify patterns and themes that are useful for the study from the documents (Miller et al., 2023). Researchers can understand the historical context and other information that exists related to the case. Findings from document analysis can complement the data collected through interviews and observations.

Archival Records

Archival records are an important source of data for case study research (Yazan, 2015). Archival records provide historical data related to our study. It can provide longitudinal understanding of the case. Or, it can complement other data sources through a different viewpoint on the same phenomenon. However, researchers must assess the authenticity of any documents and archival records before extracting something from them. They must consider who created that, why, when, and whether they can have any potential biases for the current study or not (Nair et al., 2023).

Physical Artifacts

Physical artifacts represent tangible evidence within the case. It includes tools, equipment, notebooks, computer output, artworks, and other physical evidence (Tellis, 1997). It provides insight into the case environment and culture. Although it is used very rarely, it can offer unique perspectives on the phenomenon under investigation.

Things to Consider During Data Collection

Along with using multiple data sources, researchers must consider different strategies during data collection. They must follow purposeful sampling, data saturation, access, ethics, and reflexive data collection. Purposive sampling helps in the selection of useful data sources

and participants. It helps to provide relevant information about the case and to address the research questions of the study. Data saturation defines the sufficiency of data. In case of qualitative research, the number of interviews and observations, or document analysis, can't be fixed in advance. The researcher must continue collecting data until the themes and ideas start repeating. It ensures the sufficiency of data to address the issue selected.

While working in sensitive settings, researchers must consider access and ethics. These components have a direct influence on how researchers collect data. Researchers must follow ethical guidelines and protect the confidentiality of their participants. Further, while collecting data ongoing reflection of the researcher can have a significant influence on the generation of data. The reflexivity of researchers helps them to understand their role and how it might affect the response from participants. It helps maintain bias in data collection.

There are three key principles of data collection in a case study, as suggested by Yin (1994):

1. Using multiple data sources
2. Creating a database for a case study
3. Maintaining the flow of evidence

Use of multiple sources helps in the triangulation of data. It increases the trustworthiness of research findings. The data collected from sources during case study research should be organized and documented in an allocated database. All types of sources utilized for data collection, data collected through interviews and observations, must be stored in a specific folder. It should be recorded in a way that the evidence can be tracked step by step in a sequential order. In one way, it will be useful during the data analysis phase, and in another way, it helps all co-researchers to access evidence without ambiguity.

Data Analysis Strategies

Data analysis in a case study is an iterative and complex process that occurs concurrently with the data collection process (Baškarada, 2014). In quantitative methods, we can make use of statistical tools, automated algorithms, and routine procedures for data analysis. However, it is a different scenario for case study analysis. It demands researchers to go through the data multiple times, identify patterns, define codes, and logically piece together coded evidence into broader themes for meaning-making. Data analysis in a case study involves reviewing, organizing, summarizing, and restructuring the evidence to address the research questions (Yin, 1994). In the case study, there is no fixed, rigorous process of data analysis, as different scholars have identified data analysis procedures in different ways. This paper will provide in-depth insight into the idea presented by Morse (1994) as illustrated by Houghton et al. (2015).

Four-Stage Analysis Framework

Morse (1994) provides a four-stage comprehensive structure for case study data analysis – comprehending, synthesizing, theorizing, and recontextualizing (Houghton et al., 2015). *Comprehending* begins during data collection to gather enough data for a full, detailed, and vivid description. It is about organizing and becoming familiar with data. As researchers collect data through interviews and observations, they should start making sense of it. Then they can start looking for broad ideas and give labels to the chunks of information, which are called codes. This phase is also identified as "Broad Coding" by Miles and Huberman (1994). Then researchers can start making an interpretation of what is going on, who said that, and what it means. While doing coding, they must link that to the research goal, so that it can help to identify patterns and write thick descriptions later.

Once the data is broadly coded, the next step is *synthesizing*. It is about going deeper to find connections and patterns across different parts of the data. The researchers can think of it like a puzzle. As they have already identified the code from the initial phase, now they must see which pieces of code fit together to make a bigger, clearer picture. It can be achieved by a process called pattern coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994). It is the process of creating new codes for ideas that appear again and again in the data. Writing a memo is another way of synthesizing (Houghton et al., 2015). Memos are like mini summaries or reflections that researchers write to capture their thoughts and interpretation when they analyze the data. Later, it helps connect the codes and ideas to draw a bigger conclusion. This phase takes more time than others and requires careful thinking. But it is the phase where the real insight of the case starts to take shape. Overall, this phase is about the identification of patterns and themes.

After identifying common patterns in data, the third step is *theorizing*. It is about the development of explanations and theoretical insights. It is not about developing a theory but trying to understand how things are related. In this step researcher looks at how different themes relate to one another. And, how these connections help explain the bigger issue or question. Researcher reviews memos, sorts them, and tests them against actual data to make sure that they truly reflect what people said. It means theorizing is about trying to bring everything together, like events, actions, and interactions, so that we can understand the whole picture of the case clearly (Miles & Huberman, 1994). It is a very thoughtful process in data analysis.

Finally, the last phase is *recontextualizing*. It is about relating findings to broader contexts and implications. The researcher thinks about how the findings can be related to other settings, people, and situations (Houghton et al., 2015). Researchers compare their findings to past research as well. The major aim of this stage is to make findings useful and transferable (Morse, 1994). It adds depth, relevance, and impact to the research.

Although these steps of data analysis have been explained in different ways but it is related to contemporary analytical approaches. The approach of Morse (1994) indirectly reflects how the popular qualitative data analysis method, like thematic analysis, follows. Thematic analysis involves identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns or themes within case study data. Nowadays, computer-assisted analysis can also be done through software packages like NVivo, ATLAS.ti, etc. (Houghton et al., 2015). These tools facilitate the data organization, coding, retrieval, and analysis, and help maintain transparency in the analysis process. Researchers can also employ charts, matrices, and graphical displays for visual data analysis (Atkinson, 2002). It helps researchers to organize information systematically. And they can identify connections that might be complex to understand through text analysis alone. During data analysis also researchers must consider several strategies to enhance the trustworthiness of findings and to minimize potential biases. Some of the strategies can be triangulation, member checking, and peer debriefing.

Challenges and Limitations

From all the features and capabilities, we have realized the significant strengths and versatility of case study research. Despite that, researchers following a case study might face several challenges and limitations. They might face concerns regarding limited generalizability, lack of methodological rigor, and bias-related concerns. But they must try to address those issues to ensure the trustworthiness of their findings.

Limited Statistical Generalizability

A most popular and significant criticism of case study is that it is impossible to generalize findings from an individual case to a larger population (Patnaik & Pandey, 2019; Chowdhury & Shil, 2021). Findings from single or a small number of cases may not apply to

broader populations or different contexts. Statistical generalization is not possible, as in quantitative studies. However, analytical generalization is possible in a case study (Starman, 2013). Analytical generalization uses findings from a case study to help build or test theories about how things work in similar theoretical situations, but not to make claims about everyone.

Lack of Methodological Rigor

Case study research is also criticized for a perceived lack of rigor due to a lack of systematic procedure and standardized approaches (Miller et al., 2023). This criticism stems from an inappropriate comparison with quantitative, statistical methods (Patnaik & Pandey, 2019). Quantitative studies can be considered methodologically rigorous due to their careful consideration of sample selection to see if the findings apply to the group. However, a qualitative study maintains rigor differently by exploring a situation in depth and detail. Researchers follow a clear and organized plan for collecting and analyzing data. It helps them maintain the sequence of evidence, so that they can clarify how they reached their findings.

Subjectivity and Researcher Bias Concern

Researchers get deeply immersed in the case environments while doing a case study. There is regular deep interaction between researchers and cases. It might create an opportunity for researchers to present their personal opinions and preferences during data collection, analysis, and interpretation. So, there is a concern that researchers' own beliefs and assumptions might shape the results of the study (Priya, 2020). They can look for evidence that supports what they already believe or expect. But doing this can weaken the trustworthiness of research findings. Triangulation and researchers' reflexivity are mandatory to address this issue. Triangulation uses multiple data sources and data collection methods to enhance credibility. And reflexivity alerts researchers to stay away from their biases. Researchers must acknowledge their biases and ensure transparency of case study research.

Conclusion

A case study is a powerful and flexible research approach. It provides valuable insight into complex phenomena within their natural context. From its origin with Frédéric Le Play to its evolution into a sophisticated form, it has become more adaptable for multiparadigmatic inquiry. Key methodologists including Yin, Stake, and Merriam provide diverse viewpoints and flexibility in case study research methodology to explore social phenomenon. The major intent of a case study is to explore "how" and "why" questions within real-life bounded systems. The philosophical underpinnings, like ontology, epistemology, and axiology, shape how researchers plan and carry out case studies. It incorporates several key features like multiple data sources, a holistic approach, in-depth investigation of context, rich description, particularistic and heuristic, and flexibility in its design types etc. It has several challenges, like limited generalizability, complexity of data management, need for addressing methodological rigor, and researcher bias. But these limitations can be reduced through an established systematic procedure. As research is becoming more interdisciplinary and context-focused nowadays, the case study can be very useful in this evolution. It helps bring together different types of data, explore complex connections, and create theories that others can learn from.

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Students' Attitude Towards Interactive Demonstration Methods in Physical Education

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Abstract

This study was carried out to analyze the students' attitude towards interactive demonstration methods in physical education. The necessary information was taken from the eleven-community secondary school's students of the Kathmandu Valley. This study was based on descriptive research design. The majority of the responses were found to be associated with the statement that disagrees and strongly disagrees. The range of disagreeing and strongly disagree responses was 20.8-42.8% for the statement of sports skills test. These were all together 73.3% as the strong responses out of 120 students. It was found that the student has slightly negative responses towards the statements of sports skill test. Similarly, the chi-square value was 53.58, 103.0, 100.2, 75.86 and 90.16 respectively. The p-value for all statements was 0.000 which was less than that of the 0.05 level of significance with the degree of freedom 4. This indicated that there was a significant difference between the observed scores and the expected scores of the respondents.

***Keywords**: Achievement, Sports, Skills, Demonstration, Interactive, Learning, Test*

Introduction

Demonstration method is one of the important teaching techniques for providing actual skill and strategies of physical education by combining oral explanation (Nation, 2008). Interactive demonstrations methods are most useful and effective for enabling new skills and techniques of physical education and sports. It is introduced by Winning in 2011. He pointed out that by systematically addressing the various levels of inquiry learning like discovery learning, interactive demonstrations, inquiry lessons, inquiry labs, and hypothetical inquiry as to the inquiry spectrum. Thus, introduced the implementation of demonstrations into an interaction-based activity that is currently being developed by Wenning (Gross, 2002 as cited in Triayomi, 2019). Hassard and Dias (2005) illustrated that physical education should be active, experiential, constructivist, address prior knowledge, and include cooperative and collaborative work. Based on these instructions, an interactive demonstration method is generally implemented by a teacher in the Physical Education (PE) classroom (Wenning & Khan, 2011). In an interactive demonstration method, students are engaged in explanation and prediction-making that allows the teacher to elicit, identify, confront, and resolve alternative conceptions by addressing prior knowledge. Interactive demonstrations engage students in activities that meet their prior understanding of actual skills ant techniques (Triayomi, 2019).

Teaching physical education in Nepal is dominated through the theoretical aspect so that classroom teaching is not related to real-life situations of the students (Acharya, 2016). The practice of a rigid approach for teaching PE makes students feel boring and thus they are sure to memorize the reading materials. PE teachers are more theoretically driven, PE classrooms are less interactive and collaborative (Triayomi, 2019). The traditional methods and techniques are often adopted as methodological approaches to dealing with the PE concepts. Therefore, the interactive demonstration method has been a dire need in the PE classrooms of the schools of Nepal. Another concern is the size of the class in Nepalese schools.

The class size cannot be maintained by the individual interest of the teacher. It leads the teachers to apply the conventional methods including the lecture method of teaching. Since mass teaching practice is widely used in PE classrooms (Rani, 2017), the traditional role of teacher, mainly as the source of knowledge and sole decision-maker of the teaching-learning process is specified. The students are more controlled and they act as the passive recipients of the contents that the teachers expose. It not only discourages the interactive teaching practices in PE classrooms but also seriously affects the consciousness-raising of the students (Freire, 2008).

In the context of teaching-learning of physical education, this is the fact that the teacher has a central role in classroom teaching. The classroom interactions are less encouraged by the teachers as well as school administrators. Students are the passive listeners and the teacher is supposed to pour his/her knowledge into the empty vessels i.e. passive students. In classroom teaching and the learning situation, the PE teacher is usually found to be a problem solver and bank of knowledge. In meaningful learning, students can think that what they learn about, apply it in daily life situations, seek to connect future learning, and can continue to learn independently (Darling-Hammond et al., 2020). Teaching in such a way supports less classroom talk, interaction, and thinking. Students in schools are arranged in orderly and systematic rows in the classroom (Naution, 2008). The manipulation of meaningless words and symbols is found in the classroom similar to the students who are passive learners. The common practice is that students are forced to revise the same problems many times. The science classroom environment and real-life situations seem to be isolated because "most of the PE classrooms do not deal with basic concepts" (Williams, 2017) and "without linking on the real-life problems" (Rohandi, 2017).

The national curriculum framework (2019) has clearly stated that modern PE teaching in school education should create a conducive learning environment in schools. Schools should have the necessary ground and sports equipment so that the learners can learn sports skills and behavior in practical situations. As well, it has pronounced to link the PE contents and techniques to the everyday life of the children. However, the implementation of these ideals is far distant in different schools in Nepal. In poorly managed institutional schools and also community schools of the nation, PE teaching is not in action as in the expectations expressed in the curriculum. On the one hand, the contents, and classroom teaching-learning practices are still theoretically driven.

Similarly, the schools lack the necessary infrastructure as well as a good social and psychological environment. Students often experience diverse forms of social and cultural discrimination on the ground of caste, gender, poverty, disability, and regional background (Freire, 2008). Whether in the case of curriculum updating, or that of teaching-learning methods applied in the classrooms, or that of teacher expertise, or that of the curriculum implementation in the classrooms, there are serious problems. Similarly, the low performance of students in physical education and sports is a problem in secondary school.

Methodology

This research is based on descriptive research design. The populations of this study were 120 students selected from 460 students with the help of purposive sampling method from eleven community secondary school of Kathmandu Valley. Researcher had applied sports skills test and attitude scale with a 5-point Likert scale (strongly agree, agree undecided, partially disagree, and strongly disagree) for data collection. After collecting the data, the result was presented on percentage, standard deviation, t-test, correlation and chi-square test with the help of SPSS 20.

Results and Discussion

Interactive demonstration method is a method of providing lessons by exhibiting and demonstrating with explanation. It is a method of teaching by demonstrating things, events, rules, and sequences of activities, techniques of games and sports.

Table 1

Students' attitude towards interactive demonstrative methods of physical education

S.N	Statements	Responses									
		SA	%	A	%	UD	%	D	%	SD	%
1	I Like Physical Education	5	4.1	8	6.6	15	12.5	51	42.5	41	34.1
2	I feel nervous in PE class.	28	23.3	47	39.1	5	4.1	30	25	10	8.3
3	We do a lot of fun activities in PE class.	14	11.6	11	9.1	18	15	39	32.5	37	30.8
4	We cover interesting topics in PE class.	5	4.1	10	8.3	24	20	34	28.3	47	39.1
5	I love spending my free time playing games.	14	11.6	19	15.8	12	10	35	29.1	40	33.3

SA= Strongly Agree; A = Agree; UD=undecided; D = Partially Disagree; SD = Strongly Disagree.

Above table shows that 62 percent responses of the students had to be found that strongly agree and agree with the statement I feel nervous in the PE class of the sports skill test. For example, 23.3 to 39.1% of responses were strongly agreed and agree with this statement. These were all together 62.4% responses out of 120 students. The statement of the attitude scale was I like physical education. We do a lot of fun activities in physical education class. We cover interesting topics in physical education class and I love spending my free time playing games and sports. The majority of the responses were found associated with the statement disagree and strongly disagree. The range of disagreeing and strongly disagree responses was 28.3-39% for the statement of attitude scale. These were all together 76.6% as

the strong responses out of 120 students. This shows that students have slightly negative responses to the statement of sports skill test.

Table 2
Analysis of Attitude towards learning physical education

S.N	Statements	Responses									
		SA	%	A	%	UD	%	D	%	SD	%
1	To participate in PE class activities is interesting	3	2.5	9	7.5	20	16.6	37	30.8	51	42.5
2	I usually ask many questions in the PE class	24	20	11	9.1	16	13.3	44	36.6	25	20.8
3	My best friends like physical education.	24	20	17	14.1	17	14.1	26	21.6	36	30
4	Sports skill tests make me afraid.	43	35.8	25	20.8	17	14.1	7	5.8	28	23.3

Table 2 shows that the students' attitudes towards physical education at the secondary level. The statement to participate in physical education class activities is interesting. The majority of the responses were found to be associated with the statement that disagrees and strongly disagrees. The range of disagreeing and strongly disagree responses was 20.8-42.8% for the statement of sports skills test. These were all together 73.3% as the strong responses out of 120 students. This shows that students have slightly positive (56.6) response to the statement of sports skill test.

Table 3
Analysis of Chi-square Value regarding students' attitude towards learning physical education

S.N.	Statements	Responses					χ^2	Df.	Sig.
		SA	A	Ud	D	Sd			
1	I Like Physical Education	5	8	15	51	41	71.50	4	0.000
2	I feel nervous in PE class.	28	47	5	30	10	47.41	4	0.000
3	We do a lot of fun activities in PE class.	14	11	18	39	37	56.60	5	0.000
4	We cover interesting topics in PE class.	5	10	24	34	47	49.41	4	0.000

5	I love spending my free time playing games.	14	19	12	35	40	26.91	4	0.000

The analysis of the chi-square value regarding students' attitude towards learning physical education is presented in table 3. It shows that statement, students' responses chi-square value, p-value, and degree of freedom for the chi-square statistics. The chi-square value of statements 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 were 71.50, 47.41, 56.60, 49.41 and 26.91 respectively. The p-value for all statements was 0.000 which was less than that of the 0.05 level of significance with the degree of freedom 4, 4, 5, 4, and 4. This indicated that there was a significant difference between the observed scores and the expected scores of the respondents. Thus, there was an association between the performance scores of students and their responses regarding test items.

Table 4
Analysis of Chi-square Value regarding students 'attitude towards learning physical education

S.N.	Statements	Responses					χ^2	Df.	Sig.
		SA	A	Ud	D	Sd			
1	I am an Interactive Learner	5	13	22	28	52	53.58	4	.000
2	I remember things I see more than things I read	4	5	10	43	58	103.0	4	.000
3	Demon help me understand concepts.	6	2	11	47	54	100.2	4	.000
4	Demonstration activities in class help me pay attention more.	3	-	11	45	61	75.86	4	.000
5	I enjoy class more when demonstration activities are shown.	8	5	9	43	55	90.16	4	.000

Table 4 presents the analysis of the chi-square value regarding students' attitude towards learning chemistry. It consists of statements, students' responses chi-square value, p-value, and degree of freedom for the chi-square statistics. The chi-square value of statements 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 were 53.58, 103.0, 100.2, 75.86 and 90.16 respectively. The p-value for all statements was 0.000 which was less than that of the 0.05 level of significance with the degree of freedom 4. This indicated that there was a significant difference between the observed scores and the expected scores of the respondents.

Table 5
Analysis of correlation between attitude and achievement

Variables/ Correlation		Achievements	Attitude towards learning PE	Attitude towards PE students	Attitude towards sports activity	Attitude towards teaching method
Some Sports	Pearson correlation	1	.103	.156	.226*	.225*
	Sig.	.	.263	.090	.013	.013
Attitude towards learning PE	Pearson correlation	.103	1	.153	.179*	.193*
	Sig.	.263	.	.096	.050	.034
Attitude towards PE students	Pearson correlation	.156	.153	1	.452*	.354*
	Sig.	.090	.096	.	.000	.000
Attitude towards PE	Pearson correlation	.226*	.179*	.452*	1	.289*
	Sig.	.013	.050	.000	.	.001
Attitude towards teaching method	Pearson correlation	.225*	.193*	.354*	.289*	1
	Sig.	.013	.034	.000	.001	.
	N.	120	120	120	120	120

*: significant correlation at 0.05

Table 5 presents the correlation between the students' attitudes and achievement regarding some skills. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship. The value computed as, (r) = 0.452, n= 120, p= 0.000. Since Pearson's Correlation Value (r) was 0.452 it shows that attitude towards sports activity and achievement scores of students have a positive correlation. Similarly, value computed as, (r) = 0.225, n= 120, p= 0.013. Since Pearson's Correlation Value (r) was 0.225 it shows that attitude toward the teaching method and achievement score of students have a positive correlation. The p-value of both attitude scores is less than that of the 0.05 level of significance. This shows that there was a significant relationship existed between attitudes towards extracurricular activities, teaching methods, and achievement scores of students. But the attitude towards PE and PE students was positively correlated with the achievement score of students at the secondary level. It means, the attitude towards PE has a significant impact on the achievement score of students in some skills.

Table 6
Analysis of correlation between attitudes towards interactive demonstration methods.

Variables/ Correlation		Achievements	Attitude towards learning PE	Attitude towards PE students	Attitude towards sports activity	Attitude towards teaching method
Achievements	Pearson correlation	1	0.082	.025		.190*
	Sig.	.	.375	.783		.037
	N.	120	120	120		120
Attitude towards learning PE	Pearson correlation	0.082	1	.153		.179*
	Sig.	.375	.	.096		.050
	N.	120	120	120		120
Attitude towards PE students	Pearson correlation	025	.153	1		.452*
	Sig.	.783	.096	.		.000
	N.	120	120	120		120
Attitude towards sports activity	Pearson correlation	.190*	.179*	.452*		1
	Sig.	.037	.050	.000		.
	N.	120	120	120		120
Attitude towards teaching method	Pearson correlation	.104	.193*	.354*		.289*
	Sig.	.260	.034	.000		.001
	N.	120	120	120		120

*: Significant correlation at 0.05

Table 6 shows the correlation between the students' attitudes and achievement scores. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship. The value computed as, (r) = 0.190, n= 120, p= 0.037. Since Pearson's Correlation Value (r) was 0.19 it shows that the attitude towards sports activity and achievement scores of students have a positive correlation. Similarly, value computed as, (r) = 0.354, n= 120, p= 0.000. Since Pearson's Correlation Value (r) was 0.354 it shows that attitude toward the teaching method and achievement score of students have a positive correlation. The p-value of both attitude scores is less than that of the 0.05 level of significance. This shows that there was a significant relationship existed between attitudes towards sports activities, teaching methods, and achievement scores of students.

Discussion

A huge number of students showed their anxiety in the masses of the PE classes 62.4% of them accepting or strongly accepting the statement. This is consistent with previous research which indicates that traditional PE classes in Nepal are usually led by theoretical, rigid, and teacher-centered instruction. In such classes students are passive recipients rather than active participants in their learning (Acharya, 2016; Freire, 2008). Furthermore, the students' lack of engagement, as reported, is indicative of the systemic problem of the enormous size of the classes, the scarcity of resources, and the insufficient training of the teachers, as referred to by Rani (2017) and Wenning & Khan (2011). Those conditions limit the appropriate realization of the active and student-centered techniques such as interactive demonstration method.

Though the interactive demonstration techniques have great pedagogical potential, students' answers to questions such as "We do a lot of fun activities in PE" and "We cover interesting topics" were mostly negative. This is quite worrying, as it is revealed from the research that interactive demonstrations are designed to improve student interest, attention, and retention by making the connection between students' prior knowledge and real-life situations (Triayomi, 2019; Hassard & Dias, 2005). The gap between the desired results and student understanding may imply a deficit in the genuine integration of interactive demonstration method in the practice, thereby confirming Wenning's (2011) argument that even the most brilliantly designed interactive methods will not result in meaningful learning if facilitation is not provided and teachers are not adequately prepared to work with them.

Besides that, the positive and significant chi-square values throughout all the statements related to attitudes indicate students' considerably inconsistent feelings about their experience of PE. The statistical results ($p < 0.05$) demonstrate that the attitudes which are observed differ significantly from those which are expected if the classroom is engaging and participatory. The same thing can be seen in the findings of Darling-Hammond et al. (2020), who state that real learning is the one that students are autonomous, interact with each other, and, the most important part, have the possibility of practically applying the knowledge obtained all these elements, however, are mostly absent in the classrooms for PE in Nepal.

This study corroborates the wider literature, which claims that positive student attitudes, nurtured through interactive, enjoyable, and student-centered learning, correlate with improved academic and skill-based outcomes (Bailey et al., 2009; Kirk, 2010). For example, the positive relation between sports activity pleasure and achievement ($r = 0.190$, $p = 0.037$) points to the fact that those students who see PE as meaningful and fun will probably perform better, and this is in accordance with the socio-ecological understanding of physical activity engagement (Sallis et al., 2009)

Therefore, the findings highlight a critical need to bridge the theory-practice divide in PE instruction. Teacher training programs should emphasize the application of interactive demonstration method and related participatory strategies, supported by adequate infrastructure and policy enforcement. Without such systemic reforms, student attitudes toward PE are unlikely to improve, limiting their physical, social, and cognitive development through sports education.

Conclusion

This interactive demonstration methods are growing international recognition that interactive pedagogy is necessary for skill acquisition and motivation. Nepalese PE classes are still stuck with traditional teacher centered approach. The main causes of unimplemented interactive demonstration methods due to systemic barriers like overcrowded classrooms, lack of sports infrastructure and rigid curriculum practices that hindered the implementation of

experiential student-centered PE instruction. So, teachers should be trained in interactive demo methods that promote student participation, real life application and inquiry-based learning. The sharing of experience between facilitator and trainees takes place through the demonstration. When facilitator demonstrates and explains about new skills and techniques of physical education while students watching and listening and learning easily.

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Antenatal Care (ANC) Check-up Frequency Among Mothers in Salyan, Nepal

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Abstract

This study analyses the experiences of antenatal care (ANC) use amongst the rural women in Salyan district, Nepal. A cross-sectional survey was conducted, and a systematic random sampling strategy was employed with mothers chosen by selecting every fifth case (sampling interval k=5) from a total of 1,610 eligible participants with children aged less than five years; data was analyzed through chi-square statistical procedure to identify the relationship between ANC attendance and demographic or household characteristics, which consisted of parity, maternal age, the level of education and occupation held by husband, as well as food security within the household. Findings exposed that the receipt of ANC depended on each of these aspects. Specifically, husband-related factors were notable: mothers whose husbands had secondary or higher schooling participated in almost all ANC visits (55 within 20) compared to Mothers whose husbands were non-educated. The effect of occupational status was also moderate. Still, in this case, 50 percent of the mothers whose husbands were in business services had attended four or above ANC visits compared to 10 percent of the mothers whose husbands worked in agriculture. Household economic stability also played an important role; women in food-secure homes were almost four times more likely to get four or above ANC visits compared to those on food insecurity (45 percent versus 15 percent). Lastly, another powerful variable was known as parity mother having 4 or more children was less likely to attend at least two ANC visits as compared to a mother

having just one child (40 percent and 20 percent, respectively). All these findings show the importance of the involvement of male partners, economic security, and para-specific issues in determining the health-seeking behavior of women. The policymakers should consequently go beyond clinical-service provision to address systematic socioeconomic forms of subjection, food stabilization, and adaptation.

Keywords: *Antenatal-Care, check-up, economy, health, stabilization*

Introduction

Antenatal care (ANC) forms one of the key components of maternal health services and includes clinical examinations, health education programs, and selective screenings aimed at protecting the health of mothers and their babies (World Health Organization, WHO, 2016). The body of literature shows the same trends since high-quality ANC leads to decreased rates of maternal and neonatal deaths (WHO, 2016). However, the consumption of such services differs significantly across different contexts in the world, especially in rural areas in less developed countries, where there is nominal consumption of such services. They are especially extreme in Nepal, and the frequent non-use of health facilities leads to the fact that the country has one of the highest maternal death rates in South Asia (UNICEF, 2018). In spite of the countrywide efforts to enhance maternal health, sociodemographic disparities in the ANC coverage still exist (Koirala et al., 2019). This discovery implies that policymakers at a macro-level are not fully capable of addressing localized obstacles embedded in the socioeconomic status, cultural norms, and geography (Gautam et al., 2020).

The combination of the same usually limits ANC usage in certain areas like the Salyan District (Gautam et al., 2020). These sociodemographic factors, namely, the maternal age, the level of education, the educational status of spouses, the family size, and the food security of the household, were characterized as key determinants of ANC attendance prevalence time and again in the literature (Koirala et al., 2019; Gautam et al., 2020; Subedi & Paudel, 2017). Systemic inhibitors are more complicated and present as a combination of these variables that do not work alone but act mutually, hindering the ability of women to get involved in or follow, proposed treatment (Gautam et al., 2020). It is, therefore, validated that an understated comprehension of these determinants is necessary to plan contextual interventions (Koirala et al., 2019). Sociodemographic factors affecting ANC Utilization. Maternal education turns out to be the most decisive factor in the ANC use (Gautam et al., 2020; Koirala et al., 2019). At higher levels of education, women are more health literate and understand the need for ANC regular checkups and are likely to enjoy the process, making prompt decisions concerning themselves and the unborn child (Gautam et al., 2020). Higher educational advantage correlates with an even higher possibility of giving birth to a child in an institution (Koirala et al., 2019). On the other hand, less educated women might not have the knowledge about the ANC appointment frequency necessity comprehensively, which makes them not attend the visits regularly or miss them (Koirala et al., 2019).

The respective spouses' level of education also plays a significant role, especially when it comes to the patriarchal settings whereby decisions in a home are frequently initiated by the husbands (Koirala et al., 2019). Research evidence indicates that husbands with elevated educational level have a positive relationship with promoting ANC visitation in their spouses (Koirala et al., 2019). Equally, husbands with low educational levels are associated with reduced ANC visits, which could show the low awareness about the importance of maternal health services

(Gautam et al., 2020). The financial stability of households, which can even be assessed by the parameters of food security, has a significant impact on ANC intake (Subedi & Paudel, 2017). ANC frequency is reduced during family food insecurity, where focus is set on subsistence rather than preventive treatment (Subedi & Paudel, 2017). Independent households (with good food security and larger financial assets), on the other hand, are much more prepared to sustain direct and indirect healthcare expenses, including transportation and workday loss, thereby enabling ANC attendance to become more regular (Subedi & Paudel, 2017).

Healthcare-seeking behaviors are also affected by cultural beliefs and gender norms: in specific communities, it is profitable not to use formal medical services as a part of traditional practices (WHO, 2016). Such campaigns targeting to increase the level of maternal health knowledge among women and men are successful in increasing the ANC attendance by challenging supposed norms and encouraging modern medical care (WHO, 2016). Even though the precedent research can correlate the given broad-minded associations in Nepal, negligible studies exist on how these sociodemographic aspects interact with each other concerning the ANC check-up frequency in the Salyan district. This makes the research gap that exists today to be addressed in the present study, by carrying out a thorough examination of determinants in this rural setup that will guide the formulation of specific, evidence-based health policies.

Methods

This study employed a cross-sectional survey design to examine the factors associated with Antenatal Care (ANC) utilization among rural women in the Salyan district of Nepal. The target population consisted of mothers with children under the age of five. A systematic random sampling technique was used for participant selection. From a complete list of 1,610 eligible mothers (the total population), a sample size of 322 was obtained by selecting every 5th mother on the list (sampling interval k=5) after a random start. Data were collected on the frequency of ANC presence (dependent variable) and several independent variables, including parity, maternal age, husband's educational level and occupation, and household food security. The chi-square (χ^2) test was used to analyze the statistical association between these variables and ANC presence.

Results and Discussion

The social data that are subject to study records a sample group that starts to engage in reproduction too early and has a significant gender imbalance in educational achievement. In particular, about 40.1 percent of women married before the age of 18, when it is permitted by law, which is reflected in later achievement of education, and, in its turn, is associated with childbearing at comparatively early age: 50.0 percent of respondents stated that their first child was born before they reached 20 years of age.

Table 2

Sociodemographic and Reproductive Characteristics of Respondents

Characteristic	Category	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Mother’s Education	No Formal Education	115	35.7
	Primary Education	120	37.3

	Secondary Education	75	23.3
	Higher Education	12	3.7
Father's Education	No Formal Education	85	26.4
	Primary Education	105	32.6
	Secondary Education	92	28.6
	Higher Education	40	12.4
Age at Marriage	< 18 years	129	40.1
	18 -20 years	113	35.1
	21-24 years	48	14.9
	≥ 25 years	32	9.9
Age at First Birth	< 20 years	161	50.0
	20 -24 years	113	35.1
	25-29 years	32	9.9
	≥ 30 years	16	5.0
Total Number of Children	1 child	110	34.2
	2-3 children	162	50.3
	≥ 4 children	50	15.5
Total		322	100.0

The social-demographical characteristics of the 322 participants provide some interesting results. Second, most of the mothers (73.0 percent) had acquired either a primary education or had no education at all, which indicates a rather low educational level of my sample. On the conflicting, 41.0 percent of their partners had completed secondary school or higher, which implies that male partners were comparatively better educated. It is also through the data that a strong tendency of marrying and having children early: 50.0 % of respondents have born their first child before reaching 20, and 40.1 % got married before reaching 18. As per the size of the family, most women

included two to three children (50.3 %), and a high percentage of the women included four or more children (15.5 %).

Age Group and ANC Check-up Frequency

The association between maternal age and the number of ANC check-ups was evaluated using a chi-square test. According to the data, mothers under the age of 20 were more likely to visit more than four ANC checkups, whereas mothers between the ages of 20 and 34 were more likely to attend three. A statistically significant correlation was found using the chi-square test (p=0.032).

Maternal Age (Years)	Number of ANC Visits	Total (%)
<20	>4: 36%	18.5%
20-34	3: 40%, >4: 35%	50%
35+	2: 45%, 3: 35%	31.5%

Number of Children and ANC Check-up Frequency

Mothers who had only one child also attended more than four ANC checkups the most frequently (34.8%), according to the data. Mothers who had more than one child, however, went to ANC visits less frequently. At p=0.014, this was statistically significant.

Number of Children	Number of ANC Visits	Total (%)
1	>4: 34.8%	32.5%
2-3	3: 45%, >4: 30%	40%
4+	2: 40%, 3: 30%	27.5%

Husband's Education and ANC Check-up Frequency

The frequency of ANC checkups and the husband's educational attainment were found to be significantly correlated. Regular ANC participation was more likely to be encouraged by husbands with secondary or higher education levels. A significant connection was found by the chi-square test (p = 0.023).

Husband's Education Level	Number of ANC Visits	Total (%)
No Formal Education	2: 50%, 3: 30%	25%
Primary School	3: 40%, >4: 20%	25%
Secondary or Higher	3: 30%, >4: 45%	50%

Food Sufficiency and ANC Check-up Frequency

ANC attendance was found to be highly impacted by food sufficiency. Regular ANC checkups were more common among mothers from food-sufficient homes, and the chi-square test revealed a significant correlation ($p = 0.045$).

Food Sufficiency	Number of ANC Visits	Total (%)
Sufficient	>4: 45%, 3: 30%	60%
Insufficient	2: 55%, 3: 30%	40%

Husband's Occupation and ANC Check-up Frequency

ANC attendance was higher among mothers whose husbands worked in service or business. A significant connection was found by the chi-square test ($p = 0.039$).

Husband's Occupation	Number of ANC Visits	Total (%)
Business/Service	>4: 50%, 3: 30%	45%
Agriculture/Other	2: 50%, 3: 40%	55%

Discussion

This research paper addressed the issue of the sociodemographic determinants of the frequency of using Antenatal Care (ANC) among the mothers in Salyan, Nepal. The findings confirm that the use of ANC is a combination of the husband's profile and those of the given household, including the economic state of affairs, as well as the maternal characteristics like age, parity; therefore, the use of ANC is not an isolated decision. The results point out that health-seeking behavior takes place in the socio-economic and cultural environment of rural society. How the education and occupation of the husband affected ANC visits of their wives was also an important statistic.

When the husbands had a secondary or higher education or worked in business or service, mothers had a strong associated risk of going to the recommended number of visits. The current research is highly validated by the previous study in Nepal and other regions elucidating a patriarchal society, which has established a male partner to be an important facilitator of maternal health care utilization (Koirala et al, 2019; Gautam et al., 2020). Perhaps it is that educated men possess a more advanced health literacy or a superior understanding of the benefits of preventative care, which is why they encourage their partners to receive ANC visits (Gautam et al., 2020). These are also enlightening in terms of occupational affiliation: the non-farm jobs have to be rather steady and have a good income to make the family afford health care. Families might also get exposed to additional health-related information in non-agricultural work and, possibly, more liberal mindsets

regarding the health of women and get past the financial and knowledge-related obstacles to care (Subedi & Paudel, 2017).

Much significance is also placed on financial security through the close connection that exists between the number of households with adequate food to eat and the frequency of women's visits to antenatal clinics. Our results that predicted women living in households that were food secure to have significantly increased odds of attending four or more ANC visits reflect the findings of Subedi and Paudel (2017), who argued that when faced with economic insecurity, families focus only on the immediate needs (survival) and not preventative health care. Although ANC attendance was technically free, the households incurred further indirect costs that included transport, loss of wage due to the woman, or wage due to the partner attending ANC sessions, and or the cost (as in the form of supplements) provided by health care providers (WHO, 2016). Food security could be a good indicator of whether a household can afford to attend to such expenditure and put emphasis on maternal health care.

Other maternal determinants of importance accorded by the study include parity and age. The inverse relationship between the number of children the mother has and ANC attendance in resource-constrained settings has been recorded in most studies because among women who have parity, they might have a higher amount of time and resources, and the reason behind that is childcare (Subedi & Paudel, 2017). The risk-taking may also be different in multiparous women since they have already experienced a successful pregnancy that decreases their motivation to attend periodic checkups (Koirala et al., 2019). The fact that we established mothers in the range of 20-34 years had fewer visits than the youngest mothers (<20) shows a possible direction that we need to consider in making further evaluations in the future. Other potential barriers unique to young mothers, like social stigma and lack of autonomy, have been mentioned by adolescent mothers in certain studies as potential factors decreasing attendance (Ghimire & Mohanty, 2021).

On the other hand, the children of our younger mothers have a chance of having the effects of the health program interventions that came to their mothers, specifically first-time mothers, in this case, young mothers. On the one hand the younger the 20-34 group do not do as well in terms of attendance, which is health concern but on the other most of these women are likely to be multiparous and doubly likely to develop a modicum of complacency and even decreased sense of risk possibility than during their first pregnancy. This brings to the point of disparity gap in necessary continued health education for all expecting women, regardless of whether them not being a primigravida.

Conclusively, this study, through empirical evidence, supports the idea that there is a need to adopt a multifaceted intervention to enhance the maternal health outcomes that would go beyond the clinical environment in rural Nepal. The considerable effect of marital attributes and family economics implies that it would be necessary to involve the male partners in the intervention, besides responding to structural economic factors as a barrier. The provision of the possibility of services is not very effective until women have mobilized empowerment, or they possess some means to gain access to any available services.

Conclusion

The important sociodemographic determinants of ANC attendance among mothers in salyan, Nepal, are highlighted in this study. The frequency of ANC check-ups was found to be

strongly influenced by factors such as the number of children, food security, husband's education, and maternal age. These results highlight the significance of focused measures to enhance maternal health services and provide mothers in rural Nepal with fair access to ANC. Improving food security, encouraging men to participate in maternal health decisions, and removing socioeconomic barriers to accessing ANC are all important strategies.

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Language Planning in Multilingual Nepal: Challenges and Strategies for Preservation and Integration

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Abstract

This article critically examines language planning in Nepal, emphasizing the systemic marginalization of minority languages in a multilingual setting. It highlights how socio-political and economic pressures compel marginalized communities to adopt Nepali—the dominant language with institutional backing—while their native tongues face functional exclusion from education, administration, and national discourse. Based on a review of existing literature, interviews with educators, and analysis of policy documents, the study reveals how such dynamics contribute to cultural erosion and perceived injustice. It advocates for inclusive, sustainable language planning through multilingual education policies and formal recognition of regional languages as pathways to linguistic equity and preservation. Finally, it proposes potential solutions and recommendations, such as multilingual education policies and the formal recognition of regional languages, to foster linguistic preservation and inclusion in Nepal.

***Keywords*:** *Language planning, Minority Language, Multilingualism, Justice*

Introduction

Nepal is a linguistically and culturally diverse nation, home to 124 mother tongues as recorded in the National Population and Housing Census 2021 (CBS, 2023). Despite this rich multilingual heritage, the state has yet to formulate a comprehensive language policy that meaningfully addresses the needs of its diverse linguistic communities. Although the Constitution of Nepal (2015) acknowledges the country's multilingual character—affirming the right of every community to use and promote its language (Article 32)—Nepali remains the sole official language at the federal level, and practical implementation of multilingual provisions remains limited and inconsistent.

This disconnects between constitutional recognition and policy execution raises critical concerns about the marginalization of indigenous and minority languages. Historical language policies have prioritized national integration, often at the expense of linguistic diversity, resulting in declining intergenerational transmission, reduced visibility of minority languages in education and governance, and a growing dominance of Nepali and English in public life. The identification of 13 new languages in the 2021 census further underscores the dynamic and evolving nature of Nepal's linguistic landscape, yet these languages remain largely unsupported institutionally. Against this backdrop, this study is necessary to interrogate the gaps in Nepal's language planning, examine the socio-political and structural barriers to

language preservation, and propose inclusive strategies that align with both constitutional commitments and the lived realities of multilingual communities

Major Languages and Demographic Trends

The census data reveal that Nepali remains the dominant mother tongue, spoken by 13,084,457 people (44.86%) in 2021, up from 11,826,953 (44.64%) in 2011. Other significant languages include *Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu, and Tamang*, each with over a million speakers. While some languages, such as Magahi, have seen substantial increases, others like *Doteli* and Urdu have experienced declines in speaker numbers and percentage share.

Table1: Mother tongue reported as having spoken by more than 1 hundred thousand population each in census 2021 and 2011.

Mother Tongue	Census 2021 Population	Census 2021 Percent	Census 2011 Population	Census 2011 Percent
Nepali	13,084,457	44.86%	11,826,953	44.64%
Maithili	3,222,389	11.05%	3,092,530	11.67%
Bhojpuri	1,820,795	6.24%	1,584,958	5.98%
Tharu	1,714,091	5.88%	1,529,875	5.77%
Tamang	1,423,075	4.88%	1,353,311	5.11%
Bajjika	1,133,764	3.89%	793,416	2.99%
Avadhi	864,276	2.96%	501,752	1.89%
Nepalbhasha	863,380	2.96%	846,557	3.20%
Magar Dhut	810,315	2.78%	788,530	2.98%
Doteli	494,864	1.70%	787,827	2.97%
Urdu	413,785	1.42%	691,546	2.61%
Yakthung/Limbu	350,436	1.20%	343,603	1.30%
Gurung	328,074	1.12%	325,622	1.23%
Magahi	230,117	0.79%	35,614	0.13%
Baitadeli	152,666	0.52%	272,524	1.03%

Mother Tongue	Census 2021 Population	Census 2021 Percent	Census 2011 Population	Census 2011 Percent
Rai	144,512	0.50%	159,114	0.60%
Achhami	141,444	0.48%	142,787	0.54%
Bantawa	138,003	0.47%	132,583	0.50%
Rajbanshi	130,163	0.45%	122,214	0.46%
Sherpa	117,896	0.40%	114,830	0.43%
Khash	117,511	0.40%	-	-

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics. (2021).

This table provides a clear comparison of the populations and percentages of speakers of various mother tongues in Nepal from the 2021 and 2011 censuses. The data shows that Nepali remains the dominant mother tongue, with an increase in its speaker base from 11,826,953 (44.64%) in 2011 to 13,084,457 (44.86%) in 2021. Maithili, Bhojpuri, and Tharu also saw increases in their speaker populations, although the growth rate of Maithili slowed slightly from 11.67% in 2011 to 11.05% in 2021. *Tamang* experienced a slight decrease in percentage terms, from 5.11% to 4.88%, despite an increase in absolute numbers.

NepalBasha (*Newari*) remained relatively stable, with a minor decrease in its percentage share from 3.20% to 2.96%. *Gurung* and *Yakthung*/*Limbu* maintained their speaker populations with slight variations. Magahi showed a substantial increase in its speakers, jumping from 35,614 (0.13%) to 230,117 (0.79%).

Overall, while some languages saw significant increases or decreases in their speaker populations, Nepali continues to be the predominant mother tongue in Nepal, with *Maithili*, *Bhojpuri*, and *Tharu* maintaining strong presences.

An indigenous language refers to a language that is native to a specific region and traditionally spoken by the original inhabitants of that area. These languages are deeply intertwined with the cultural, spiritual, and ecological knowledge systems of Indigenous communities and often evolve independently of dominant or colonial languages (Pun & Gurung, 2020). In Nepal, such languages are typically spoken by ethnic groups officially recognized as *Adivasi Janajati* (Indigenous Nationalities), as defined by the National Foundation for Development of Indigenous Nationalities Act (2002). These languages are frequently transmitted orally and may lack formal recognition or institutional support (*Tumbahang*, 2010).Examples of indigenous languages in Nepal include *Tamang*, *Limbu, Tharu, Newar (Nepalbhasa)*, and various Rai languages such as *Bantawa* and *Chamling*. These languages are not only linguistic systems but also carriers of ancestral knowledge and identity.

In contrast, a minority language is one spoken by a numerically smaller group within a state where another language holds dominant or official status. While some minority languages are also indigenous, others may not be. Their minority status is shaped by demographic, political, and institutional marginalization (Gautam & Poudel, 2022). A language may be considered a minority language if it is spoken by a small population, lacks legal or educational support, or is geographically isolated. Examples of minority languages in Nepal include *Urdu*

(spoken by the Muslim minority), Sanskrit (historically significant but now limited in use), *Magar, and Dotyali*—the latter often viewed as a dialect of Nepali but with distinct linguistic features and cultural identity.

Classification and Regional Distribution of Language Families Spoken in Nepal

A quarter of Nepal's population speaks one of the Sanskrit-related languages of the Terai, such as *Maithili*, *Bhojpuri*, and *Avadhi*, or the indigenous *Tharu* language (Moran, 1996). The majority of Nepal's languages are spoken by Mongoloid Hill tribes and belong to the Tibeto-Burman branch of the Sino-Tibetan language family. *Gurung*, *Tamang*, *Magar*, *Sherpa*, *Rai*, and *Limbu* tribes each have their own languages, often subdivided into distinct regional dialects; Rai alone has approximately 34 recognized varieties. Most of these languages remain unwritten, though Newari possesses its own alphabet and a tradition of classical literature (Moran, 1996).

The native tongue of nearly half the residents of the Kathmandu Valley, Newari, represents a special case. Structurally related to Tibeto-Burman languages, Newari script bears a resemblance to the Tibetan alphabet. However, with the advent of the printing press, the script has largely been replaced by Devanagari (Moran, 1996).

The official national language of Nepal is Nepali, which originated from the language of the *Khasa*—a hill tribe that migrated eastward along the Himalayas and, by the 14th century, had established an empire in northwestern Nepal. The *Khasa* influence extended far beyond their small kingdom, with their language being officially used in the *Newar* courts of the *Malla* kings a century before the *Gorkhalis* conquered the Kathmandu Valley (Moran, 1996). However, following the enactment of the new constitution in 2072, various local government bodies have begun using local languages alongside Nepali *Khas* to promote linguistic diversity and inclusion.

The *Gorkhalis'* rise to power solidified Nepali's role as the primary language. Today it's the mother tongue of 44.64% population (CBS, 2021); another above 40% speak it fluently as a second language. As the official language of Government, schools and mass media, Nepali has become the lingua Franca of diverse ethnic groups. Increasingly, it is replacing these ethnic languages, the more obscure of which are slowly dying out.

Multilingualism and Consequences

Because of linguistic diversity, many illiterate Nepalese are fluent in two, three or even four languages. Indeed, Nepal's linguistic landscape fosters widespread bilingualism and multilingualism—even among those without formal education. According to the National Population and Housing Census 2021, 46.23% reported Nepali as their second language, indicating a significant portion of the population communicates in more than one language. Additionally, the census identified 117 second languages in use, reflecting the depth of language contact and multilingual practices across the country.

A study analyzing the 2021 census data further notes that multilingualism is not limited to the educated elite. Many individuals, including those who are illiterate, are functionally fluent in two to four languages, often using their mother tongue at home, Nepali or Hindi in public spaces, and English or regional lingua franc as in specific domains like trade or tourism. This organic multilingualism underscores the importance of recognizing and supporting linguistic competencies beyond formal literacy, especially in language planning and education policy. It proves that language learning is not some kind of miraculous talent, but a skill born from the need to communicate. In terms of intelligibility, in Terai region from east to west, many languages (Raj*bansi, Maithili, Bhojpuri, and Avadi*) are on a line of continuum. It is very difficult to say where one language ends and other begins. People of two different neighboring

language communities can understand each other's' language. But the longer the distance between two different speech communities, the more it is difficult to understand. The characters of one language transfers to another language because of these phenomena the same language shows i.e. variations of the same language. Language is associated with politics, economy i.e. power. Nepali has become lingua Franca in different ethnic groups. Despite the fact that each language is unique in itself, many minority languages are dying out.

In the 2021 and 2011 censuses, the status of Nepali, T*amang, Sherpa, Gurung, Magar,* and *Nepalbhasa* (Newari) as second languages reveals notable trends and contrasts. Nepali, as a second language, experienced a significant increase, with 13,482,904 speakers (46.23% of the total population) in 2021 compared to 8,682,499 speakers (32.77%) in 2011. This substantial growth highlights the rising prevalence of Nepali as a second language. Similarly, the *Tamang* language saw an increase in second-language speakers, from 33,450 (0.13%) in 2011 to 71,569 (0.25%) in 2021. *Gurung* and Magar also showed growth, though less pronounced: *Gurung* speakers rose from 22,834 (0.09%) to 23,698 (0.08%), and Magar speakers increased from 42,952 (0.16%) to 54,143 (0.19%). *Nepalbhasa* (*Newari*), on the other hand, remained relatively stable, with 32,604 speakers (0.11%) in 2021 compared to 32,594 (0.12%) in 2011. Notably, Sherpa was not listed as a second language in the provided census data. The trends indicate a broadening linguistic landscape, with Nepali increasingly becoming a common second language, while other ethnic languages like *Tamang*, *Gurung*, and Magar also see gradual adoption as second languages. (Census, 2021)

Language Planning Strategies in Nepal

Language planning in Nepal has evolved significantly, influenced by political shifts, social movements, and globalization. Previous studies highlight the tension between linguistic diversity and national integration, emphasizing the need for balanced policies (Giri, 2019). Scholars argue that while Nepal has constitutional provisions recognizing indigenous languages, practical implementation remains weak (Yadav, 2021). Case studies from other multilingual nations, such as India and Switzerland, provide insights into potential frameworks for managing linguistic diversity. In the context of Nepal, such comparative lessons gain relevance when viewed alongside constitutional commitments. Article 32(1) of the Constitution of Nepal (2015) guarantees that "each person and community shall have the right to use their language," while Article 31(5) affirms the right of every community to acquire education in their mother tongue up to the secondary level and to establish educational institutions accordingly. These provisions not only recognize linguistic rights but also imply a constitutional mandate for proactive language planning and promotion. However, the gap between policy and practice in Nepal underscores the importance of learning from international models that have successfully institutionalized multilingualism through legal, educational, and administrative frameworks.

Language is perhaps one of the most important assets of human civilization. It plays a crucial role in societal development and is closely related to poverty, economic development, educational achievement, national integration, and disintegration. The United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) states, "Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers" (Article 19, as cited in Minority Rights Group International & UNICEF, 2010.).

According to Phillipson (2003), language planning is a specialization in the sociology of language requiring input from economics, demography, education and linguistics. This framework serves as a strategic set of tools for implementing language policy measures, primarily utilized in post-colonial states. Such measures aim to counteract language

endangerment by addressing socio-economic oppression, enhancing the status and perception of the language among its speakers, and fostering linguistic loyalty.

Language is a strong bond of social identity. To a great extent, ethnicity and language to together to form the identity, but they are not necessarily the same in each case. Most communities are identifies by their mother tongue and live historically together in close areas. Language planners and scholars have come to realize that language is a social resource and hence plannable. But it raises the question whether it is plannable in the same sense as economic planning.

All developmental planning is planning for social goals, but language planning has strong link particularly with cultural planning. It deals with publication, works of art, theater (Yadav 1990).Despite the fact that Nepal is a multilingual and multicultural country, language planners have negatively evaluated other than Nepali languages. No clear-cut policy has ever been enunciated with regard to regional and minority language status.

Kennedy (as cited in Lin & Martin, 2005, p. 119) highlights that language use is deeply connected to political influence, economic progress, cultural identity, and national values, which has led to a greater awareness of the crucial role language policies play in shaping a nation. A language being a societal resource it can be used in improving social life along with improving the language. So language planning is an attempt to guide the developmental process of a language in a direction desired by the planners and their master.

According to Weinstein (1980,) language planning is a government authorized. Long-term, sustained and conscious effort to alter a languages function in a society for the purpose of solving communication problems." It might include evaluating available resources, making difficult decisions, allocating various roles to various languages or dialects within a community, and investing precious resources.

Language planning is a deliberate effort to modify or regulate a language or one of its variations. This intervention may target its status in relation to other languages or its internal structure to bring about specific changes. These approaches are not mutually exclusive; efforts to modify status lead to status planning, while changes to the linguistic structure constitute corpus planning (Wardhaugh, 1986).

Language planning is a deliberate and strategic effort to influence the function, structure, and acquisition of languages within a society, often driven by sociopolitical, educational, and cultural goals (Cooper, 1989; Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997). In multilingual nations like Nepal, where over 124 languages coexist, language planning is essential not only for national integration but also for the preservation of linguistic diversity. The rationale for planning stems from the need to address language endangerment, promote equitable access to education and governance, and uphold linguistic rights. Without such planning, dominant languages—such as Nepali and English—tend to marginalize minority tongues, leading to cultural erosion and social exclusion (Pun & Gurung, 2020; Ojha & Phyak, 2019). Effective language planning ensures that all linguistic communities are represented in public life, education, and media, thereby fostering inclusivity and cultural sustainability.

Language planning is typically categorized into several interrelated types. Status planning involves assigning roles to languages within a society, such as designating official or regional languages (Holmes, 2013). Corpus planning focuses on developing the internal structure of a language—standardizing grammar, orthography, and vocabulary (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997). Acquisition planning promotes the learning and transmission of languages, often through educational policies and curriculum design (Fishman, 1987). Prestige planning aims to elevate the social value of a language, encouraging its use in formal and cultural

domains (Nordquist, 2025). Additionally, domain planning allocates specific languages to particular sectors, such as health, law, or local governance. In Nepal's context, these planning types must work in cycle to support mother tongue-based multilingual education, regional language recognition, and the development of linguistic resources. A holistic approach that integrates these dimensions is crucial for resisting linguistic assimilation and ensuring the survival of Nepal's rich linguistic heritage.

Wardhaugh (1986) explains that language planning encompasses both status and corpus planning, each serving distinct but interconnected purposes in shaping linguistic development. Status planning involves modifying a language's role or function, which directly impacts the rights of its speakers; for instance, when a minority language is excluded from educational use, its status declines, reflecting the influence of sociopolitical factors that can either enhance or diminish its presence. Meanwhile, corpus planning focuses on refining and standardizing a language or its variety to ensure it fulfills diverse functions within society. This process includes developing orthography, expanding vocabulary sources, compiling dictionaries, fostering literary works, and promoting new applications of the language. By integrating these approaches, language planning supports linguistic adaptation across key domains such as governance, education, and commerce, ultimately shaping the linguistic landscape of a nation.

Cobarrubias (as Cited in Wardhaugh, p.337) has described four typical ideologies that may motivate actual decision making in language planning in a particular society: these are linguistic irrigation, linguistic pluralism, vernacularizaiton and internationalism.

Methodology

This study adopts a qualitative research approach to explore the nuanced dimensions of language planning and preservation in Nepal. As Denzin and Lincoln (1994) argue, methodological choices should align with the research context and questions, particularly when the aim is not to establish definitive truths but to uncover embedded meanings and contextual understanding. The primary method employed is document analysis, drawing upon national instruments such as Nepal's Constitution, government policy reports, and linguistic surveys. This method is complemented by semi-structured interviews with educators, policymakers, and linguistic experts to enrich contextual interpretation. The interpretation of data is both descriptive and critical—descriptive in outlining existing frameworks and practices, and critical in interrogating the socio-political implications of language policies and their implementation. This combined strategy enables a grounded yet reflexive analysis of the challenges and potential pathways for equitable language planning in a multilingual nation like Nepal.

This study employed a qualitative research design involving semi-structured interviews with teachers, policymakers, and linguistic experts from diverse linguistic and geographic backgrounds across Nepal. Participants included educators from both public and community schools, representing linguistic groups such as *Maithili, Tamang, Tharu,* and *Limbu*. A purposive sampling strategy was adopted to select participants who had direct experience teaching in multilingual classrooms or working within communities where minority languages are spoken. This approach ensured the inclusion of voices from both urban and rural regions, enabling nuanced insight into the strategies and challenges of language planning and implementation at the ground level.

Results and Discussions

The decline of linguistic diversity in Nepal is a growing concern, as many indigenous languages face the threat of extinction. Several factors contribute to language endangerment, including sociopolitical influences, economic migration, lack of institutional support, and the

dominance of Nepali and English in formal education and governance. Minority languages often suffer from limited intergenerational transmission, as younger speakers increasingly adopt dominant languages for economic and social mobility. When a language loses its speakers, it gradually fades from daily use, leading to cultural erosion and the loss of unique worldviews embedded in linguistic traditions.

Nepal, a nation renowned for its rich linguistic mosaic, is home to 124 mother tongues spoken by diverse ethnic communities across its hills, plains, and mountains (National Population and Housing Census, 2021). While major languages like *Maithili, Bhojpuri, Tharu,* and *Tamang* each claim over a million native speakers, many indigenous languages are witnessing a steady decline. This shift is exacerbated by rapid urbanization, economic migration, and the increasing dominance of Nepali and English in education, administration, and mass media. Although Nepali is spoken by 44.86% of the population as a mother tongue and by over 46% as a second language, the rising prevalence of Nepali and English is accompanied by code-switching, vocabulary erosion, and weakened intergenerational transmission of minority languages. Despite constitutional guarantees of linguistic rights, the absence of robust implementation frameworks continues to marginalize local languages and limits their functional use to familial and ceremonial contexts.

In response to these growing challenges, Nepal has seen emerging attention toward language planning through initiatives promoting multilingual education, decentralization, and cultural revitalization. Strategies such as mother tongue-based early instruction, formal recognition of regional languages, and the inclusion of minority languages in local governance structures are gaining momentum. However, policy ambitions are hampered by limited political will, insufficient educational resources, and inadequate teacher training. Experts warn that without integrated efforts—including policy reform, institutional support, and community-led documentation and archiving—Nepal risks accelerating the loss of its intangible cultural heritage. To resist the tide of "linguistic Darwinism," where dominant languages thrive while others fade, a sustainable and inclusive language planning framework must prioritize equity, accessibility, and long-term cultural preservation.

Language Endangerment and Loss

Language is a dynamic and living entity, sustained by the people who speak it. Without active speakers, a language ceases to exist. It thrives only when individuals use it in communication, preserving its relevance and continuity (Gautam & Poudel, 2022; Ojha & Phyak, 2019). Insights from interviews with teachers and experts suggest that the vitality of languages in Nepal faces significant threats due to various factors, including declining intergenerational transmission, sociopolitical influences, and the dominance of widely spoken languages in education and governance.

State policies mandating Nepali as the primary medium of instruction and official communication have significantly marginalized minority languages. As a result, non-native speakers encounter considerable difficulties in accessing quality education and securing employment opportunities, which pressures them to adopt Nepali as their primary language. This linguistic shift, driven by systemic constraints, gradually diminishes the use and vitality of indigenous languages, posing a serious threat to their preservation.

Some experts have observed that socioeconomic pressures significantly influence language abandonment among minority language speakers. Many individuals perceive limited practical utility for their mother tongues in public life, mainstream media, and government institutions. As a result, they are compelled to shift toward dominant languages like Nepali to access better economic opportunities, enhance career prospects, and integrate more effectively

into society. This gradual transition, driven by systemic factors, accelerates the decline of indigenous languages and poses challenges for linguistic diversity and cultural preservation.

The generational shift in language proficiency is evident as younger speakers demonstrate reduced familiarity with traditional vocabularies, while older generations often resist the integration of Nepali linguistic features into their native languages. This dynamic leads to frequent code-switching in conversations, where speakers alternate between languages, and contributes to gradual language attrition. Over time, the diminished transmission of indigenous linguistic knowledge further accelerates the decline of minority languages, posing challenges for cultural preservation and intergenerational communication.

To establish the language of conquerors seems to be an obvious means of assimilating a conquered people to them (Grant as cited in education for development or domination?). In Nepalese context, nowadays many languages have disappeared and some are on the process of disappearing. It is basically the cause of state policy towards language. Rulers are imposing Nepali language as the means of instruction in Education despites its difficulties for nonnative Nepali speakers. Minorities are deprived from being educated in their own language. These people are compelled to educate their children in colonizers language due to various reasons. They do not see any use of their own language in office university exam or in public service commission. So, they are pushed to leave their mother tongue and adopt 'colonizers' language i.e. Nepali language is spoken by the ruling elites. It is spoken by the higher class of natives at the seats of Government.

The phenomenon of language loss remains a complex issue, often leading to uncertainty about its pace and extent. While people may recognize that languages are disappearing, they may lack awareness of how rapidly this process is occurring. Structurally, various elements of a language can change swiftly, especially among those most exposed to external influences. One significant indicator of language decline is the increased frequency of code-switching, where speakers integrate features from dominant or contact languages into their speech. Grammatical structures may also undergo transformation, with shifts in the use of inflections and function words influenced by the prevailing language. Additionally, vocabulary erosion is evident, as younger generations retain only a fraction of the traditional lexicon known to older speakers, while older individuals may struggle with or resist the borrowed words introduced from the dominant language. This dynamic ultimately accelerates linguistic attrition, posing serious challenges to language preservation and cultural identity.. They see high chances of getting job through that language. Indigenous people are compelled to leave their mother tongue because they don't get any job opportunity despite the fact they are able to use their own language well. They don't find the uses of their own language in Media, i.e. TV, newspaper, radio etc. Because of the linguistic environment, they feel frustration towards their own language and ultimately the language disappears. So, we need language documentation which is a lasting, multipurpose record of a language (Himmelmann, 2006). The process of compiling language documentation is extensive, with no definitive upper boundary to the amount of information that can be recorded. Given the complexity of linguistic structures, cultural contexts, and variations in usage, language documentation remains an ongoing and limitless endeavor.

Current Strategies and Challenges

Despite Nepal's multilingual reality, language planning has historically favored Nepali, with limited recognition for regional and minority languages. Effective language planning requires input from diverse fields such as economics, demography, education, and linguistics. It is a deliberate, sustained effort, often government-authorized, to alter language functions and solve communication problems in society.

Nepali has been the official language in Nepal, and it has been given the status of a national language. But many local language groups have now been resenting the fact that the imposition of Nepali as the national language has retarded the growth of their languages and has forced many a non Nepali speaking, group to accept against their wish. Many languages are spoken on a regional basis.

One expert on language education in Nepal argues that the country cannot isolate itself from globalization, as English plays a dominant role across various sectors. In many academic disciplines, proficiency in English is essential for even basic competence. The growing demand for English has led to the establishment of private schools to accommodate public expectations. However, the use of English as the primary medium of instruction has also created unintended barriers, as teachers often use students' inability to express themselves in English to maintain classroom discipline, discouraging them from asking questions in their native languages. As a result, many students graduate from English-medium education with inadequate English proficiency, which neither benefits them nor contributes effectively to national development.

Many languages spoken by economically and politically marginalized groups are disappearing, reflecting a form of linguistic Darwinism in which only the dominant languages survive. While some view this as a natural process, others argue that languages are an essential part of humanity's heritage and should be preserved. According to Pattanayak (as cited in *Educational Rights of Minorities*, p. 15), languages collectively form a national mosaic, and the loss of even a few linguistic elements diminishes the beauty and integrity of the whole. He metaphorically compares this to a lotus, where withering petals or displaced mosaic chips make the entire structure appear less vibrant. The extinction of languages, therefore, impoverishes a nation culturally and intellectually.

In the Nepalese context, linguistic diversity necessitates a multilingual policy to ensure justice for minority language speakers. Implementing a three-language policy—incorporating local, national, and international languages—could help balance linguistic preservation with national integration, fostering inclusivity while maintaining Nepal's rich linguistic heritage.

One language expert emphasized that supporting minority language speakers requires their languages to be formally recognized within the national socio-economic development framework, considering the number of speakers and the functionality of different languages. The unique cultural and intellectual contributions of each ethnic group are deeply tied to their linguistic heritage, making it essential for a country that values diversity to protect and sustain its linguistic assets. At the same time, advancements in science, technology, and international communication necessitate proficiency in an international language, with English being the most widely used globally.

Several educators emphasized the need of connection between national policies and local classroom realities. One teacher remarked, *"We're told to support multilingual education, but there's no training or books in our students' languages—how are we supposed to teach?"* This reflects a systemic gap in resource allocation and teacher preparedness.

Others shared hopeful strategies rooted in community engagement. As one teacher noted, *"If we work with local elders and parents, we can build simple materials in our own languages. We don't need to wait for the center."* Such grassroots-driven approaches are seen as both empowering and culturally relevant, yet often lack institutional support.

Challenges also emerged around policy ambiguity. A senior educator voiced concern, stating, *"The government talks about language rights, but it is unclear how that translates into classroom practice. We're afraid to do something unofficial."* This tension between top-down mandates and local initiative stifles innovation and experimentation in multilingual teaching.

Finally, some expressed concern about intergenerational language loss, with one participant reflecting, *"Even our own children are forgetting our mother tongue. If schools don't step in, who will?"* This points to the emotional weight teachers carry as both educators and cultural custodians.

Ways Forward

If all students in a classroom share the same native language, instruction should be conducted in their mother tongue to facilitate effective learning and comprehension. However, in linguistically diverse classrooms where students come from different language backgrounds, a bilingual or trilingual approach would be more appropriate. This policy ensures that students can access education in a language they understand while also acquiring proficiency in the national or international language, fostering inclusivity and enhancing educational outcomes.

Participants underscored the critical role of equitable language representation, echoing sentiments such as: *"Our children don't see their language in books—they think it doesn't matter,"* highlighting the psychological and educational impact of linguistic invisibility. Document analysis further revealed that despite constitutional provisions, instructional and reading materials remain overwhelmingly centralized in Nepali. One teacher noted, *"Even when students understand lessons better in their mother tongue, there's nothing available to teach them with."* These findings support the argument that books and educational materials should be published in all languages in proportion to the number of speakers. Doing so ensures fair linguistic accessibility while fostering a sense of value and inclusion among minority language communities. In line with this, the research advocates for multilingual curricular development, where students gain foundational knowledge in their mother tongues while also building fluency in Nepali and English—advancing both cultural preservation and academic achievement.

A child's first language is widely regarded as the most effective medium for early learning, as it fosters cognitive and linguistic development. Research indicates that literacy in the native language should be acquired before learning a second language to ensure stronger proficiency. UNESCO (1953) emphasized this, stating that the mother tongue is the most suitable medium for a child's education. Teaching minority languages plays a crucial role in fostering a positive self-identity among children. Without such instruction, minority students may feel that their language and culture are undervalued in school, leading to perceptions of inferiority. Additionally, proficiency in their mother tongue is essential for effective communication with family members, including parents and grandparents, and for maintaining cultural knowledge, history, and personal identity.

Educational institutions, including universities, colleges, schools, and public service commissions, should recognize and accommodate regional languages as both the medium of examination and instruction. Such a policy would enhance students' accessibility to various governmental opportunities by ensuring that linguistic diversity does not serve as a barrier to academic and professional advancement. Integrating regional languages into formal educational and evaluative processes promotes inclusivity, equitable access, and a more representative educational framework that reflects the linguistic realities of diverse communities.

A genuinely democratic and just society is established through the protection of fundamental rights for all citizens, irrespective of gender, caste, religious affiliation, or linguistic background. In this context, granting official status to the languages of minority communities at the regional level is essential for fostering inclusivity, ensuring equitable representation, and upholding linguistic diversity. Such recognition not only strengthens social

cohesion but also affirms the right of minority groups to preserve and utilize their linguistic heritage in both public and administrative domains.

The educational rights granted to minority communities were of greater significance than their right to use their language for official purposes. Under the provisions outlined in international treaties, minority groups were entitled to primary education in specific circumstances and had unrestricted access to private schooling. A fundamental characteristic of these institutions was the use of minority languages as the medium of instruction, thereby ensuring linguistic inclusivity. While the state retained the authority to mandate the study of the official language, it was not permitted to impose restrictions requiring certain subjects to be taught exclusively in that language (UNICEF & Minority Rights Group International, 2010.).

Regional languages should hold a predominant status within their respective areas, not only in administrative functions but also in commerce, law, and education. Recognizing and institutionalizing local languages in both educational and governmental sectors is essential for promoting linguistic inclusivity, ensuring equitable access to resources, and preserving cultural heritage. Such recognition strengthens the connection between linguistic identity and societal participation, fostering a more representative and accessible system for diverse linguistic communities.

Both minority and majority communities should have opportunities to engage with and appreciate each other's cultures and languages through a well-integrated school curriculum and educational materials. Incorporating diverse linguistic and cultural perspectives into formal education fosters mutual understanding, social cohesion, and respect for cultural diversity. This approach fosters meaningful intercultural dialogue while equipping students with the essential knowledge and skills to actively engage in and contribute to a multilingual, multicultural society.

Conclusion

Nepal's linguistic diversity is a cultural asset that requires sustainable language planning. While challenges persist, proactive strategies such as policy reforms, educational interventions, and grassroots initiatives can contribute to preserving and integrating diverse languages. Future research should explore the socio-economic impacts of multilingualism in Nepal and assess the effectiveness of emerging language policies.

The conclusion, while commendably highlighting the urgency of sustainable language planning, leans heavily on broad calls for reform without sufficiently interrogating the structural and political barriers that have historically hindered effective implementation in Nepal. Although the emphasis on educational integration and grassroots initiatives is promising, the findings could have benefited from a more critical analysis of why past policies have fallen short—particularly in contexts of limited institutional capacity and political will. Moreover, the recommendation for future research, though valid, underlines a reliance on further empirical validation rather than offering concrete, immediate policy pathways. As a result, the conclusion raises crucial issues but leaves key questions about feasibility and actionable mechanisms underexplored. Finally, it calls for further research into the socio-economic impacts of multilingualism and the real-world effectiveness of policy implementation, emphasizing that deeper empirical insights are essential to resist the trend of "linguistic Darwinism" and design inclusive, evidence-based solutions.

Integrating minority languages into education plays a crucial role in preventing language loss and preserving cultural heritage. Every minority language possesses inherent value and holds equal importance to the majority language. Therefore, it should not only be

utilized as the foundational medium of instruction for minority communities but also continue to play a vital role in later stages of education, ensuring linguistic diversity and cultural preservation. By granting minority languages a more prominent place in the curriculum, educational systems can promote linguistic diversity, ensure equitable language representation, and strengthen the identity of linguistic communities.

The findings presented carry far-reaching implications for Nepal's language policy, educational practice, and future research. Policymakers are urged to move beyond symbolic recognition of multilingualism by adopting a comprehensive language planning framework—such as a three-language policy that integrates local, national (Nepali), and international (English) languages—to ensure justice, equity, and global readiness. In practice, this necessitates the institutionalization of mother tongue-based multilingual education, the development of inclusive teaching resources, and the accommodation of minority languages across examinations and administrative systems. The urgency of reversing language shift, stemming from Nepali-English dominance and intergenerational vocabulary erosion, also underscores the importance of active language documentation. For researchers, the study identifies a need to assess the socio-economic impacts of multilingualism, examine policy implementation gaps, and explore how linguistic inclusion affects national cohesion and development among concerns over linguistic attrition and "linguistic Darwinism."

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Socio-Health Profile of Residents in Bhaktapur in Elder Care Homes

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Abstract

Nepal is facing a low fertility rate, with a sharp increase in the senior citizens group. This has been in combination with the loss of support system of family, inadequate provisions of social security, and the result has been the strengthening of the demand for institutional care. In line with this, the current study reviews the socioeconomic and health characteristics of residents in five homes for the elderly in the Bhaktapur District. The goal is to create empirical evidence in evidence-based policymaking. 94 residents of five senior care facilities in Bhaktapur were surveyed as part of a census using a mixed-methods, cross-sectional design. Semi-structured questionnaires and interviews were used to gather information on sociodemographic traits, health status, and institutionalization reasons. To find significant correlations between variables, statistical analysis was used, including chi-square tests ($p < 0.05$) and descriptive statistics. Age and gender have a significant impact on the likelihood of living in a care facility, according to the results, with elderly women (59.57%) having a higher likelihood than men (40.43%). Among the primary reasons for institutionalization were financial instability and widowhood (74.4%). The illiteracy rate among the elderly population is high (69.15%), and women are more likely than men to be uneducated. According to the study, the two most common reasons for institutionalization were a lack of family care (26.6%) and spousal death (22.3%). Results from the chi-square test showed a significant relationship between gender and the reasons for residing in care facilities ($p < 0.05$). The researchers note that the research shows meaningful socioeconomic weaknesses and gender inequity between elderly care home residents in Nepal. The above results indicate why policy changes are necessary to facilitate health-care coverage, enhanced social security, and community-based health care. To improve the living conditions of elderly people and satisfy an active increase in the demand for sustainable elderly services in Nepal, interventions that will be gender-sensitive and measures to enhance financial stability should be entrenched in future practice.

Keywords: aging, elderly care, health status, senior citizen, socio-economic status

Introduction

Demographic aging is a unique, in many respects irreversible tendency of the twenty-first century that can be characterized by a persistent rise of the share of elderly persons in national cohorts, and, as a result, produces a wide range of consequences in almost all forms of social

institutions, economic systems, and health-care systems around. According to the forecasts that the United Nations (2022) made and distributed, the number of people aged 60 or older is projected to grow by one in six around the globe by 2030, and this figure is likely to increase to 4 per cent by 2050, comprising 2.1 billion of the total population of the older adult age category (WHO, 2022). In the past, such demographic transition took place initially in the developed countries and took decades of time before complete, developmental policies, which included pension mechanisms, universal healthcare, and institutionalized care of long-term care, could be implemented. On the other hand, similar changes, which are currently taking place in developing nations, especially low- and middle-income states, are happening at a much faster rate. This quick aging happens within a smaller period and in most instances without properly developed pension schemes, integrated health-care systems, and special institutions in long-term care. The resultant susceptibility of the elderly residents is, in turn, worsened in situations where underlying structural inadequacies combine with the pre-existing healthcare inequality, as well as socioeconomic diversities (WHO, 2021; Lloyd-Sherlock, 2010).

Nepal is geographically at the center of South Asia, but it is also typical of the region as far as the demographic vulnerability of many states is concerned. A notably fast demographic transformation, driven by both an increase in life expectancy and a rising reduction in fertility, has set the scene of what is most likely to become one of the most dramatic aging transitions in the neighborhood: official projections show that the share of the population aged 60 and above is set to more than double in just one generation, rising to 17.8 percent in 2050, up by 8.1 percent in 2011 (UNFPA Nepal, 2022; Central Bureau of Statistics, 2021). What has been called as an opportunity to be able to see as a type of an aging tsunami is based on the interaction that this trend has in the current situation that the nation is facing which has limited economic resources and not fully developed system of support and which sets extreme paths about the whole development of the nation, and also the community in health. Other compounding factors are the loss of frequently used systems of family support. Multigenerational families traditionally based on cultural values of the importance of filial piety used to act as the major place of elder care, providing economic, social, and logistical support. And this setup is increasingly breaking up in the face of modern compulsions, especially massive rural-urban migration and international labour migration. Citizens of younger generations who live in cities tend to lose the connection between their village and their relatives and families, and those who immigrate make a so-called care drain, taking older people out of their main caregiver (Chalise, 2019). Whereas foreign remittances may help comfort some of the material challenges, the former are not easily interchangeable with daily resources, presence, or direct health or household care, as well as the latter needs, which gain prominence when people age and start showing signs of failing health. State-run reactivity has remained insufficient so far.

The Senior Citizen Allowance, a kind of social pension that was set to supply a basic income floor, has always been underfunded big time by the Nepal government. It is also seen that its nominal price is not enough to afford the increased costs of food, housing, and health services, and it is more of a symbolic gesture than an effective safety net (Kandel et al., 2020). At the same time, the general health sector, which until recently was focused on infectious pathologies and maternal and child health, does not have the necessary capacity, the specificity of the workforce, as well as biomedical infrastructure to operate the NCDs, which are now predominant in the epidemiological portrait of older adults: hypertension, diabetes, arthritis, and dementia (Ministry of Health and Population, 2021; Goudet et al., 2017).

This gradual withdrawal of family assistance to fill the lack of state-provision care has created an extremely dangerous break in the chain of elder care. These establishments have become an improvised yet necessary part of the national state of elder care in urban and semi-urban centers like Kathmandu Valley, where elder-care institutions have become an inevitable feature (Sharma, 2019). Widowhood, lack of primary caregiver, severe or chronic health condition, and severe financial dependency are recurrently mentioned as the main causes of institutionalization according to empirical research done in Nepal (Chalise & Shrestha, 2022). This contributes greatly to elderly women due to their increased life span, and therefore they are disposed to widowhood and consequently to chronic diseases. A lack of access to education and formal employment in historical times further restricted their finances, easily leaving a majority of them without the necessary wealth to be able to support themselves in the event that there may be a period of diminishing family support (Blaikie, 1999). Additionally, infirmity and health-related conditions that often accompany the aging process increase the need for 24-hour care levels of service that the family is often unable to provide. However, although there seems to be a strong case in favor of the value of these institutions, there is a lack of strong empirical data on the residents.

Systematic data on their demographics, nutritional and health status, socioeconomic background, and general well-being are limited. These gaps in knowledge may hinder policymakers and government health officers in the development of evidence-based policymaking, the development of specific interventions, or the definition of performance standards of care quality. Without such foundation evidence, support strategies are idle and unproductive. To address such data deficiency, this paper focuses on Bhaktapur District, which is a historical and cultural hub of an urban center in the Kathmandu Valley. It is still an ideal microcosm to study because the district represents the demography and socio-economic pressures that have powered the institutional care sector. These objectives of the research are referred to as twofold: (1) to thoroughly self-examine the social and economic as well as health factors that affected the rest of the persons considering the age of personage who reside in Bhaktapur District nursing homes; and (2) to illuminate the directions in which such individuals open their ways into the institutional grounds.

The ensuing body of evidence should help policymakers in the formulation of regulatory schemes, guide healthcare professionals in the design of relevant clinical intelligence, and help the social-welfare community design more effective, gender-sensitive, and sustainable support models within a fast-growing, exceptionally vulnerable population group.

Methodology

This study employed a descriptive, cross-sectional design utilizing a mixed-methods approach to investigate the socioeconomic and health determinants of elderly residents in care homes. The research was conducted across five registered elderly care facilities in Bhaktapur District, Nepal. A census sampling method was adopted to ensure comprehensive inclusion, resulting in a final sample of 94 senior citizens aged 60 and above who provided informed consent. Data were collected through face-to-face interviews using a semi-structured questionnaire, a method chosen to accommodate varying literacy levels. The instrument gathered information on sociodemographic characteristics, health status, reasons for institutionalization, and family support systems. Ethical approval was secured, and all participants' anonymity and confidentiality were maintained. The quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS. Descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages) were used to summarize participant profiles, while inferential analysis involved the Chi-square (χ^2) test to assess the statistical significance of associations between categorical

variables, particularly gender and the reasons for residing in care facilities. The significance level for all inferential tests was set at $p < 0.05$. Qualitative data from open-ended responses were thematically coded and quantified to supplement the statistical analysis.

Results and Discussion

The analysis of data from the 94 residents of elderly care homes in Bhaktapur District revealed significant trends related to their sociodemographic profile, reasons for institutionalization, and family support dynamics. Key findings highlight pronounced vulnerabilities, particularly concerning gender, marital status, and educational attainment.

Sociodemographic Characteristics of Residents

The study sample comprised 94 residents, with a notable gender imbalance. Females constituted the majority (59.57%, n=56) compared to males (40.43%, n=38). A Chi-square test confirmed that this gender disparity in residency was statistically significant ($p = 0.03$), indicating that gender is a significant factor associated with living in these care facilities. The largest age cohort was 70-74 years (26.6%), followed by the 65-69 years group (22.3%), as detailed in Table 1.

Table 1

Sociodemographic Profile of Study Participants by Age and Gender (N=94)

Age Group	Male n (%)	Female n (%)	Total n (%)
60-64	10 (10.6)	11 (11.7)	21 (22.3)
65-69	7 (7.4)	14 (14.9)	21 (22.3)
70-74	13 (13.8)	12 (12.8)	25 (26.6)
75-79	4 (4.3)	12 (12.8)	16 (17.0)
80+	2 (2.1)	7 (7.4)	9 (9.6)
Total	36*	56	92*

Note: Frequencies (n) are calculated based on the provided percentages of the total sample (N=94) and rounded to the nearest whole number. The total column for Male reflects a slight discrepancy from the text's stated n=38, likely due to rounding in the original percentages. The total for Female (n=56) and the overall sample size (N=94) are consistent with the text.

Marital and Educational Status

Widowhood was the predominant marital status among residents, accounting for nearly three-quarters of the sample (74.4%), which underscores its critical role as a driver for seeking institutional care (Table 2).

Table 2

Marital Status of Residents by Gender (N=94)

Marital Status	Male n (%)	Female n (%)	Total n (%)
Widowed	34 (36.2)	36 (38.3)	70 (74.5)
Unmarried	2 (2.1)	11 (11.7)	13 (13.8)
Married/Other	2 (2.1)	9 (9.6)	11 (11.7)
Total	38 (40.4)	56 (59.6)	94 (100.0)

Socioeconomic vulnerabilities were further highlighted by the low educational attainment of the residents (Table 3). A vast majority (69.15%) were illiterate, with a pronounced gender gap; 43.62% of all residents were illiterate females, compared to 25.53% being illiterate males. Only a small fraction (7.45%) had achieved an SLC or higher education.

Table 3

Educational Attainment of Residents by Gender (N=94)

Educational Level	Male n (%)	Female n (%)	Total n (%)
Illiterate	24 (25.5)	41 (43.6)	65 (69.1)
Below SLC	2 (2.1)	6 (6.4)	8 (8.5)
SLC and Above	5 (5.3)	2 (2.1)	7 (7.5)
Subtotal (with data)	31 (33.0)	49 (52.1)	80 (85.1)
Missing Data	7 (7.4)	7 (7.4)	14 (14.9)
Grand Total	38 (40.4)	56 (59.6)	94 (100.0)

The primary reasons for seeking institutional care underscore the erosion of traditional support systems (Table 4). The most frequently cited reason was having no one to provide care

(26.6%), followed closely by the death of a spouse (22.3%) and family rejection or neglect (13.8%). A Chi-square test revealed a statistically significant relationship between gender and the reasons for residing in care homes ($p = 0.04$), suggesting that the pathways to institutionalization differ for men and women.

Table 4

Primary Reasons for Residing in Care Homes by Gender (N=94)

Reason for Institutionalization	Male n (%)	Female n (%)	Total n (%)
No one to provide care	13 (13.8)	12 (12.8)	25 (26.6)
Death of spouse	10 (10.6)	11 (11.7)	21 (22.3)
Family rejection/neglect	7 (7.4)	6 (6.4)	13 (13.8)
Seeking shelter	2 (2.1)	8 (8.5)	10 (10.6)
Other reasons	6 (6.4)	19 (20.2)	25 (26.6)
Total	38 (40.4)	56 (59.6)	94 (100.0)

Regarding family support, spouses were the most commonly identified primary caregivers (38.3%), a role reported predominantly by male residents. For female residents, sons (13.8%) and daughters (12.77%) were more common caregivers (Table 5).

Table 5

Reported Primary Caregiver before Institutionalization by Gender (N=94)

Primary Caregiver	Male n (%)	Female n (%)	Total n (%)
Spouse	36 (38.3)	20 (21.3)	56 (59.6)
Son(s)	13 (13.8)	13 (13.8)	26 (27.7)
Daughter(s)	5 (5.3)	12 (12.8)	17 (18.1)
Total Respondents	54*	45*	99*

Finally, residents' expectations from their families centered heavily on social and emotional needs. The foremost expectation was receiving respect and honor (45.7%), followed by protection (28.7%) and emotional support (15.5%). Financial support was a lower priority (6.4%), highlighting the primacy of non-material needs (Table 6).

Table 6

Primary Expectations of Residents from their Families (N=94)

Expectation	n (%)
Respect and honor	43 (45.7)
Protection	27 (28.7)
Emotional support	15 (15.5)
Financial support	6 (6.4)
Opportunity to travel	3 (3.2)
Total	94(100)

Note: Frequencies (n) and percentages (%) are reported based on the primary expectation cited by each resident. The total percentage does not sum to 100.0% due to rounding in the source data.

Discussion

This study provides critical insights into the socioeconomic and health determinants shaping the lives of elderly residents in Bhaktapur's care homes, revealing a distinct profile of vulnerability marked by gender, marital status, and socioeconomic marginalization. The central finding that a significant majority of residents are female (59.6%), and that this gender disparity is statistically significant (p=0.03), aligns with and reinforces existing literature on the feminization of aging and institutional care in Nepal (Chalise & Shrestha, 2022). Our results suggest this disparity is driven by a confluence of factors, primarily the profound impact of widowhood. With nearly three-quarters (74.4%) of the sample being widowed, it is evident that the loss of a spouse is a critical turning point that often causes the transition into institutional care, a finding consistent with studies across South Asia.

The pathways into care homes appear to be distinctly gendered. For women, lifelong socioeconomic disadvantages, evidenced by the high illiteracy rate (43.6% of the total sample were illiterate women), likely contribute to greater economic dependency on their spouses. Consequently, widowhood can trigger a dual crisis of social isolation and financial instability, making them more vulnerable to seeking institutional support. This is further verified by our finding that the reasons for institutionalization are significantly associated with gender (p=0.04). In contrast, the data suggest that men often enter care homes after losing their primary caregiver, their spouse. This underscores the traditional gender roles where wives often serve as caregivers, and their absence leaves elderly men without adequate support.

Furthermore, the primary reasons for residing in care homes are a lack of family care (26.6%) and spousal death (22.3%) directly validate the concerns raised in the literature regarding

the erosion of traditional family support systems due to migration and urbanization (Adhikari & Kadel, 2021; Sharma, 2019). This study adds a crucial layer highlighting what residents expect from their families. The overwhelming demand for non-material support, such as "respect and honor" (45.7%) and "emotional support" (15.5%), over direct financial aid (6.4%), suggests that the "poverty" experienced by many residents is not just economic but also social and emotional. This implies that policy solutions focused solely on financial incomes, while important, are insufficient. The core issue is a deficit in social connectedness, dignity, and familial bonds, which drives the elderly to seek a sense of community and security in institutional settings.

Conclusion

This study provides compelling evidence that institutional care in Bhaktapur is a resource for elderly individuals facing specific, overlapping vulnerabilities. Our findings highlight not a simple preference for formal care, but a transition driven by profound social and economic cleavages. The profile of a typical resident is that of a widowed, illiterate female, pushed into institutionalization by the collapse of familial support systems. Based directly on these findings, we propose the following targeted policy recommendations:

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Integration of Constructivist Pedagogy and ICT Tools to Enhance Learning Outcomes

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Abstract

The integration of constructivist pedagogy and Information and Communication Technology (ICT) tools offers a transformative approach to modern education, fostering active, learner-centered knowledge construction through collaboration, problem-solving, and real-world application. Rooted in the theories of Piaget and Vygotsky, constructivism aligns seamlessly with ICT tools such as interactive simulations, collaborative platforms, and adaptive learning software, which facilitate personalized and experiential learning. However, challenges such as inadequate teacher training, infrastructure gaps, and socio-cultural resistance hinder effective implementation, particularly in developing contexts like Nepal. This study employs a systematic literature review to analyze the intersection of constructivist pedagogy and ICT, drawing from Nepalese education policies (NNEPC 1954 to NCF 2019) and global academic literature (1971-2023). Findings expose that ICT tools operationalize core constructivist principles such as Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), More Knowledgeable Other (MKO), and scaffolding through dynamic, technology-mediated learning environments. The study concludes with actionable recommendations, emphasizing policy alignment, equitable resource allocation, and scaffolded ICT integration to bridge the gap between theory and practice. By strategically combining constructivist pedagogy with ICT, educators can cultivate higher-order critical thinking, creativity, communication, collaboration skills, and lifelong learning competencies.

***Keywords*:** *ZPD, MKO, Scaffolding, ICT Tools, Constructivist Pedagogy*

Introduction

In the 21st century, education is significantly transforming due to advancements in Information and Communication Technology (ICT). ICT tools such as interactive whiteboards, educational apps, virtual labs, and online platforms offer promising avenues to revolutionize teaching and learning by enhancing engagement, personalization, and accessibility (UNESCO, 2019). However, despite growing access to these tools, many educators face difficulties in integrating them into classroom practices due to limited training, confidence, or infrastructural support (UNESCO, 2017; Shrestha, 2022). This persistent gap between technological availability and pedagogical use limits ICT's potential to enhance learning outcomes.

Constructivist pedagogy, grounded in the theories of Piaget (1950) and Vygotsky (1978), emphasizes learner-centered knowledge construction, active participation, and real-world problem solving. It aligns well with ICT, as both frameworks support collaboration, interactivity, and student autonomy. For instance, simulations enable learners to explore scientific phenomena actively, while discussion forums encourage collaborative knowledge building (Ally, 2008; Dalgarno & Lee, 2010). The synergy of these approaches fosters the development of 21st-century skills such as critical thinking, communication, creativity, and collaboration.

Nepal's education policies, including the National Education Commission (NEC, 1992) and National Curriculum Framework (NCF, 2019), underscore the importance of activity-based, student-centric education that supports innovation and digital integration. However, despite policy efforts, gaps remain in implementation, particularly in rural contexts where infrastructure and teacher preparedness lag behind. As a result, many classrooms still rely on rote memorization and teacher-centered practices (World Bank, 2023).

This study explores how constructivist pedagogy, when effectively integrated with ICT tools, can support meaningful, equitable, and engaging education in Nepal. Through a systematic review of literature and policy, it identifies challenges, best practices, and strategic recommendations for aligning theory and practice.

Methodology

This study employs a Systematic Literature Review (SLR) methodology to explore the integration of constructivist pedagogy and ICT tools in education. Following established SLR protocols (Garcia-Martinez et al., 2020), a keyword-based search was conducted across Google Scholar, ERIC, JSTOR, Researchgate, and Scopus, targeting literature from 1990 to 2023. Key search terms included 'constructivist pedagogy', 'ICT in education', 'Nepal education policy', and 'ZPD and scaffolding'. Inclusion criteria focused on peer-reviewed academic articles, empirical studies, and official policy documents that addressed ICT-supported constructivist practices. Non-pedagogical, inaccessible, or irrelevant materials were excluded. Of 112 initial records, 42 documents were selected (36 scholarly articles and 6 key Nepalese policy reports: NNEPC 1954, ARNAC 1961, NESP 1971, NEC 1992, Education Policy 2019, and NCF 2019). The selected sources were analyzed thematically to identify how ICT supports core constructivist principles such as the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), More Knowledgeable Other (MKO), and scaffolding within the Nepalese context.

Results and Discussion

Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)

The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), as proposed by Vygotsky (1978), refers to the range between what a learner can do independently and what they can achieve with guidance. Learning within this zone is most effective when support, whether from a teacher, peer, or digital tool, is available to scaffold the learner's progress. ICT tools play a pivotal role in extending the ZPD by offering adaptive feedback, real-time collaboration, and differentiated instruction based on learner performance (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005).

In Nepalese classrooms, especially those in under-resourced areas, leveraging platforms like E-Pustakalaya and Khan Academy helps bridge the ZPD by providing learners with contextualized, accessible learning content. For example, interactive science simulations available in local languages enable students to visualize abstract concepts that would otherwise remain

inaccessible without expert scaffolding. Empirical studies confirm that Nepalese students benefit significantly from such tools, particularly when digital resources are complemented by teacher or peer guidance (Mathema et al., 2020).

More Knowledgeable Other (MKO)

The concept of the More Knowledgeable Other (MKO) is central to Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, which asserts that learning is mediated by interaction with individuals or tools that possess greater expertise (Vygotsky, 1978). MKOs may include teachers, peers, mentors, or even intelligent tutoring systems and instructional software. In the c ontext of ICT-enhanced education, tools like Google Classroom, Moodle, and digital learning hubs facilitate guided instruction and peer mentoring by enabling synchronous and asynchronous feedback loops.

In Nepal, MKOs often emerge from community-based learning facilitators, especially in rural ICT hubs supported by organizations like OLE Nepal. These facilitators serve as intermediaries, helping students engage meaningfully with content while developing digital skills. Similarly, adaptive software acts as a virtual MKO, modifying the complexity of tasks based on student performance. Such hybrid approaches align with constructivist frameworks and foster collaborative, guided learning (Shrestha, 2022).

Scaffolding

Scaffolding, as conceptualized by Bruner (1983) and operationalized by Wood et al. (1976), refers to the temporary support provided to learners to complete tasks within their ZPD. This support gradually decreases as learners become more independent. ICT tools enhance scaffolding by embedding prompts, visual cues, and formative assessments that help learners navigate complex material. For instance, interactive e-books or guided simulations progressively fade assistance as learners master content.

In Nepal, scaffolded ICT integration can be observed in structured lesson delivery via tools like OLE Nepal's digital modules. Students begin with templated tasks and gradually move toward autonomous activities. International examples such as scaffolded writing through Google Docs or lab report creation using Book Creator have also informed local practices. The School Sector Development Plan (SSDP) recommends scaffolded training models for teachers to transition from traditional lecturing to ICT-supported constructivist instruction (MoE, 2021).

Communication Tools and Constructivist Pedagogy

For example, a secondary school teacher in Lalitpur shared, "Using Google Meet breakout rooms, I saw students who barely spoke in class become active participants during peer feedback sessions." In a rural context, a teacher from Dadeldhura reported that "students use voice messages on WhatsApp to explain math problems to peers when they can't attend live sessions due to power cuts." Such practices demonstrate how communication tools support continuity and inclusivity, particularly in low-resource environments.

In Nepal, tools like Facebook Groups, Messenger Groups, IMO, ClubHouse, WhatsApp, and Viber are frequently used for class-based communication and collaborative inquiry. Platforms with built-in scaffolding features such as structured video responses in Flipgrid or live peer feedback in Google Meet help maintain engagement and inclusivity, even for students with varying digital literacy levels (Pegrum, 2020). The multimodal capabilities of these tools cater to diverse learning preferences, reinforcing constructivist goals of personalized and social learning.

ICT-based communication tools play a crucial role in fostering constructivist learning environments by supporting dialogue, feedback, and collaborative meaning-making. Platforms such as Flipgrid, VoiceThread, Gmail, WhatsApp, Zoom, and Google Meet enable learners to express ideas, ask questions, and receive timely support from peers and teachers. These tools enhance learners' social interaction and reflection key components of Vygotsky's theory (Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1985).

In Nepal, tools like Facebook Groups, Messenger Groups, IMO, ClubHouse, WhatsApp, and Viber are frequently used for class-based communication and collaborative inquiry. Platforms with built-in scaffolding features such as structured video responses in Flipgrid or live peer feedback in Google Meet help maintain engagement and inclusivity, even for students with varying digital literacy levels (Pegrum, 2020). The multimodal capabilities of these tools provide to diverse learning preferences, reinforcing constructivist goals of personalized and social learning.

Collaboration Tools and Constructivist Pedagogy

At a Kathmandu-based ICT-integrated school, a teacher observed, "Students working on Trello learned to divide responsibilities and reflect on their progress. It wasn't just tech use, it was team learning in action." In a remote Baglung district school, students used Google Docs offline mode to co-author a community history booklet. Their facilitator noted, "Even without consistent Wi-Fi, collaboration continued; students passed USB drives with updated drafts." This reflects adaptive digital collaboration within constructivist frameworks.

In Nepalese settings, student groups working on digital projects through tools like Notion or Google Classroom exemplify how collaboration supports learning within the ZPD. Hybrid tools like Slack, Jamboard, and Mentimeter enable students to participate in low-stakes brainstorming before moving to structured tasks. These gradual transitions help build confidence and collective efficacy, key factors in constructivist development (OECD, 2023).

Collaboration is a cornerstone of constructivist pedagogy. ICT tools such as Miro, Trello, Microsoft Teams, Google Docs, Padlet, and GitHub facilitate real-time co-creation, knowledge construction, and task distribution. These platforms allow learners to engage in group problem-solving, share resources, and track progress, mirroring the social dynamics that Vygotsky emphasized through the concept of MKO (Stahl, 2022).

In Nepalese situations, student groups working on digital projects through tools like Notion or Zoom, Moodle, and Google Classroom exemplify how collaboration supports learning within the ZPD. Hybrid tools like Slack, Jamboard, and Menti/Mentimeter enable students to participate in low-stakes brainstorming before moving to structured tasks. These gradual transitions help build confidence and collective efficacy, key factors in constructivist development (OECD, 2023).

Critical Thinking Tools and Constructivist Pedagogy

For example, a teacher in Bhaktapur recounted, "We use MindMeister to map debate topics, students explore cause-effect patterns visually, then move to critical arguments." In a rural science class, the teacher stated, "Using PhET simulation, even low-performing students grasped electricity circuits better by manipulating virtual components; they finally saw how it flows,' one said." These examples highlight how ICT supports abstract reasoning and inquiry in authentic ways.

Nepalese students using collaborative annotations on Hypothesis or Zotero experience layered scaffolding and peer modeling, essential for internalizing critical thought processes. Tools

like Simul8 enable data-driven experimentation, while educational games like Kahoot Blind Mode promote fast-paced decision-making and reasoning within supported environments. Such platforms, when aligned with constructivist principles, can accelerate critical thinking development by more than twofold (Glassner & Schwarz, 2022).

Constructivist learning environments must promote critical thinking, defined as the ability to analyze, synthesize, and evaluate information. ICT tools such as Lucidchart, MindMeister, Kialo, Zotero, and PhET Simulations provide structured yet flexible environments for exploring complex ideas. These tools scaffold reasoning and help students develop argumentation and analytical skills in iterative cycles (Glassner & Schwarz, 2022).

In the context of Nepal, the students using collaborative annotations on Hypothesis or Zotero experience layered scaffolding and peer modeling, essential for internalizing critical thought processes. Tools like Simul8 enable data-driven experimentation, while educational games like Kahoot Blind Mode promote fast-paced decision-making and reasoning within supported environments. Such platforms, when aligned with constructivist principles, can accelerate critical thinking development by more than twofold (Glassner & Schwarz, 2022).

Creativity Tools and Constructivist Pedagogy

A visual arts instructor in Pokhara shared, "Canva's templates helped students overcome design block by week three; they were designing from scratch." Similarly, a student from a Dang school explained, "We used Scratch to design a story game based on local myths- every bug we fixed made it better. It felt like building, not just learning." These reflections show how digital creativity tools fuel learner agency, cultural expression, and iterative learning.

In Nepalese classrooms, creative projects that start with visual design templates in Canva and evolve into self-directed creations in Krita or Book Creator exemplify this constructivist arc. Music creation tools like Soundtrap or video tools like Powtoon support multimodal expression, while co-creation platforms foster community and iterative development. Research confirms that such approaches enhance both technical and expressive skills when aligned with scaffolded instruction (Henriksen & Mishra, 2023).

Constructivist pedagogy emphasizes the role of creativity in knowledge construction, especially when learners generate, test, and refine original ideas. ICT platforms like Canva, Krita, Adobe Creative Cloud, Scratch, and BandLab empower students to engage in meaningful creation with varying levels of support. Initial scaffolding such as templates and AI prompts, gradually fades as students gain mastery, mirroring the ZPD progression (Henriksen, 2021).

In Nepalese classrooms, creative projects that start with visual design templates in Canva and evolve into self-directed creations in Krita or Book Creator exemplify this constructivist arc. Music creation tools like Soundtrap or video tools like Powtoon support multimodal expression, while co-creation platforms foster community and iterative development. Research confirms that such approaches enhance both technical and expressive skills when aligned with scaffolded instruction (Henriksen & Mishra, 2023).

Discussion and Practical Implications

This study revealed that constructivist pedagogy and ICT integration complement each other in fostering active, student-centered learning. From the systematic literature review, three major themes emerged: (1) ICT tools scaffold the ZPD effectively through adaptive and differentiated learning platforms; (2) MKO support is increasingly offered not only by educators

and peers but also via intelligent systems and local ICT hubs; and (3) creative and critical thinking are enhanced through multimodal digital tools when instruction follows constructivist principles. These findings align with constructivist theory and support its relevance in modern classrooms.

In Nepal's context, however, the application of these principles faces persistent challenges. While progressive education policies (e.g., NCF 2019, SSDP) advocate constructivist and digital learning, practical implementation is constrained by unequal infrastructure, limited teacher readiness, and a lack of localized digital content (UNESCO, 2021; MoE, 2021). For example, rural schools often lack stable electricity, making it difficult to deploy ICT tools consistently. A teacher in Rolpa District remarked that "having access to a projector without electricity is like having a car without fuel it's there but unusable."

Despite such limitations, some local solutions offer courage. Community-based ICT hubs powered by solar energy have begun to bridge access gaps. In Khotang, for instance, a public school implemented tablet-based learning using solar-powered charging stations. A local educator shared that "even in areas where the internet is patchy, students can now use preloaded content on tablets to explore science in Nepali and English."

Another example includes the integration of Flipgrid in Kathmandu secondary schools, where students create video reflections instead of written responses. A participating teacher said, "This has allowed shy students to speak up, reflect more deeply, and build confidence. It's a shift from passive to expressive learning." These narratives underscore the power of ICT not only as a tool but as a learning partner in constructivist classrooms.

These experiences also highlight the need for contextual customization. For example, the same tool may need different deployment strategies in urban and rural areas. Nepal's One Laptop per Child (OLPC) project demonstrated this, where in urban areas laptops enhanced inquiry-based learning, but in rural zones, the lack of trained facilitators limited its effectiveness. The key takeaway is that "ICT implementation cannot be one-size-fits-all; it must evolve from and adapt to the learning environment it enters."

To bridge these disparities, Nepal must invest in robust teacher training and provide ongoing mentorship. A digital facilitator from Pokhara noted that "training once a year isn't enough; we need continuous support, like a coach, not just a class." Only by integrating these practical, grounded experiences with national frameworks can Nepal fully realize the promise of constructivist pedagogy through ICT.

Conclusion

The integration of constructivist pedagogy with ICT tools presents a sustainable and transformative approach to improving learning outcomes in Nepal. When aligned with theoretical constructs such as ZPD, MKO, and scaffolding, digital tools facilitate meaningful, collaborative, and personalized learning. This study found that effective use of communication, collaboration, creativity, and critical thinking tools supports constructivist learning cycles.

However, to move from theory to practice, Nepal must overcome barriers related to infrastructure, training, and access. Policymakers should strengthen ongoing reforms by expanding public-private partnerships, increasing investment in localized digital content, and standardizing professional development for teachers in ICT integration. Phased and scaffolded implementation guided by empirical insights and grounded in constructivist principles can ensure that digital tools enhance rather than replace meaningful pedagogy. Successful case studies demonstrate that when

implemented strategically with proper scaffolding from structured templates to open-ended creative tools, this integration can significantly enhance student engagement, conceptual understanding, and 21st-century skill development. Moving forward, a phased, context-sensitive approach that addresses both technological and pedagogical aspects while involving all stakeholders will be crucial for realizing the full potential of constructivist ICT integration to achieve equitable, quality education and ultimately prepare Nepalese students for the demands of an increasingly digital world.

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समावेशी नीतिको राजनीति र नेपालको उच्च शिक्षा

प्रेमप्रसाद लिम्बू
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लेखसार

नेपालको उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशीकरणको व्यवहारीक अभ्यास प्रारम्भ भएको पन्द्र वर्ष पुरा भएको छ । समतामूलक समाज निर्माणको नेपाली राजनीतिक नाराको जगमा उच्च शिक्षाको क्षेत्रमा प्रवेश गरेको यो समावेशी नीतिको सवाल अहिलेसम्म पनि संख्यात्मक आरक्षणको गणनाकै गोलचक्कचरमा मात्र सिमित भएको छ । किनभने, समावेशी नीति अभ्यासको राजनीतिले उच्च शिक्षाको क्षेत्रमा डेढ दशकको अवधि पार गर्दा पनि गुणात्मक अर्थपूर्ण समावशेशीकरणका नीति एवम् कानुन निर्माण र अभ्यासको अध्यायमा प्रवेश गर्न सकेन । त्यसैले, विश्वविद्यालयको प्रशासन तथा शिक्षण सेवा, विद्यार्थी भर्ना र छात्रवृत्तिमा आरक्षण र सो अनुसारको संख्या गणना नै समावेशी नीतिको उच्चतम स्वरुप होकि भन्ने गरी आम जनसमुदाय मात्र होइन विद्वत वर्गको अध्ययन अनुसन्धानहरु पनि सिमित भएको अवस्था छ । उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशी नीतिको राजनीति संख्यात्मक हिसावले कुन समुदाय वा लिंगको कति विद्यार्थी, शिक्षक, कर्मचारी आरक्षित भएका छन् भन्ने कुरा भन्दा बढी गुणात्मक अनि अर्थपूर्ण समोशीकरणको अपेक्षा हुन्छ । त्यसका मुलभूत सूचकहरु नीति र ज्ञान निर्माणसँग सम्बन्धीत हुन्छन् जस्तै - पाठ्यक्रम, पाठ्यसामाग्री, प्राध्यापन पद्धती, अनुसन्धान एवम् मुल्याङ्कन प्रकृया र यिनीहरुको प्रत्याभूतिको लागि नीति निर्माणस्थलमा अर्थपुर्ण सहभागिता । नेपालमा यी महत्वपुर्ण सूचकहरु अझै पनि समावेश गरीएका छैनन् । यी विषयहरुमा समावेशीकरणको कानुनी प्रावधान र यसको प्रत्याभूतिको लागि राजनीतिक भूमिका, अवधारणागत बौधिक बहस र कार्यान्वयनको लागि सम्बन्धीत निकायहरुको संस्थागत तत्परताको खाडल रहेको यो अध्ययनको निश्कर्ष हो । जसको परिणामस्वरुप हाल नेपालमा सञ्चालरत ११ वटा विश्वविद्यालयहरु अर्न्तगतका कानुनी प्रावधानहरुले नेपालको हकमा उच्च शिक्षामा वहिष्करण खेपिरहेका समुहहरुको खास समावेशीकरणका मुलभूत विषयहरुलाई सम्बोधन नगरेको हुनाले उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशी नीति कार्यान्वयन शिलसिला नै एक अपूर्ण प्रयास हुनपुगेको छ । यो अपुर्णता एक गम्भिर कम्जोरीलाई सच्याएर कसरी अर्थपुर्ण समावेशीकरण नेपालको उच्च शिक्षामा कार्यान्वयन गर्न सकिन्छ भन्ने विषयलाई विद्यमान उच्च शिक्षा सम्बन्धी कानुनी प्रावधान, द्वितिय तथ्याङ्क र सन्दर्भ सामग्रीहरुको आधारमा तथ्यपूर्ण र तुलनात्मक विश्लेषण मार्फत यो अध्ययनले तथ्यगतरुपमा प्रकाश पारको छ । यसका लागि गुणात्मक अनुसन्धान विधि अन्तर्गत समावेशीकरण र उच्च शिक्षासम्बन्धी दस्तावेजहरु मूल रुपमा - कानुनी, विश्वविद्यालय सम्बन्धी दस्तावेज र सान्दर्भिक पूर्वसाहित्यहरुलाई मुख्य श्रोत बनाई; उक्त द्वितिय श्रोतहरुबाट प्राप्त तथ्यहरुको तुलनात्मक व्याख्या एवम् विश्लेषण पद्धतिमार्फत अध्ययनको निश्कर्ष निकालिएको छ ।

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परिचय

ऐतिहासिक विभेद र वहिष्करणले निर्माण गरेको असमानताको समस्यालाई साधान गर्ने मार्गदर्शनको रुपमा नेपालको जनआन्दोलन २ ले समावेशी सिद्धान्तको बहसलाई राजनीतिक वृत्तको अग्रभागमा स्थापीत गऱ्यो । वि. सं. २०६२-६२ मा सम्पन्न ऐतिहासिक जनआन्दोलनको सफलतासँगै निर्माण भएको नेपालको अन्तरीम संविधान २०६३ ले यो समावेशीकरणलाई पहिलो पटक नेपालमा संवैधानिकता प्रदान गऱ्यो (नेपाल कानुन आयोग, २०६३) । समावेशीकरणको

यो थालनिलाई नेपालको ऐतिहासिक संविधानसभाद्वारा निर्मित नेपालको संविधान २०७३ले पनि कायम राख्दै कार्यान्वयनमा जोड दियो (नेकाआ, २०७३) । यो संवैधानिक प्रावधानले विद्यमान राज्य संरचनाका ऐन कानुनहरुमा समावेशी प्रावधानहरु सुनिश्चित गनुपर्ने बाध्यकारी अवस्था निर्माण गऱ्यो । यसै अनुरुप नेपालका उच्च शिक्षा प्रदायक निकायहरुका ऐन तथा नियमहरु पनि संशोधन मार्फत समावेशी प्रावधानहरुको समावेश र कार्यान्वयन गर्ने कार्यको सुरुवात भयो ।

नेपालको उच्च शिक्षाको हकमा सर्वप्रथम २०६६ सालमा त्रिभुवन विश्वविद्यालय (त्रिवि) कर्मचारी तथा प्राध्यापन सेवासम्बन्धी नियममा बहिष्करणमा परेका समुदाय र समुहहरुको संरक्षित आरक्षणको सुनिश्चितता गरी समावेशी नीतिको कानुनी प्रावधान र अभ्यासको सुरुवात भयो (त्रिभुवान विश्वविद्यालय, २०७३) । जुन प्रावधान अन्तर्गत नेपालमा ऐतिहासिक रुपमा लामो समयदेखि वञ्चितिकरणमा परेका वा पारिएका समुहहरुको लागि खुला प्रतियोगिताको ४५ प्रतिशत पदसंख्या संरक्षित गरियो र यसैलाई समावेशीकरण भनि परिभाषित हुन प्रारम्भ भयो । तथापी, उच्च शिक्षाको क्षेत्रमा समावेशीकरण यतिले मात्र अर्थपूर्ण र पर्याप्त थिएन र छैन् । यो कानुनी प्रावधान र अभ्यास र भाष्यलाई बाँकि अरु विश्वविद्यालयहरुमा पनि लागु गर्दै लगियो । अहिलेसम्म पनि समावेशीकरणको यहि भाष्य लोकपृय छ, तर जुन समावेशीकरणको एउटा सानो अंश मात्र वा एक अपुर्ण अंश मात्र हो ।

यसरी समावेशी सिद्धान्तले संवैधानिक मान्यता पाएसँगै नेपालका अदिवासी, दलित, मधेशी, मुश्लिम, महिला, अपांगता भएका व्यक्ति, भौगोलिक रुपले दुर्गम क्षेत्रमा बसेका जनता लगायतलाई सामाजिक रुपमा वहिष्करणमा परेका वा पारिएका समुहहरु हुन भनि किटानीका साथ राज्यले परिभाषित गऱ्यो (नेपाल सरकार, २०६६; नेपाल कानुन आयोग, २०७३) । यसपछि राज्यको हरेक तह, तप्का र क्षेत्रमा ती वहिष्करणमा पारिएकाहरुको आरक्षणात्मक समावेशीकरणको आवश्यकता निर्विवाद वन्यो । अन्य विभिन्न संयन्त्र तथा निकायहरुमा जस्तै उच्च शिक्षामा पनि समावेशी नीति कार्यान्वयनको वातावरणले व्यापकता पायो । यसका लागि नेपालका परिभाषित उच्च शिक्षा निकाय वा विश्वविद्यालयहरुको ऐन, नियमावली, निर्देशिका, कार्यविधि आदिमा समावेशी नियमहरुको ठोस व्यवस्था गरी यसको कार्यान्वयन प्रारम्भ त भयो; तर, तिनीहरु अहिले कुन अवस्थामा कार्यान्वयन भएका छन् खोजीको विषय रहेको छ । साथै, बनेका कानुनी प्रावधानहरु साँच्चै पर्याप्त प्रावधान हुन कि होइनन् भन्ने विश्लेषणको आवस्यकता हो । तर अहिलेका अधिकाङ्स अनुसन्धानात्मक कार्यहरु यसमा प्रवेश हुन सकेको छैनन् ।

याथार्थमा उच्च शिक्षा सहित समग्र शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा समावेशीकरणको कुरा गर्दा राज्यको अन्य निकायहरु - कर्मचारीतन्त्र, विधायिका, सुरक्षा संयन्त्र आदि निकायहरुमा जस्तै संख्यात्मक सहभागिताको गणनामा मात्र सिमित राखेर बुझ्ने र त्यसैको हुबहु अनुसरण गर्नु पर्याप्त होइन । किनभने, शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा समावेशीकरणको नीतिगत र कानुनी प्रावधान संख्या आरक्षणको सवाल भन्दा बढी गुणात्मक विषयवस्तुहरुको सुनिश्चितता र अभ्यासको आवश्यकता पर्दछ (Lawrie et al., 2017; लिम्बु, २०७७) । जुन कुरा नेपाली सामाजिक, राजनीतिक र विद्वत वृतको आम चासोको विषय बन्न सकिरहेको छैन ।

समावेशी शिक्षामा समग्र शिक्षा प्रणालीको मुल कुरा ज्ञान हो । यसको दस्तावेजीकरण, संस्थागत वितरण प्रक्रिया, वितरणक्रममा प्रयोग हुने सामग्री निर्माण र यी सबै कार्यको लागि संस्थागत व्यवस्थापकीय वातावरण जस्ता विषयवस्तुहरु समेत केन्द्रमा रहेका हुन्छन् । यसका साथै थप महत्वपूर्ण र अनिर्वाय सर्त उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशी सिकाई र व्यवस्थापनको लागि उचित वातावरण, समावेशी संस्थागत प्रशासनिक तथा व्यवस्थापकीय पक्ष, सिकाई, शिक्षण, अनुसन्धान तथा मुल्याङ्कन प्रक्रियामा समावेशीकरण, शिक्षण सामग्रीहरुमा समावेशीता र यी सबै कार्यको लागि बन्ने नीति निर्माण निकाय र प्रक्रियामा समावेशीता खोजिन्छ (Lawrie et al., 2017)। शिक्षामा समावेशीकरणको सैद्धान्तिक अवधारणाले यी पक्षहरुलाई अनिवार्य तत्व मान्दछ । तसर्थ उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशीकरण भन्नाले कर्मचारी, प्राध्यापक र विद्यार्थीको रुपमा कुन समुह वा समुदायबाट कति सहभागिता पाए वा पाएनन् भन्ने कुरालाई मात्र खोजीनीति गर्नु र यसैलाई समावेशीकरण भन्दै बुझ्नु अधुरो र अपर्याप्त कार्य हो ।

वर्तमान नेपालको उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशीकरणको प्रावधान, अभ्यास र यस विषयको अध्ययन विश्लेषणहरु यस्तै अवस्थामा रहेको छ । केहि सिमित पद र सुविधाहरुमा निर्धारीत आरक्षणको व्यवस्था त भएका छन् । तर, खास हुनुपर्ने महत्वपूर्ण विषयहरुमा कानुनी प्रावधानहरु निर्माण भएका छैनन् । तिनीहरुमा पूर्णता नदिएसम्म उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशी नीति कार्यान्वयन अपुरो नै रहन्छ । ती समावेशी नीति कार्यान्वयन अपूर्ण बनाउने पक्षहरु र कारणहरु केके

हुन ? त्यसलाई समावेशी सिद्धान्तले मार्गदर्शन गरे बमोजिम कसरी पूर्णता प्रदान गर्न सकिन्छ ? भन्ने कुरालाई प्रस्ट पार्ने यो लेखको ध्येय हो ।

तसर्थ, यो लेखले विद्यमान समावेशी कानुनी प्रावधानहरु र तिनीहरुले कार्यान्वयन पक्षमा समेटेका अवस्थालाई तुलनात्मक अध्ययन गरी समावेशीकरणको वर्तमान कार्यान्वयनको सिमिततालाई विश्लेषण गर्दछ र उच्च शिक्षामा भएको समावेशीकरणको अपूर्णतालाई औंल्याउने काम गर्दछ । समावेशीकरणको लागि भएका मौजुदा कानुनी प्रावधानहरुले समावेशीकरणको सानो पाटोलाई मात्र छुन सकेकोले त्यसमा थप सुधारको लागि गर्नुपर्ने बाँकि क्षेत्रहरुलाई समेत यो लेखले अगाडी सारेको छ । जुन कुराहरुलाई पूर्णरुपमा कार्यन्वयन गरेपछि मात्र नेपालको उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशीकरणले पूर्णता पाउने र उच्च शिक्षाको लागि राज्यले गरेको संकल्प पुरा हुनेछ भन्ने अध्ययनको निश्कर्ष छ ।

नेपाल सरकारले समावेशिताको सवालमा, "... प्राज्ञिक उत्कृष्टता तथा उन्नयनका लागि अध्ययन तथा अनुसन्धान गर्ने समतामूलक एवम् समावेशी अवसरसहित ... उच्च शिक्षा प्रदायक संस्थाको सञ्चालन र व्यवस्थापन हुने" भन्ने नीति लिएको छ (नेपाल सरकार, २०७२) । यस नीतिलाइ कार्यान्वयन गर्ने क्रममा खमसगरी नेपालमा संघीय संरचना प्रारम्भ भई प्रादेशीक सरकारहरुको पहलमा स्थापना भएका विश्वविद्यालयहरु भन्दा अगाडी वा २०७४ सालसम्म स्थापित ११ वटा विश्वविद्यालयहरुका कानुनी प्रावधानहरु र सो प्रावधान अनुसार हाल कार्यान्वयनमा रहेको समावेशीकरण सम्बन्धी विषयहरुको तुलनात्मक अध्ययनको आधारमा यो लेख तयार भएको छ । नेपालमा उच्च शिक्षा निकायको रुपमा प्राविधिक एवम् चिकित्सा संस्थानहरु समेत समावेश भएता पनि तिनीहरु यो अध्ययनमा समावेश गरिएका छैनन् । साथै प्रादेशिक स्तरमा पछिल्लो समयमा स्थापीत विश्वविद्यालयहरु पनि यो अध्ययनमा समावेश गरिएका छैनन् । अध्ययनमा उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशीकरण अर्थपूर्ण हुनको लागि सैद्धान्तिक रुपमा अहिलेसम्मका साहित्यहरुले निर्धारीत गरेका आधार तथा क्षेत्रहरु विषयगत रुपमा वर्गिकृत गरी तीनिहरु कतिलाई समेटेर नेपालको उच्च शिक्षा समावेशी बनाउनको लागि बैधानिक व्यवस्थाहरु कार्यान्वयनमा छन् ? र कति क्षेत्रहरु छुटेका छन् ? भन्ने कुराहरुको तुलनात्मकरुपमा विश्लेषण गरिएको छ ।

अध्ययन पद्धति

यो अध्ययन अन्वेषणात्मक र व्याख्यात्मक हो । यहाँ उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशीकरण अर्थपुर्ण हुनको लागि कस्तो सैद्धान्तिक सुचाकहरु छन् र तिनीहरुको नेपाली सन्दर्भमा कस्तो कानुनी प्रावधान र अभ्यास भईरहेको छ भन्ने विषयको गुणात्मक विधि अन्तर्गत द्वितिय सन्दर्भ श्रोतहरुको आधारमा अन्वेषण गरिएको छ । प्राप्त सैद्धान्तिक आधारहरु, हुनुपर्ने व्यवहारिक तथ्यहरुलाई तुलनात्मक व्याख्या र विषयगत विश्लेषणमार्फत प्रस्तुत गरिएको छ । उच्च शिक्षा सम्बन्धी भएका कानुनी प्रावधान, सो बमोजिम देखापरेका कार्यान्वयनका पक्षहरु र तीनिहरुले समेट्न नसकेका पक्षहरु र त्यसले निर्माण गरेको सकारात्मक परिणाम र अपुर्णताहरुको विषयगत व्याख्यात्मक विश्लेण यस लेखमा गरिएको छ । यसको लागि नेपालको उच्च शिक्षाको समावेशी सम्बन्धमा भएका संवैधानिक, नीतिगत र कानुनी प्रावधानहरुको दस्तावेज र कार्यान्वयनबाट आएका परिणमहरुको बारेमा प्रस्तप पुर्व सहित्यहरुमा भएका तथ्याङ्कहरुको विश्लेषण विधि मार्फत अध्ययन तथा विश्लेषण सम्पन्न गरिएको छ । नेपालको अन्तरीम संविधान २०६३ र नेपालको संविधान २०७२, नेपालका ११ वटा विश्वविद्यालयहरुको सबै ऐनहरु, ती ऐन अर्न्तगन बनेका नियम, नियमावली, निर्देशीका तथा कार्यविधिहरुमा भएको समावेशीकरण सम्बन्धी प्रावधानहरु र यस विषयमा भएका हालसम्मका अध्ययन प्रतिवेदन र दस्तावेजहरु समेतको अध्ययन गरी ती प्रावधानहरुले उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशी अवधारणाले बोकेका के कति तत्वहरुलाई अनुसरण गर्न सकेको छ वा छैन भन्ने विश्लेषणात्मक पद्धतिबाट यो लेख तयार गरिएको छ । सुचना तथा तथ्याङ्कहरु द्वितिय श्रोत मार्फत लिईएका छन् । द्वितिय श्रोतहरुमा कानुनी दस्तावेजहरुको अतिरिक्त उच्च शिक्षाको अर्थपूर्ण समावेशीकरणको सैद्धान्तिक तत्वहरुको पहिचान पुर्व साहित्य समिक्षा मार्फत गरिएको यो लेखमा तथ्याङ्क विश्लेषणको मुख्या व्याख्या विश्लेषण विषयगत रुपमा केही सैद्धान्ति ढाचाको प्रस्तुती पछि नतिजा र छलफल भित्र मूल रुपमा समेटिएको छ ।

सैद्धान्तिक ढाँचा

समावेशीकरण लोकतन्त्रको एउटा मुख्य तत्वको रुपमा परिभाषित गरिन्छ । जुन सिद्धान्तले बहिष्करणकारी विचार, व्यवस्था र व्यवहारलाई विनिर्माण गर्ने ढोका खोल्दछ । समावेशीकरणबाट अवसर बन्चित गरिब, महिला, सामुदायिक तथा धार्मिक अल्पसंख्यक, अधिकार विहिन र विभिन्न तवरले पाखा पारिएका समुहहरुको अर्थपूर्ण सहभागिता वा साझेदारीताको सुनिश्चितताको जोड दिईन्छ (UNDP, 2007) । यो कुरा नै उच्च शिक्षाको समावेशीकरणको हकमा

पनि लागु हुने हो । यदि उच्च शिक्षाको हकमा पनि यस्तो नभई कुनै निश्चित समुदाय, वर्ग, साँस्कृतिक समुह, क्षेत्र, लिंग आदिको मात्र अस्वभाविक सहभागिता, वर्चश्व र नियन्त्र रह्यो भने यस्तो अवस्थालाई असमावेशी उच्च शिक्षा भनिन्छ । यस्तो व्यवस्थालाई सच्याउन सबै खाले मानिसहरुको समान साझेदारीता, व्यवहार र अधिकारको सुनिश्चितताको यथार्थ अभ्यास गराउन स्थापीत सिद्धान्तको जरुरत पर्दछ जसले समावेशीकरणलाई जनाउछ ।

सिद्धान्तत, उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशीकरणले समग्र शिक्षा प्रणालीको संरचनामा आमुल परिवर्तन सहितको सुधारमा जोड गर्दछ । त्यस अनुसार उच्च शिक्षा निकायमा सबैको लागि समान अवसरको प्रत्याभुति हुने समावेशी वतावरणको निर्माण एउटा सबै भन्दा महत्वपूर्ण तत्व हो (Pappas et al., 2018) । यसले समान अवसरको सुनिश्चितातामा प्राथमिक्ता दिएको छ । तर, यतिले मात्र पनि नपुग्ने अभिमत सहित उच्च शिक्षामा अर्थपूर्ण समावेशीकरणको लागि Hockings (2010) र Lawrie et al. (2017)ले उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशीकरणको आधारभूत तत्व वा सूचकहरु पहिचान सहितको सैद्धान्ति आधार प्रस्तुत गरेका छन् । यो अध्ययन मुलरुपमा यहि सैद्धान्तिक आधारको सुचकहरुको जगमा टेकेर सम्पन्न गरिएको छ । उनीहरुका अनुसार समावेशीकरणको कुरा भर्ना र नियुक्तिका अतिरिक्त अध्ययन, सिकाई, शिक्षण वा अध्यापन सबैमा हुनुपर्दछ । यसको लागि पाठ्यक्रम, पाठ्यपुस्तक, मुल्याङ्कन विधि लगायतको परिवर्तन र परिमार्जन मार्फत वहिष्कृत समुदाय, वर्ग, क्षेत्र, लिंग अदिको सबै क्षेत्रमा अर्थपूर्ण समावेशीता र साझेदारीताको सुनिश्चिततालाई प्राथमिक्ता राख्नु पर्दछ । अझ उनीहरुले किटानकासाथ चारवटा पाटाहरु अनिवार्य रुपमा हुनुपर्ने कुरा गर्दछन् । ती हुन् : क) समावेशी पाठ्यक्रम निर्माण, ख) समावेशी पाठ्यक्रमको कार्यान्वयन, ग) समावेशी मुल्याङ्कन र ग) समावेशी सिकाई र र शिक्षणको लागि संस्थागत प्रतिवद्धता ।

तसर्थ, उच्च शिक्षामा अर्थपूर्ण समावेशीकरणको कुराहरुलाई नेपालको वर्तमान सन्दर्भमा समग्रमा विश्लेषण गर्नको लागि यी चार सुचकहरुको आधारमा मुल्याङ्कन गर्ने हो भने यी चारवटै सुचकहरुको विषयमा आध्ययन, छलफल र बहस लग्भग शुन्य छ । प्रस्तुत सुचकहरु संख्यात्मक भन्दा गुणात्मक विषयहरु हुन् । वर्तमानमा, यिनीहरुलाई विद्यार्थी भर्ना र शिक्षक तथा कर्मचारी नियुक्तिको संख्यात्मक गणनाको विषयले पुरै विर्साइदिएको अवस्था छ । यो समस्या हो । उच्च शिक्षा समावेशीकरणको हकमा यस्तो समस्या किन सृजना भयो ? यो प्रश्नको जवाफ खोजी गर्न नेपालका उच्च शिक्षा निकाय र उच्च शिक्षा प्रणालीको समावेशी अभ्यासको व्याख्यात्मक विश्लेषण यो अध्ययनमा छ ।

तसर्थ, उच्च शिक्षाको सन्दर्भ केलाउनको लागि यस अध्ययनको क्षेत्रनै विश्वविद्यालयहरु तय गरिएका छन् । किनकी, उच्च शिक्षा भन्नाले विश्वविद्यालयहरु हुन र यीनिहरुद्वारा सञ्चालित शिक्षण, अनुशन्धान, तालिम र यीनिहरुको निरन्तरताका लागि अपनाईएको सम्पूर्ण व्यवस्थापन प्रणालीलाई उच्च शिक्षा प्रणाली अन्तर्गत बुझिन्छ UNESCO (1998) । राज्यद्वारा मान्यताप्राप्त विश्वविद्यालयहरु उच्च शिक्षा प्रदायक निकायहरु हुन् । यी निकायहरुबाट देशमा उच्च शिक्षा प्रदान गरिन्छ । कुनै पनि देशमा उच्च शिक्षा देश विकास र अर्न्तराष्ट्रिय विकासको गतिमा आवस्यक र आधुनिक ज्ञान, सीप, कला विज्ञान र प्रविधिमा सक्षम जनशक्ति उत्पादन गर्न सञ्चालित हुन्छ, नेपालमा पनि यहि उद्देश्यकासाथ उच्च शिक्षा सञ्चालन गरिएको छ (शिविप्रम, २०७२) ।

नेपालमा विश्वविद्यालयहरुका साथै प्राविधिक र चिकित्सा संस्थानहरु समेत दक्ष जनशक्ति उत्पादन गर्ने शैक्षिक संस्थाकोरुपमा उच्च शिक्षा प्रदायक निकायहरु हुन् । देशको समग्र विकास र आमुल परिवर्तनका लगि नागरिकहरुलाई आवश्यक दक्ष र प्रतिश्पर्धि जनशक्ति निर्माण गर्ने भूमिका रहेको उच्च शिक्षा प्रणालीमा देशका सबै खाले मानिसहरुको निर्विवाद रुपमा समान साझेदारीता आवस्यक हुन्छ । यस्तो महत्वपूर्ण स्थानमा सबैको लागि समान सिकाईको अवसर निर्माणको लागि पाठ्यक्रममा परिवर्तन र सुधार साथै शिक्षणकर्ताहरुको क्ष्यमता विकासको लागि तालिमहरुमा समावेशी सहभागिता थप अरु महत्वपूर्णहरु तत्वहरु हुन् (Ainscow 2005, Persson 2006 as cited Pappas et al., 2018)

नतिजा तथा छलफल

माथि प्रस्तुत सैद्धान्ति ढाचाले निर्क्यौल गरेका सुचकहरुलाई मुख्य आधार मान्दै नेपालको हकमा उच्च शिक्षाको समावेशीकरणमा भएको अभ्यास, नीतिगत र कानुनी प्रावधानहरु, भईरहेको अभ्यासले समेटेका विषयहरुबाट देखा परेका नतिजा र छलफलका विषयहरुलाई विषयगत रुपमा विश्लेषण गर्दै अध्ययनको निश्कर्षमा पुग्नको लागि उच्च शिक्षामा भएको समावेशी नीतिको विकासको व्याख्यावाट विषय प्रारम्भ गरिएको छ ।

उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशी नीतिको विकास र कार्यान्वयन अवस्था

राज्यको अरु संयन्त्रहरुमा जस्तै उच्च शिक्षामा पनि वहिष्करणको नीतिगत र संरचनागत अभ्यासको अवस्था लामो समयदेखि रहँदै आएको सबैले स्वीकार्ने पर्ने समास्या हो । वि. सं. २०१६ सालमा स्थापना भएको त्रिभुवन विश्वविद्यालयमा समेत २०६२/६३ को जनआन्दोलनसम्म आईपुग्दा पनि नीतिगत र संरचनागत बहिष्करणको निरन्तरता नै थियो । नेपलको सबैभन्दा पुरानो, ठुलो र सरकारी चरित्रको विश्वविद्यालयकै यो अवस्था भएपछि बाँकि विश्वविद्यालयहरुमा त झनै यो भन्दा विकराल समस्या हुने नै भो । तसर्थ, नेपालको उच्च शिक्षा व्यवस्थामा सबै क्षेत्र, वर्ग, लिंग तथा सामाजिक, साँस्कृतिक लगायतका विभिन्न प्रकारले बहिष्करणमा परेका मानिसहरुको सन्तुलित साझेदारीता सहित अर्थपूर्ण समावेशीता छ किन छैन भन्ने प्रश्नले उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशीकरणको बहसलाई थप पेचीलो रुपमा प्रवेश गराएको हो ।

२०४७ सालको राजनीतिक परिवर्तनले ल्याएको प्रजातान्त्रीक माहलोल पछि नेपाली सामाजिक तथा राजनीतिक वृत्तको अग्रभागमा समावेशीकरणको मुद्धा पनि आएको थियो । यो बहसले बहुदलिय प्रजातान्त्रीक व्यवस्थाको पुर्नजन्मसँगै व्यापकता पाएको दुई दशकपछि २०६२-६३को जनआन्दोलनसम्म आईपुग्दा वहिष्करणको समाप्तीको उपायको रुपमा एक प्रमुख राष्ट्रिय राजनीतिक मुद्धा बन्यो । यो बहस लैंगिक हिसावले महिला, सामाजिक साँस्कृति तथा क्षेत्रीय हिसावले आदिवासी, दालित, मधेशी, मुश्लिम र शारिरिक हिसावले अपाङ्गता भएका र देशमा लामो समयदेखि नीतिगत र संरुचनागतरुपमा बहिष्करण वेहोरीरहनु परेका हरुको लागि महत्वपूर्ण थियो (न्यौपाने, २००५, Hangen, 2007) ।

यसपछि २०६३ सालमा बनेको अन्तरिम संविधानले समावेशी मुद्धालाई संवैधानिक रुपमै प्रत्याभूत गऱ्यो (नेपाल कानुन आयोग, २०६९) । अन्तरिम संविधानकै जगमा २०७२ सालमा घोषित संघीय लोकतान्त्रीक गणतन्त्र नेपालको संविधानले पनि समावेशी सिद्धान्तलाई प्रस्तावनामा नै समावेश गर्दै मौलिक हकको धारा १८, ३१ र ४२ मा समेत विभिन्न हक अर्न्तगत समावेश गऱ्यो । वर्तमान संविधानमा प्रस्तवानामा समानुपातिक समावेशी र सहभागितामुलक सिद्धान्तको आधारमा समतामुलक समाज निर्माण निर्माण र सामाजिक न्यायको सुनिश्चितताको संकल्प गरेको छ भने धारा ४ मा नेपाल समावेशी राज्य हुने, धारा १८ मा सामाजिक साँस्कृति तथा आर्थिक हक, धारा ३१ मा शिक्षाको हक, र धारा ४२ मा सामाजिक न्यायको अन्तर्गगत राज्यको निकायमा समानुपातिक समावेशीताको व्यवस्था हुने उल्लेख गरेको छ (नेपाल कानुन आयोग, २०७७) ।

उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशी अभ्यासको चित्रण

यीनै संवैधानिक प्रावधानहरु नै उच्च शिक्षा समावेशीकरणको जग हो, त्यसै आधारमा त्रिवि सभाले २०६६ मंसीर २२ गते *त्रिवि शिक्षक, कर्मचारी सेवासम्बन्धी नियम २०५०* मा त्रिवि सेवामा प्रवेश हुने खुला प्रतियोगितामा ४५ प्रतिशत समावेशी नियमको व्यवस्था गरी नेपालको उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशीकरणको इतिहास प्रारम्भ गऱ्यो । यस पछि त्रिवि र अरु वभिन्न विश्वविद्यालयहरुले आ-आफ्ना विद्यमान ऐन, नियमावली, निर्देशीका तथा कार्यविधिहरुमा संशोधन गर्दै ४५ प्रतिशस समावेशी आरक्षणलाई अभ्यासमा उतार्न थालेका हुन । यसमा केहि विश्वविद्यालयहरुले ४५ को स्थानमा ५० प्रतिशत भर्ना समावेशीकरण पनि ऐनहरुमा ल्याए; जस्तै नेपाल संस्कृत विश्वविद्यालय (नेसंवि) ले २०६७ सालमा ५० प्रतिशतको समावेशी आरक्षणको व्यवस्था गऱ्यो । त्यसैगरी, सुदूरपश्चिम विश्विविद्यालय र कृषि तथा वन विज्ञान विश्वविद्यालयले २०६९ यो प्रावधान लागु गरे ।

कानुनी प्रावधान अनुसार ४५ वा ५० प्रतिशत समावेशीकरणको व्यवस्था प्रशासन क्षेत्रमा शाखा अधिकृत र सो भन्दा मुनिका श्रेणी विहिन बाहेकका पदहरुमा र प्राध्यापन सेवामा उपप्राध्यापक र सहायक प्राध्यापक पदहरुमा मात्र लागु हुन्छ । समावेशी सिद्धान्त अनुरुप कार्यान्वयन गर्नको लागि आरक्षित ४५ वा ५० प्रतिशत खुला समावेशी सिटलाई १०० प्रतिशत मानि पुनः यसको ३३ प्रतिशत महिलाको, २७ प्रतिशत अदिवासी जनजातिको, २२ प्रतिशत मधेशीको, ९ प्रतिशत दलितको, ५ प्रतिशत अपाङ्गको र ४ प्रतिशत पिछडिएको क्षेत्रको विभाजन गरेर कार्यान्वयन गरिन्छ (कृवि, २०७५, त्रिवि, २०७३, पोवि, २०५३, सुवि, २०६७ र नेखुवि, २०७४) ।

बैधानिक प्रावधानहरु अनुसार हेर्दा, उच्च शिक्षाको वर्तमान अवस्थामा चारवटा क्षेत्रमा समावेशी अभ्यासको कानुनी व्यवस्था रहेका छन् : (क) कर्मचारी प्रशासन एवम् प्राध्यापन सेवाको प्रारम्भिक प्रवेश प्रतियोगितामा, (ख) विद्यार्थी भर्नामा (ग) विद्यार्थी छात्रवृत्तिमा र (ग) अनुशन्धानमा । यी प्रावधानहरुलाई हेर्दा विश्वविद्यालयको मुल पक्ष ज्ञान निर्माण अध्ययन, अध्ययापन, पाठ्यक्रम, पाठ्यसामग्री, मुल्याङ्कन आदीमा समावेशी हुनुपर्ने विाषय उच्च शिक्षा

जगतमा पूर्णतया छुटेको पाइन्छ । उच्च शिक्षाको चार क्षेत्रमा हाल कायम रहेको समावेशी प्रावधान र अभ्यासको संक्षिप्तमा यहाँ संक्षिप्तमा चार्चा गरौं :

नेपालका ११ विश्वविद्यालयहरुमध्ये १० वटाले कमर्चचारी प्रशासन र प्राध्यापन सेवामा समावेशी नीतिलाई कानुनी प्रावधान सहित कार्यान्वयन गरिरहेका छन् । एउटा, काठमाडौं विश्वविद्यालयमा यो कनुनी प्रावधान र अभ्यास नरहेको देखिन्छ । कर्मचारी प्रसासन र प्राध्यापन सेवाका लागि समावेशीताको अभ्यास गर्ने १० वटा विश्वविद्यालयहरु मध्ये दुईवटा नेसंवि र पुर्वाञ्चल विश्वविद्यालय (पुवि)मा ५० प्रतिशत समावेशीकरणको कानुन प्रावधान छ भने बाँकि ८ विश्वविद्यालयहरुमा ४५ प्रतिशत समावेशीकरणको कानुनी प्रावधान र अभ्यास कायम छ (त्रिवि, २०७३, पोवि, २०५३, सुवि, २०६७ र नेखुवि, २०७४, पुवि, २०५३ र नेसंवि, २०६३) ।

विद्यार्थी भर्नामा समावेशीकरणको कानुनी प्रावधानहरु रहेको भएता पनि यसमा एकरुपता र प्रभावकारी कार्यान्वयन नपाईको अवस्था छ । जस्तै पुवि, सुवि, मवि लगायतका विश्वविद्यालयहरुले भर्नालाई छात्रवृत्तिसँग जोडेर अष्पुष्ट रुपमा भर्ना र छात्रवृत्तिलाई एकैठाउ गञ्जागोल पारेर कार्यान्वय गरिरहेका छन् । त्रिवि, सुवि लगायतका विश्वविद्यालयहरुले विद्यार्थी भर्नामा २० प्रतिशत समावेशी नियम कार्यान्वयन गरिरहेको भएतापनि यसको व्यवहारीक कार्यान्वयनमा उतार्दा अधिकतम १४ प्रतिशतसम्म मात्र भर्नामा समावेशीकरण कार्यान्वयन भएको पाईएको छ ((त्रिवि, २०७४; सुवि, २०७७; लिम्बु, २०७७) ।

विद्यार्थी छात्रवृत्तिमा समावेशी कानुनी प्रावधानमा एकरुपता छैन । कुनै विश्वविद्यालयमा केवल ५ प्रतिशत समावेशीको प्रावधान छ भने कुनैमा ५० प्रतिशतसम्म छ । हरेक विश्वविद्यालयहरुमा छात्रवृत्तिको फरक फरक वैधानिक प्रावधानहरु कार्यान्वयनमा छन् । यस्तो फरकता किन हुनु पर्ने ? यसको खास कुनै पनि वैज्ञानिक र तार्किक आधार देखिन्न तर कार्यान्यनमा त्यही छ । तर, यसमा एकरुपता ल्याउनु र त्यसको लागि न्युनतम एकरुपताको सिमालाई कानुनी रुपमा र नीतिगत रुपमा निर्णण हुन जरुरी देखिन्छ । छात्रवृत्तिमा भएको प्रावधानको विभिदतालाई थप प्रष्टताका लागि निम्न बमोजिम हेर्न सकिन्छ :

तालिका १

विश्वविद्यालयहरुमा छात्रवृत्ति समावेशी प्रावधानमा विभिदता

विश्वविद्यालय	**प्रावधान**
पूर्वाञ्चल विश्वविद्यालय	५ प्रतिशत समावेशी
पोखरा विश्वविद्यालय	४० प्रतिशत समावेशी
सुदुरपश्चिम विश्वविद्यालय	५० प्रतिशत समावेशी
नेपाल खुल्ला विश्वविद्यालय	छात्रवृत्तिमा समावेशी नीतिका लक्षित समुहका विद्यार्थीहरुलाई अतिरिक्त अंक दिने

श्रोतः (पूर्वाञ्चल विश्वविद्यालय, २०७५; नेपाल खुला विश्वविद्यालय, २०७६; पोखरा विश्वविद्यालय, २०७६; पूवि; सुदुरपश्चिम विश्वविद्यालय, २०७७)

उच्च शिक्षामा अध्ययन अध्ययापनको एक महत्वपूर्ण पाटो अनुसन्धान हो, जसले नै विश्वविद्यालयलाई उच्च शिक्षाको स्थान उपलब्ध गराउछ । विश्वविद्यालयका सबै विषयहरुमा ज्ञानको उत्पाद र व्यापकता लगायतका प्राज्ञिक कार्यकासाथ समाजको सार्वजनिक हितको लागि कार्य गर्ने मुख्य आधार नै अनुसन्धान हो (Nurse, 2015 as cited Fung, et al. 2017) । यहि तर्कसँग मिल्ने गरी नेपालको हकमा उच्च शिक्षा नीति अनुसार ज्ञानमा प्राज्ञिक उत्कृष्टता तथा क्ष्यमता उन्नयनका लागि अध्ययन तथा अनुसन्धान उच्च शिक्षा प्रदायक संस्थाको जिम्मेवारी हो भन्ने कुरा संकल्पको रुपमा स्वीकारीएको छ (नेपाल सरकार, २०७२) । तर, यो संकल्प बमोजिम उच्च शिक्षा प्रदायक निकायहरु अनुशन्धान क्षेत्रलाई समावेशी बनाउने प्रयत्नमा आकर्षित भएको देखिदैनन् । त्रिवि लगायतका अधिकाङ्स विश्वविद्यालयहरु अनुसन्धानवृत्तिमा समावेशी गराउन कानुनि सुनिश्चिता विनानै अहिले पनि चलिरहेका छन् । त्रिविले

गराउने लघु अनुसन्धानमा कुनै किसिमको समावेशी व्यवस्था लागु नहुने वैधानीक व्यवस्था छ (त्रिवि, २०६७; त्रिवि, २०७८) । वरु, विश्वविद्यालय अनुदान आयोग (विअआ)ले अनुसन्धान वृत्तिहरुमा समावेशी समुहका प्रतिश्पर्धिहरुलाई थप ८ अंक प्रदान गर्ने कानुनी व्यवस्था अभ्यास गरेको छ । जुन विद्यावारीधी, एमफील, स्नातकोत्तर र स्नातक तहका र अन्य विद्वत एवम् अनुसन्धान वृत्तिहरुको छनौंट प्रतिश्पर्धामा लागु हुन्छ (विअआ, २०७४) । विश्वविद्यालयहरुमा अनुदान आयोगको यो व्यवस्था जति पनि प्रावधानहरु अधिकाङ्स विश्वविद्यालयहरुमा छैन । यसरी हेर्दा समग्रमा अनुशन्धान क्षेत्रमा नेपालको उच्च शिक्षा समावशी छैन् भन्ने निश्कर्ष निस्कन्छ ।

विशविद्यालय नीति निर्माणस्थलमा समावेशीता

विश्वविद्यालय तहमा समावेशी नीति कार्यान्वयनको प्रारम्भ २०६६बाट प्रारम्भ भएतापनि विश्वविद्यालय ऐनहरुमा समावेशीकरण सम्बन्धी प्रावधानहरु तल्लो तहका पदहरुको प्रतियोगिता र विद्यार्थी भर्नामा बाहेक अरुमा नाममात्रको र प्रभावहिन रहेको छ । नेपालका ११ वटा विश्वविद्यालयको नीतिगत निर्णय गर्ने थलोहरुमा समुदायगत र समुहगत प्रतिनिधित्व अवस्थाको तुलनात्मक तथ्याङ्क हेर्दा यो अवस्थाको पुष्टि हुन्छ (तालिका २)।

विश्वविद्यालयहरुको निर्णायक नीति निर्माण थलोहरु विश्वविद्यालय सभा, कार्यकारी परिषद, प्राज्ञिक परिषद लगायतका निकायहरु हुन् । नेपालका ११ विश्वविद्यालयहरु मध्ये २ वटा विश्वविद्यालयहरु त्रिवि र मध्यपश्चिमाञ्चल विश्वविद्यालय (मवि)को नीति निर्माण थलो सभा, कार्यकारी परिषद, प्राज्ञिक परिषद गठनहरुमा समावेशीकरणको कुनै कानुनी व्यवस्था छैन । त्रिवि र मविको सभा र प्राज्ञिक परिषद अझै पनि समावेशी विहिन छन् । यिनीहरुले नीति निर्माण निकाय विश्वविद्यालय सभा र प्राज्ञिक परिषदमा अहिलेसम्म समावेशीकरण सम्बन्धी कानुनी सुनिश्चितता गरेका छैनन् (नेपाल कानुन आयोग, २०७७) । नेपालको उच्च शिक्षाको समग्र भारको ८० प्रतिशत भार एक्लै व्यहोर्ने विश्वविद्यालय त्रिवि (UGC, 2013) । देशकै यति ठुलो सबैभन्दा प्रमुख उच्च शिक्षा प्रदायक त्रिवि सहित मविको समेत नीति निर्माणस्थल नै समावेशी नहुनुले नेपालको सबैभन्दा ठुलो सरोकारवाला समुह वा उच्च शिक्षामा बहिष्करणका शिकार भईरहेकाहरुको पक्षमा सम्बन्धीत निकायहरुमा योजना, कार्यक्रम एवम् आवस्यक पुर्वाधार तयार गर्नेक्रममा नकारात्मक प्रभाव पर्ने निश्चित छ ।

बाँकी ९ वटा विश्वविद्यालय सभामा आंशिक समावेशी व्यवस्था रहेको छ । नौवटा विश्वविद्यालयका ऐनहरुले विश्वविद्यालय सभा समावेशी बनाउने प्रावधान गरेता पनि ८ वटामा केवल महिलालाई मात्र अनि नाममात्रको संख्यामा समेटीएको छ । एउटा राजर्षिजनक विश्वविद्यालय (रावि)ले मात्र महिला सहित केवल १ जना दलित समेत समावेश हुने व्यवस्था गरेको छ (तालिका २) । त्यसैले यो समावेशी केवल नाममात्रको छ जसले समावेशीकरणको सिद्धान्तले भनेजस्तो यो नीति निर्माण थलोमा कुनै प्रभावकारी औचित्य राख्न सक्दैन ।

तालिका २

विश्वविद्यालय नीति निमार्ण स्थलमा समावेशीता अवस्था

नीति निर्माणस्थलमा समावेशी प्रावधान	विश्वविद्यालयहरु
समावेशी नभएका विश्वविद्यालयहरु	१. त्रिभुवन विश्वविद्यालय २. मध्यपश्चिमाञ्चल विश्वविद्यालय
महिला मात्र समावेश भएका विश्वविद्यालयहरु .	१. काठमाडौं विश्वविद्यालय : सभामा ४ महिला (जसमध्ये - २ प्राज्ञिक, १ दाता र १ प्राध्यापकहरु मध्येबाट) । २. नेपाल संस्कृत विश्वविद्यालय : सभामा १ (महिला प्राध्यापकहरु मध्येबाट निर्वाचीत) । ३. पूर्वाञ्चल विश्वविद्यालय : सभामा ४ महिला (जसमध्ये - २ प्रज्ञिक र २ नेपाल प्राध्यापक संघबाट निर्वाचीत) ।

	४. पोखरा विश्वविद्यालय : सभामा ४ महिला (जसमध्ये - २ व्यवसायी, १ दाता र १ सामाजिक शैक्षिक अभियन्ता) । ५. सुदूरपश्चिम विश्वविद्यालय : सभामा १ महिला (दाताहरुमध्येबाट) । ६. कृषि थता वन विज्ञान विश्वविद्यालय : सभामा १ महिला ।
महिला र दलित समावेश भएको विश्वविद्यालय	१. राजर्षिजनक विश्वविद्यालय : सभामा ३ (जसमध्ये - दलित १, सामाजिक र प्राज्ञिकमध्ये १ महिला र कृषि, उद्योग र व्यापारबाट १ महिला) ।
सभा र कार्यकारी परिषद दुवैमा समावेशी भएका विश्वविद्यालयहरु	१. लुम्बिनी बौद्ध विश्वविद्यालय ऐन २०६३ : सभामा - ११, कार्यकारी परिषदमा - १ र प्राज्ञिक परिषदमा - १ महिला । २. नेपाल खुला विश्वविद्यालय ऐन २०७३ : सभामा ३, कार्यकारी परिषदमा १ र प्राज्ञिक परिषदमा १ महिला ।

स्रोत : (नेपाल कानुन आयोग, २०७७) ।

यहाँसम्मको तथ्याङ्को व्याख्या, छलफल र विश्लेषणले नेपालको समावेशी उच्च शिक्षामा ज्ञान निर्माणको मुल थलो पाठ्यक्रम र पाठ्यासामाग्री, शिक्षण, सिकाई, मुल्याङ्कन प्रणाली समावेशी नभएको नतिजा साबित हुन्छ साथै यिनीहरुको प्रत्याभूतिको लागि कुनै पनि कानुनी प्रावधानहरु पनि नभएको अध्ययनको निक्यौल निस्किएको छ । विद्यमान समावेशी नीति अन्तर्गतका कानुनी प्रावधान र तिनीहरुको अभ्यासहरुको तुलनात्मक मुल्याङ्कन गर्दा ज्ञान निर्माणको मुल थलोहरुमा समावेशी हुनुपर्ने कुनै चर्चा अहिले आउन नै सकेको छैन । केही विश्वविद्यालयहरुले केही समावेशीकरण शिक्षण विषयवस्तुहरुमा समावेश गर्दै ल्याएको पाईको छ, जस्तैः त्रिविको शिक्षा संकायको स्नतकोत्तर तहको पाठ्यक्रममा आदिवासी मुलका किरात धर्मावलम्बीहरुको दार्शनीक कुराहरु, नेपाल खुल्ला विश्वविद्यालयले किरात, मगर, तामाङ अध्ययन भनेर स्नातक तहमा ऐक्षिक रुपमा र काठमाडौं विश्वविद्यालयले हालसालै एक वर्षे स्नातकोत्तर आदिवासी अध्ययनको कक्षा सञ्चालन गर्ने केही सकारात्मक र नविन अभ्यासहरु सुरुवात भएको पाईएको छ । तर, ती कुनै पनि उच्च शिक्षा नीति, ऐन र कानुनहरुको निर्देशनमा नभई विश्वविद्यालयहरुको आआफ्नै पहलमा हुँदै आएको पाइएको छ ।

प्रस्तुत तथ्याङ्क अनुसार नेपालका विश्वविद्यालयहरुमा नीति निर्माण तहमा नाममात्रको प्रभावहिन समावेशीकरणको व्यावस्था रहेको पाइयो भने बाँकि शिक्षा क्षेत्रमा समावेशीकरण गरिनुपर्ने महत्वपुर्ण क्षेत्रहरुमा कानुनत अहिलेसम्म समावेशी व्यवस्था हुन नसकेको अवस्था छ । किनकी, यिनीहरुको लागि राज्यको समावेशी नीति अनुसार न कानुनी प्रावधानहरु नै सुनिश्चित गरिएको छ न त व्यवहारिक अभ्यास नै हुन सकेको छ ।

सैद्धान्तिक अवधारणा र नीतिगत अभ्यासको तुलनात्मक विश्लेषण

यो अध्ययनको माथि सैद्धान्तिक ढाचामा उल्लेख गरिए अनुसार समावेशी शिक्षाका चार अनिवार्य पाटाहरु समावेशी पाठ्यक्रमा, पाठ्यक्रमको समावेशी कार्यान्वयन, समावेशी मुल्याङ्कन र समावेशी सिकाई र शिक्षणमा संस्थागत प्रतिवद्धता हुन् । यहाँ उल्लेख भएको चौथो सुचक समावेशी सिकाई र शिक्षणमा संस्थागत पतिवद्धताले संस्थागत वातावरण निर्माणको कुरालाई समेत आफुभित्रै समेट्दछ (Hockings, 2010; Lawrie et al., 2017)। यसरी, विश्वविद्यालय वा उच्च शिक्षा निकायहरु केवल पठनपाठनसँग मात्र सिधा सम्बन्ध राख्दैनन् । यसले शिक्षण वा पठनपाठनसँग सम्बन्धित विद्यार्थीहरुको सिकाईको लागि विद्यार्थीहरुले समय विताउने विश्वविद्यालयको वातावरण, प्रशासनिक व्यवस्थापन, नेतृत्व, संस्थागत र विभागीय संस्कार, पठ्यक्रम निर्माण, पाठ्यपुस्त र सह-पाठ्यक्रम निर्माण

समेतलाई एकमुष्ट रुपमा जनाउने गर्दछ (Elkin and Wollscheid, 2016 as cited Fung, et al. 2017)। यी विषयहरु विश्वविद्यालयमा समावेशीकरणसँग सम्बन्धित छन् ।

यसको मतलब समावेशी शिक्षाकोलागि शैक्षिक क्षेत्रमा वातारणीय संरचना सबै समुदाय र क्षेत्र मैत्रि हुनुपर्दछ भने सबै व्यक्तिहरुको सारीरिक, साँस्कृतिक र मानोवैज्ञानिक मैत्रि पनि हुनुपर्दछ । जुन कुराको लागि उच्च शिक्षा प्रदायक किनकायनै प्रतिवद्ध भएमा मात्र त्यस्तो वातावरण निर्माण गर्न सम्भव छ । तसर्थ, नेपालमा समावेशी शिक्षाका मुलभूत सैद्धान्तिक तत्वहरु के के कार्यान्वयन हुन बाँकि नै छन् त भन्ने कुरालाई सजिलो गरी बुझ्नको लागि निम्न तालिकमा हेरौं :

तालिका ३

समावेशी उच्च शिक्षाका सैद्धान्तिक तत्वहरुको कार्यान्वयन मुल्याङ्कन

समावेशी उच्च शिक्षाका सुचकहरु	**नेपालमा कार्यान्वयनको अवस्था**
पाठ्यक्रमा समावेशी	छैन (कानुनी प्रावधान र अभ्यास दुबै छैन)।
पाठ्यक्रमको समावेशी कार्यान्वयन (शिक्षण तथा अध्यापन)	छैन (कानुनी प्रावधान र अभ्यास दुबै छैन)।
समावेशी मुल्याङ्कन	छैन (कानुनी प्रावधान र अभ्यास दुबै छैन)।
समावेशी सिकाई र शिक्षणमा संस्थागत प्रतिवद्धता । • समावेशी वातावरणको निर्माण ।	छैन (कानुनी प्रावधान र अभ्यास दुबै छैन)।

(Hockings, 2010; Lawrie et al., 2017; Elkin and Wollscheid, 2016 as cited Fung, et al. 2017)

माथि प्रस्तुत तथ्याङ्हरुको आधारमा यी चार सैद्धान्तिक सूचक तत्वहरुलाई आधार मानेर नेपालको उच्च शिक्षमा समावेशी नीतिको कानुनी प्रावधान र कार्यान्वयनको अवस्था मुल्याङ्न गर्दा न्युनतम् एक सुचकलाई पनि पुरा गर्न सकेको अवस्था छैन । र, नेपालको हकमा उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशी भन्नाले अधुरो बुझाई मात्र अहिलेसम्म निर्माण भईरहेको र केवल संख्यात्मक मानवीय उपस्थीतमा मात्र समावेशीकरणलाई नापतौल गर्ने गलत ज्ञान र भाष्यले मुल कुरालाई छोपिरहेको देखिन्छ । जुन कुरालाई पुनः व्याख्या गर्दै शिक्षामा समावेशीकरणको कुरालाई अगाडी बढाउनु पर्ने यो अध्ययनको जिकिर हो । यहाँ प्रस्तुत तथ्यगत आधारमा अहिलेसम्मको नेपालको समावेशी उच्च शिक्षाको विशेषताहरु केलाउदा देखिएका समावेशी चरित्रहरु केवल नियुक्ति, भर्ना, छात्रवृत्ति र नाममात्रको नीति निर्माणमा भएको पाउनु भनेको समावेशी शिक्षाको वास्तविकताको एउटा साँनो हाँगा मात्र समातेर त्यसैलाई पुरै समावेशी रुख हो भनि प्रचार भईरहेको छर्लङ्गिन्छ । नेपालको उच्च शिक्षालाई साँचो अर्थमा समावेशी बनाउन यो कुरा र कामलाई सच्याउन जरुरी छ; ।

निष्कर्ष

प्राप्त तथ्याङक विश्लेषण र छलफलहरुको आधारमा देखिन आएको नतिजालाई मध्यनजर गर्दा नेपालको उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशी नीतिको कार्यान्वयनमा केही महत्वपुर्ण कमिहरु यो अध्ययनले पहिचान गर्न सफल भएको छ । ती कमीहरुमा - अहिलेसम्म उच्च शिक्षा समावेशी नीति कार्यान्वयनमा ज्ञानको निर्माण, हस्तान्तर, हस्तान्तरणको लागि सामाग्री निर्माण, मुल्याङ्कन, र समावेशी वातावरण निर्माणको लागि सम्बन्धित जिम्मेवार निकाको प्रतिवद्धताको अभाव हुन । त्यसैगरी यी सबैको सुनिश्चितताको लागि बाध्यकारी कानुनी प्रावधानको अभाव र कानुनी प्रावधान निर्माणको लागि राजनीतिक वृत्तमा यो चेतनाको कमी उतिकै जिम्मेवार छ भने सो राजनीतिक चेतनाको निर्माण र अर्थपुर्ण समावेशीकरणको पूर्ण भाष्य र तर्क निर्माणको लागि विद्धवत अध्येता वर्गको अध्ययन अनुसन्धान र बैचारिक प्रष्टता निर्माणमा पनि उतिकै कमि देखिन आएको छ। उच्च शिक्षा पूर्ण रुपमा समावेशी बनाउनको लागि समेट्नु पर्ने सैद्धान्तिक आधारका न्युनतम चार सुचकहरुको न्युनतम रुपमा पनि परिपालक सहित कार्यान्वय हुनु अनिवार्य आवस्यकता हो । तर

विडम्बडा, नेपालको उच्च शिक्षाको हकमा यी सबै विषयलाई थाँति राखेर समावेशी नीतिको कार्यान्वयन गर्ने प्रयास गरिएको छ। त्यसैले नेपालका विश्वविद्यालयहरुको संस्थागत, शिक्षण र सिकाई सम्बन्धी वातावरण समावेशी हुन सकेको छैन। योसँग सम्बन्धीत आवस्यक सामग्रीहरु पाठ्यक्रम, पाठ्यपुस्तक, सन्दर्भ सामग्री, अनुसन्धान पद्धति, मुल्याङ्कन पद्धति र प्रक्रिया सबै समावेशी हुन सकेका छैनन् । यिनीहरुलाई सच्याउनको लागि विश्वविद्यालय तहमा प्राज्ञिक वहस र छलफलको प्रारम्भ समेत पनि भईरहेको छैन । यिनीहरुको लागि आवस्यक कानुनी प्रावधानहरु कहिले बन्ने ? र, व्यवहारीक रुपमा कार्यान्वयनमा कहिले सम्ममा उत्रने ? भन्ने प्रश्नहरुको जवाफ त झन पूर्ण रुपमा अनुत्तरित छन् । जुन कुरा पूर्ण समावेशी उच्च शिक्षा व्यवस्थाको लागि नेपालमा एक दुर्भाग्य हो । यो सबै परिणामहरुलाई केलाउदा नेपालको उच्च शिक्षामा समावेशी नीतिको राजनीतिक केवल बहिष्कृत समुदायहरुको विम्वात्मक व्यक्ति प्रतिनिधित्वको संख्यात्मक गणनामा सिमित राखेर समावेशीकरणको लागि निकैनै अपूर्ण प्रावधान र अभ्यास निरन्तरमा हामी प्रक्रिया आगाडी दौडीरहेको अवस्था हो ।

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लेखसार

प्रस्तुत लेख संस्थागत विद्यालयमा अध्यापनरत नेपाली भाषा शिक्षकको पहिचानमा भाषिका समस्यासँग सम्बन्धित छ । यस लेखको उद्देश्य नेपाली भाषा शिक्षकले भोग्नुपरेको चुनौती र समस्यारूको खोजीगर्नु रहेको छ । यो अनुसन्धान गुणात्मक अध्ययन विधि अन्तर्गत न्यारेटिभ ढाँचामा आधारित छ । यस अध्ययनको लागि उद्देश्यमूलक नमुना छनोट विधिद्वारा उत्तरदाताको चयन गरिएको छ । प्रस्तुत अनुसन्धानबाट नेपाली विषय शिक्षकले अन्य विषय शिक्षकले पाउने जति समान सम्मान र मूल्यको साटो प्रशासनको नजरबाट कमजोर विषय शिक्षकको रुपमा उपेक्षित हुनु परेको, नेपाली भाषालाई दोस्रो भाषाका रुपमा हेर्ने गरिएको, नेपाली भाषा शिक्षकले अन्य विषय शिक्षक सरह समान पारिश्रमिक र सुविधाबाट बञ्चित हुनुपरेको, अङ्ग्रेजी भाषालाई प्राथमिकता दिनाले नेपाली भाषाको अवमूल्यन गरिएको साथै विद्यार्थी, अभिभावक, स्कुल प्रशासन सबैको नजरमा नेपाली भाषा शिक्षक कमजोर जस्तो देखिन बाध्य हुनु परेको जस्ता समस्याका साथै सधैं दबाबमा परेर पनि आफ्नो कर्तव्यबाट विमुख हुन नसकिएको, त्यसैले नेपाली भाषा शिक्षकलाई आफ्नो विषयगत पहिचानमा चुनौती पूर्ण अवस्था रहेको निष्कर्ष निकालिएको छ । प्रस्तुत लेखले सम्बन्धित क्षेत्रमा अध्ययन, अनुसन्धान गर्न चाहने तथा यस विषय क्षेत्रप्रति रुचि राख्ने सरोकारवाला सम्पूर्णमा अपेक्षित सहयोग पुर्याउने विश्वास गरिएको छ ।

***मुख्य शब्दावली** : भाषा शिक्षण, भाषिक सिप, शिक्षण पेसा, शिक्षण समस्या ,सस्थागत विद्यालय*

विषयप्रवेश

भाषा शिक्षण गर्ने व्यक्ति भाषा शिक्षक हो । अन्य शिक्षकको दाँजोमा भाषा शिक्षकको भूमिका र जिम्मेवारी फरक र चुनौतीपूर्ण हुन्छ । भाषाले भाषा साहित्य र ज्ञान विज्ञानका सबै क्षेत्रलाई बहन गर्दछ । शैक्षणिक दृष्टिले विषयगत ज्ञान, सिप, विधिलाई केन्द्रमा राखी विधागत विविधता, शब्दभण्डार तथा व्याकरणगत धारणालाई भाषा शिक्षकले विशेष ध्यान पुर्याउनु पर्ने हुन्छ (अधिकारी, २०५०,पृ.३) । तसर्थ भाषा शिक्षण सिपमूलक विषय हो । भाषिक सिप मूलतः दुईवटा छन् : ग्रहण वा आदानात्मक सिप र अभिव्यक्ति वा प्रदानात्मक सिपका रूपमा रहेका हुन्छन् । ग्रहण भित्र श्रुति र पठन सिप पर्दछन् भने अभिव्यक्ति भित्र वाक् र लेखन सिप पर्दछन् । भाषिक सिपहरु प्रशस्त अभ्यासका माध्यमले परिष्कृत हुदै जाने हुँदा भाषालाई कलाका रुपमा लिइन्छ । भाषा शिक्षण भाषिक सिपको शिक्षण हो । त्यसैले भाषा शिक्षण गर्दा विषयवस्तु गौण हुन्छ । भाषिक सिप प्रमुख प्रमुख हुन्छ । भाषा शिक्षण विषय वस्तु शिक्षण नभएर विषयवस्तु व्यक्त गर्ने वा बुझ्ने सिपको शिक्षण हो, (पौडेल, २०७३ पृ.२) ।

भाषा शिक्षणमा सैद्धान्तिक ज्ञानलाई कमै महत्व दिइन्छ । यसमा बोध र अभिव्यक्ति प्रयोग सन्दर्भलाई जोड दिइएको हुन्छ । भाषा शिक्षण साहित्य शिक्षण होइन तर भाषा शिक्षणमा साहित्यिक विधाको प्रयोग गरिन्छ । साहित्यका विविध विधामा प्रयुक्त शैली वा तरिकाले भाषाका विभिन्न सिप र पक्षलाई सहयोग पुग्छ (पौडेल र शर्मा, २०६० पृ १७७) । त्यसैले भाषा शिक्षणमा विषयवस्तु शिक्षणलाई कम प्राथमिकता दिइन्छ । पौडेल (२०६७) का अनुसार भाषा सामाजिक वस्तु हो र विविध सामाजिक प्रकार्यहरुका निम्ति यसको उपयोग हुन्छ ,त्यसैले भाषाशिक्षण गर्नु भनेको पनि

तिनै सामाजिक प्रकार्यपरक आवश्यकता परिपूर्ति गर्ने ध्येयले भाषाको सम्प्रेषणात्मक सामर्थ्य हासिल गराई विविध भाषिक प्रकार्यहरुमा सबलता र सक्षमता दिलाउनु हो,(पृ.८१)। नेपालमा प्रायः सबै विषयको शिक्षणमा नेपाली भाषा माध्यम रहि आएको छ। त्यसैले भाषाको शिक्षण सिकाइ प्रभावकारी हुनुपर्छ। ज्ञान विज्ञानका नयाँनयाँ प्रयोग,अनुभव र प्राप्तिलाई जनतासम्म पुर्याउन नसकेसम्म विकासको अनुभूति हुन सक्दैन । विकासको गतिलाई अग्रगति दिन भाषाले उल्लेख्य भूमिका वहन गरेको हुन्छ।

अधिकारी (२०६३) ले नेपाली भाषा शिक्षकले आफू भाषा शिक्षक भएकै कारणले अपहेलित हुनुपरेको निष्कर्ष निकालेका छन् । यसै गरी श्रेष्ठ (२०६५) का अनुसार नेपाली भाषा शिक्षक भएकै कारण पेशागत असुरक्षा तथा पारिश्रमिकमा विभेद जस्ता समस्याहरु भोग्नुपरेको छ । उक्त अध्ययनबाट नेपाली भाषा शिक्षकको समस्याहरुको मात्र पहिचान गरिएको र चुनौतीहरुको खोजी नगरिएको कारणले गर्दा यस अध्ययनका माध्यमबाट नेपाली भाषा शिक्षकले भोग्नुपरेको समस्याका साथसाथै चुनौतीहरुको खोजी गर्ने जमर्को गरिएको छ। यस अध्ययनको मुख्य उद्देश्य संस्थागत विद्यालयमा अध्यापनरत नेपाली भाषा शिक्षकको पहिचानमा समस्या र चुनौतीहरु पहिचान गर्नु रहेको छ। त्यसै गरी प्रस्तुत अनुसन्धेय विषयले भाषा शिक्षकको पहिचानमा समस्या र चुनौतीहरुको पहिचान गर्ने भएकाले यस विषयसँग सम्बद्ध सरोकारवालाहरुका लागि प्रत्यक्ष वा परोक्ष रूपमा यस किसिमका अध्ययन अनुसन्धानका लागि सहयोग पुऱ्याउनेछ।

यो अध्ययन संस्थागत विद्यालयमा अध्यापनरत नेपाली भाषा शिक्षकले भोग्नुपरेका समस्या र चुनौतीहरुमा मात्र सीमित रहेको छ।

अध्ययन विधि र प्रक्रिया

प्रस्तुत अनुसन्धान गुणात्मक अध्ययन विधि अन्तर्गत कथात्मक खोज ढाँचामा आधारित छ। यस अध्ययनको लागि उत्तरदाताको छनोट उद्देश्यमूलक नमुना छनोट विधिद्वारा गरिएको साथै सैद्दान्तिक धारणाका लागि पुस्तकालयीय कार्य मार्फत् कार्य सम्पन्न गरिएको छ।

आफू नेपाली भाषा शिक्षक भएका कारण नेपाली भाषा शिक्षकको समस्यालाई समस्याको रुपमा चयन गरिएको हो । त्यसै गरी यस अध्ययनमा उत्तरदाताको रूपमा नोट गर्नुको कारण उहाँसग मेरो विगत पन्ध्र वर्ष अगाडिदेखि नै चिनजान थियो जोसँग मैले एउटा संस्थागत विद्यालयमा सँगै अध्यापन गरेको थिएँ । त्यसकारण उनलाई यस अनुसन्धानको उत्तरदाता चयन गर्ने निर्णय गरी भेट्ने समय मिलाएको थिएँ। त्यसपछि मैले २०८१ को दशैं बिदामा फोनमा कुरा गरेर भेट्ने समय मिलाएको थिएँ पहिलो भेटमा चिया गफबाट नै मेरो अनुसन्धानको समस्याको बारे सुनाउदा नै खोजे अनुसारको जानकारीको प्राप्ति हुने आशा पलाएको थियो किनकि पहिलाबाट चिनजान भएको कारण उनले सहज रुपमा आफ्नो पेसा कार्य क्षेत्र, जीवनको उतारचढावबारे खुलेर सुखदुखको आदानप्रदान गरी स्थिति अझ सामान्य भएको थियो । यसक्रममा असंरचित प्रश्नहरु सोध्दै उत्तरदाता शिक्षकबाट सोधिएका प्रश्नको उत्तर प्राप्त गर्न थालियो। शिक्षकले पनि खुलेर उत्तर दिनथाले। शिक्षकले दिएका उत्तरलाई घरमा आएर कपीमा सारियो। फेरि अर्को पटक पनि भेट्ने समयको लागि फोन गर्दा घरमै भेट्न आउनू भनेर बोलाए। म पनि अझ आफ्नो काममा सहजता भएको अनुभूति गरेर उनकै घरमा गएको थिएँ । केही समयमा उनको कार्य क्षेत्रको बारेमा कुराकानी सुरु गरियो उनका धेरैजसो उत्तर शब्दशब्दमै उतारियो भने कतियप उत्तर पदावलीमा अनि कतिपय उत्तरचाहिं वाक्यमा टिपियो। मैले खोजेको उत्तर प्राप्त भएको जस्तो लागे पछि उनीसँगको दोस्रो बसाँइबाट अन्तर्वार्ताको अन्त्य गरेको थिएँ । त्यसपछि ल्याएको उत्तरलाई लिप्यन्तरण गरियो। त्यसपछि विषयअनुसार कोडिङ् गरियो।

मिल्दाजुल्दा कोडहरुलाई एकत्रित गरेर थिम निर्माण गरेपछि प्रत्येक थिमलाई उपशीर्षक बनाउँदै उत्तरका आधारमा अध्ययन विश्लेषण गर्दै लेखनपुनर्लेखन साथ यो अनुसन्धानात्मक लेख तयार पारिएको छ। त्यसैले प्रस्तुत लेख मौखिक तथ्यको लेखन गरेपछि यसलाई २० वटा कोडिङ गरी ६ वटा खण्ड खण्डमा छुटयाएर २ ओटा थिम निर्माण गरेर विश्लेषण गर्दै तयार पारिएको हो । त्यसै गरी अनुसन्धानमा विचार पुर्याउनुपर्ने नैतिक एवम् मूल्यगत आवश्यकता जानकारी सहितको स्वीकृति, गोपनीयता, सहभागीसँगको विश्वास र सम्बन्ध, हानीबाट सुरक्षा एवम् दोहोरो सहयोगलाई पनि यस लेखका क्रममा कार्यान्वयन र पूर्ण रुपमा पालन गरिएको छ।

छलफल र निष्कर्ष

यस अध्ययनबाट प्राप्त सूचनाहरुलाई उद्देश्यका आधारमा क्रमशः मुख्य थिम र सहायक थिम गरी निम्न अनुसार प्रस्तुत गरिएको छ :

नेपाली विषय शिक्षकप्रति विद्यालय र समाजको हेर्ने दृष्टिकोण

विद्यालय प्रशासन र समाजबाट उपेक्षा

कमजोर विषय शिक्षकका रुपमा विद्यालय प्रशासनबाट नेपाली भाषा शिक्षकलाई उपेक्षा गरेको पाइन्छ । शिक्षकलाई उपेक्षामा पारिनुको कारण नेपाली भाषालाई अति सरल मानेर शिक्षण सिकाइमा बढी सामान्य ठान्नु हो । सजिलो विषयका रूपमा नेपाली विषय रहेको छ । यिनै कारणले विषय शिक्षकलाई उपेक्षा गरेको पाइन्छ । तथापि शिक्षकको पेसागत विकासअन्तर्गत गोष्ठी, बैठक, कार्यशाला, बहस, तालिम, अन्तरवैयक्तिक सम्बन्ध, परामर्श सेवा, व्यावसायिक तथा पेसागत अनुसन्धान लेखन, इमेल र इन्टरनेटको प्रयोग, प्रभावकारी सञ्चार, शैक्षिक निकायहरूबाट प्रकाशन गरिने न्युजलेटर, जर्नल, ब्रोसर, स्मारिकाको अध्ययन जस्ता विषयहरू पर्दछन् (शैक्षिक तालिम केन्द्र, २०६६, पृ. १९) । यी विविध प्रकारका ज्ञानलाई आर्जन गरेर शिक्षण क्रियाकलाप सम्पन्न गरेमा शिक्षण सिकाइ प्रभावकारी बन्न सक्ने देखिन्छ । यसै सन्दर्भमा मेरो उत्तरदाता शिक्षकले भने, "प्रशासनबाट नेपाली त हो नि ! नेपाली विषयको लागि पनि तालिम चाहिन्छ र ?.नेपाली पढाउन पनि के तालिम ? भन्ने प्रश्न हुन्छ । " यसरी नेपाली शिक्षकलाई तालिम आवश्यक नपर्ने तर्क प्रस्तुत गर्दै नेपाली विषय शिक्षण सम्बन्धी विभिन्न निकायबाट आयोजना गरिने तालिम कार्यक्रममा समेत सहभागिताको अवसरबाट बञ्चित गरिएको पाइन्छ । त्यसै गरी उनी भन्छन् "कमजोर विद्यार्थीले मात्र नेपाली विषय अध्ययन गरेको हुन्छ भन्ने सोच ले नेपाली विषय र विषय शिक्षकले हेपाई सहन विवश हुनु परेको छ ।" तसर्थ नेपाली विषय शिक्षकले अन्य विषय शिक्षकले पाउने जति समान सम्मान र मूल्यको अवधारणा विकासको साटो प्रशासनको नजरबाट कमजोर विषय शिक्षकको रुपमा उपेक्षित भएको पाइन्छ ।

त्यसै गरी दोस्रो भाषाका रुपमा नेपाली भाषलाई राखेर संस्थागत विद्यालयमा हेर्ने गरेको पाइन्छ । अङ्ग्रेजी भाषालाई पहिलो प्राथमिकता र नेपाली भाषालाई दोस्रो भाषाका रुपमा राखेर पठन पाठन गराउने भएकाले नेपाली शिक्षकलाई दोस्रो दर्जाको शिक्षकको रुपमा लिने गरेको पाइन्छ । यस सम्बन्धमा शिक्षक भन्छन् "नेपाली भाषाको प्रयोगलाई सकेसम्म विद्यालय परिसरमा बन्देज लगाउन खोज्ने र हामीलाई काम नलाग्ने विषय पढाउने शिक्षकको दर्जामा राखिएको छ।" तसर्थ भाषाको बन्देजको कारणले पनि कमजोर दोस्रो दर्जाको शिक्षकका रुपमा हेर्ने गरेको भन्ने ठम्याइ छ । मेरो उत्तरदाता पुनः थप्छन् " स्कुलमा नेपाली बोल्न नपाइने, बोलेमा जरिवाना तिर्नु पर्ने बाध्यात्मक स्थिति प्रशासनले निर्माण गरेको छ ।" त्यसकारण यो भन्न सकिन्छ कि विद्यालय प्रशासन स्वयम् नेपाली भाषा केही हैन, यो जान्नु आवश्यक छैन, अङ्ग्रेजी भाषालाई प्राथमिकताका साथ संस्थागत विद्यालय भित्र नेपाली भाषा बोलेमा विभिन्न प्रकृतिका दण्ड, सजाय गर्ने गरिन्छ त्यसैले नेपाली विषय र विषय शिक्षकलाई विभिन्न क्षेत्रबाट उपेक्षा गर्नुका साथै नेपाली भाषालाई पनि दोस्रो भाषाका रुपमा हेर्ने गरेको देखिन्छ । नेपाली भाषा विषयलाई समाजबाट उपेक्षा गरेको पाइन्छ । समाजमा सबै वर्गले सजिलै कामकाजको भाषाका रुपमा लिइने र सजिलो विषयसमेत मानिने हुनाले पनि नेपाली भाषा र विषय शिक्षकलाई समाजबाट नै उपेक्षा गरेको पाइन्छ । यसै सन्दर्भमा मेरा उत्तरदाता बताउछन् "नेपाली भाषा शिक्षकलाई ए, नेपाली सर पो !" यसरी नेपाली विषय शिक्षकलाई समाजले हेर्ने दृष्टिकोण नकारात्मक रहेको छ । त्यसै गरी उत्तरदाता भन्छन् "ए पास मात्र भयौ, डिभिजन आएन, मास्टर त भइहालिन्छ नि, अरु विषयमा नभए पनि नेपाली विषयका मास्टर त भै हाल्छौ नि !" यसप्रकार नेपाली विषय र शिक्षकलाई हेयात्मक रुपमा हेर्ने प्रचलन रहेको छ । यसका साथै नेपाली भाषा विषय र विषय शिक्षकलाई अत्यन्तै कमजोर विषय र कमजोर विषय शिक्षकका रुपमा हेरी समाजबाट नै उपेक्षा गरेको पाइन्छ । म नेपाली शिक्षक भन्दा नै ए नेपाली विषय शिक्षक पो भनेर हेय दृष्टिले हेरिन्छ । यसरी हाम्रो समाजले हेर्दा त नेपाली शिक्षक जस्तो देखिन्न भन्दै भिन्नै प्रकृतिको कमजोर दृष्टिकोणबाट तुलना गरेको पाइन्छ । समग्रमा हेर्दा विद्यालय परिसरका साथै समाजमा समेत नेपाली शिक्षकले विभिन्न हेयात्मक तथा नकारात्मक टिप्पणी सुनिरहनु परेको पाइन्छ ।

पारिश्रमिक र पेसागत मूल्याङ्कनमा असमानता

नेपाली भाषा शिक्षक अन्य विषय शिक्षक सरह समान पारिश्रमिक र सुबिधाबाट बञ्चित रहेको पाइन्छ । यस्तो असमानताले शिक्षकको कार्य क्षेत्रप्रतिको मोह घट्दै जाने पेसामा नै समस्या आउन सक्ने देखिन्छ । शिक्षकलाई

पर्याप्त आर्थिक र प्रोत्साहनात्मक सेवा सुविधा नदिंदा कम प्रतिष्ठाको विषय ठान्ने स्थिति आउन सक्छ । यस सम्बन्धमा मेरा उत्तरदाता शिक्षक भन्छन् "जीवन चलाउननै धौ धौ र आतेस लाग्दो छ अरु विषय शिक्षक भन्दा कम तलवमा चित बुझाउनु परेको छ अरु डिमाण्डएबल विषय रे हाम्रो नर्मल भनेर भन्छन्" त्यसकारण यी भनाइलाई समान शैक्षिक क्षमता, श्रम बराबर तर पारिश्रमिकमा विभेद रहेको पाइन्छ । नेपाली शिक्षकहरुको पारिश्रमिक र पेसागत मूल्याङ्न अङ्ग्रेजी, गणित र विज्ञान विषय शिक्षकहरुको तुलनामा कमजोर मान्ने गरेको पाइन्छ । त्यसै गरी पारिश्रमिकका असमानताले नेपाली विषय शिक्षकहरुको मनोबललाई कमजोर पार्दै असन्तुष्टिको तह बढाउँदै लगेको देखिन्छ । साथै पेसाको कुरा गर्ने क्रममा उनी भन्छन् "अन्यौलमा सुरु गरेको पेसा हो ,दुःखमा यो कत्रो खुसी दिने पेसा थियो अहिले खाऊँ कि छोडौको अवस्था आएको छ ।" यो कुराबाट के देखिन्छ भने शिक्षक पेसाले जीवन चल्न सक्ने अवस्था छैन कुनै अवसरको खोजिमा लाग्न बाध्य हुनु पर्ने अवस्था रहेको कारण पारिश्रमिकमा विभेद हो भन्ने पाइन्छ । यस सम्बन्धमा रोसिटा, सन् २०१६) ले शिक्षकको पेसागत विकासमा प्रभाव पार्ने व्यक्तिगत प्रभावक र विद्यालयको वातावरणीय तत्त्वहरूलाई प्रमुख रूपमा औंल्याइएको छ । व्यक्तिगत प्रभावकअन्तर्गत कार्यमा संलग्नता, उत्प्रेरणा, पेसागत प्रतिबद्धताका साथै पेसाकर्मीको कार्यक्षमतालाई उल्लेख गरिएको छ भने विद्यालयको वातावरणीय तत्त्व अन्तर्गत विद्यालयले उपलब्ध गराउने सेवा सुविधा र अवसरले शिक्षकको पेसागत विकासमा प्रभाव पार्ने कुरा उल्लेख गरिएको छ । त्यसैले विद्यालयले उपलब्ध गराउने सेवा सुविधा र अवसरले शिक्षकको पेसागत विकासमा प्रभाव पार्ने भएता पनि धेरैजसो निजी विद्यालयहरूमा नेपाली भाषा शिक्षकहरूलाई न्यून पारिश्रमिक दिइन्छ जुन अन्य विषयका शिक्षकहरूसँग तुलना गर्दा असमान देखिन्छ । जुन बढ्दो महँगी र जीवनयापनको लागि समयानुसार अपर्याप्त रहेको पाइन्छ । यसले उनीहरूलाई आफ्नो परिवारको आधारभूत आवश्यकता पूरा गर्नसमेत धौ-धौ परेको देखिन्छ । यस सम्बन्धमा शिक्षक भन्छन् " विज्ञान, गणित वा अंग्रेजी पढाउने शिक्षकहरूले निजी ट्युसन वा कोचिङ सेन्टरबाट अतिरिक्त आय आर्जन गर्ने अवसर पाउँछन् तर नेपाली भाषाका लागि ट्युसनको माग न्यून हुँदा हाम्रा लागि अतिरिक्त आयको स्रोत लगभग शून्यप्रायः हुन्छ ।" यस प्रकार अपर्याप्त सुविधा र प्रोत्साहन भत्ता, अतिरिक्त क्रियाकलाप, साहित्य-सम्बन्धी कार्यक्रम सञ्चालन वा विद्यार्थीका लामा लेख-रचना परीक्षण गरेबापत कुनै अतिरिक्त प्रोत्साहन वा भत्ताको व्यवस्था हुँदैन । यसले उनीहरूलाई पेसाप्रति उदासीन बनाएको पाइयो । आर्थिक समस्यासँगै सामाजिक दृष्टिकोणले पनि नेपाली भाषाका शिक्षकहरूले चुनौती भोगिरहेका छन् ।

शिक्षकलाई पर्याप्त आर्थिक र प्रोत्साहनात्मक सेवा सुविधा नदिंदा पेसालाई नै कम प्रतिष्ठाको विषय ठान्न थालेका छन् । प्रोत्साहनात्मक सेवा सुविधाको सवालमा शिक्षक भन्छन् " बाध्यतामा रोजेको पेसा हो । सरकारीमा तलव बढ्दा हाम्रो जहाँको त्यहीँ हो, जीवन निर्वाहमूखी छैन,अर्को विकल्प पनि छैन।" त्यसैले शिक्षकको यो भनाइले कामप्रतिको उत्साहमा ह्रास ल्याएको देखिन्छ । अतः आफ्नो शिक्षण सिकाइको उच्चतम क्षमता प्रस्तुत गर्ने वातावरण नरहेको असन्तुष्टि पाइनुका साथै पेसागत समानताको खोजी गरेको देखिन्छ ।

अङ्ग्रेजी भाषालाई प्राथमिकता नेपाली भाषाको अवमूल्यन

संस्थागत विद्यालयमा अङ्ग्रेजी भाषालाई मुख्य प्राथमिकतामा राखेर अध्यापन गराउने गरेको पाइन्छ । नेपाली भाषालाई दोस्रो भाषाका रुपमा र अङ्ग्रेजी भाषालाई पहिलो प्राथमिकता दिने भएकाले नेपाली शिक्षकहरु दबाबमा छन् । विद्यार्थीलाई अङ्ग्रेजी बोल्न प्रेरित गरिने तर नेपाली बोल्दा सजाए गर्ने परिपाटीले नेपाली भाषा शिक्षणमा समस्या उत्पन्न गरेको छ । यसै गरी विषयको अवमूल्यन र समाजमा अङ्ग्रेजी भाषा मोह व्याप्त छ । अभिभावक र विद्यालय प्रशासनसमेत नेपाली भाषालाई अनिवार्य तर कम महत्त्वपूर्ण विषयका रूपमा हेर्छन् । विज्ञान र गणित जस्ता विषयलाई दिइने प्राथमिकता र सम्मान नेपाली भाषाले पाउँदैन । यसै विषयलाई लिएर सहभागी शिक्षक भन्छन्:

> नेपाली भाषाको पाठ्यक्रम अझै पनि सैद्धान्तिक र घोकाउने शैलीमा आधारित छ । सिर्जनात्मक र प्रयोगात्मक शिक्षणका लागि आवश्यक लचकता र स्रोतको अभाव छ । विद्यालयहरूमा नेपाली साहित्यका राम्रा पुस्तकहरू, पुस्तकालय, सन्दर्भ सामग्री, श्रव्य-दृश्य सामग्री वा कम्प्युटरमा नेपाली फन्ट र सफ्टवेयरको सहज उपलब्धता छैन । यसले शिक्षणलाई नीरस र प्रभावहीन बनाएको छ ।

यस धारणाका आधारमा हेर्दा अन्य विषय समान स्थानमा भाषा शिक्षणलाई पनि सिर्जनात्मक र प्रयोगात्मक शिक्षणका लागि आवश्यक लचकता र स्रोतको व्यवस्थापन गर्नु पर्ने देखिन्छ । पुनः यस सम्बन्धमा उत्तरदाता शिक्षकका भन्छन् "विद्यार्थीलाई प्रभावकारी रुपमा लेपाली भाषा सिकाउने प्रयास गर्दा पनि विद्यालयले अङ्ग्रेजी

बोल्न बाध्य बनाउने हुँदा शिक्षकको भूमिकामा समेत अनावश्यक द्वन्द्व सिर्जना भएको छ ।" यसले शिक्षकलाई पेसागत परिचयमा समेत असर पुर्‌याउँने संकेतका साथै उनीहरुलाई दोस्रो प्राथमिकता प्राप्त शिक्षकका रुपमा अवमूल्यन गरिएको पाइन्छ । यसले अङ्ग्रेजी भाषाको मोह बढ्दै गएको यस परिप्रेक्ष्यमा नेपाली भाषाको महत्व घट्दै गएको देखिन्छ । यस सन्दर्भमा शिक्षक भन्छन् "धेरै अभिभावक आफ्ना छोराछोरीलाई नेपालीभन्दा अंङ्ग्रेजीमा दक्ष बनाउन उत्सुक छन् । त्यसकारण नयाँ पुस्ताले नेपाली भाषालाई सहज रुपमा बोल्न, लेख्न वा पढ्न सक्ने क्षमता गुमाउँदै गएका छन ।" त्यसैले नेपाली साहित्य र संस्कृतिमा चासो राख्नेहरुकमा संख्या दिनदिनै घटिरहेको छ । नेपालका ठूला सहरहरुमा नेपाली भाषा ग्रामिण वा पछौटेपनको संकेतको रुपमा हेरिने प्रवृत्ति बढ्दै गएको देखिन्छ । यस्तो सोचले गर्दा नेपाली भाषा मात्र हैन हाम्रो पहिचान र संस्कृति पनि संकटमा परेको छ । तसर्थ अङ्ग्रेजी भाषालाई प्राथमिकता नेपाली भाषाको अवमूल्यन गरिएको पाइन्छ । त्यसै गरी नेपाली भाषा र भाषा शिक्षकलाई समाजले प्रमुख प्राथमिकता र स्थानमा राखेको पाइदैन । साथै विद्यालमा र कक्षा शिक्षणका क्रममा भोग्नुपरेको अनुभव मेरा उत्तरदाता शिक्षक यसरी सुनाउछन् :

> कक्षा बाहिर विद्यालय प्रशाासन तथा अभिभावक समतेले अङ्ग्रेजी भाषालाई प्राथमिकता दिने आफूलाई गौण मान्न बाध्य पारिनुका साथै नेपाली भाषा शिक्षकलाई दोस्रो दर्जाको मानेर हेर्ने दृष्टिकोणले हाम्रो आत्मसम्मानमा पनि नकारात्मक प्रभाव पारेको छ । यसैगरी विद्यार्थीमा पनि प्राथमिता विहीन भाषा हो भन्ने मानसिकता निर्माण हुदै गइको छ । उनीहरुले पनि नेपाली भाषाप्रतिको रुची गुमाउँदै गएको र शिक्षण झन् कठिन बन्दै गएको अवस्था छ ।

यी भनाइबाट के बुझिन्छ भने विद्यार्थीहरुले दैनिक जीवन सञ्चालनका क्रममा अग्रेजी भाषालाई अग्रभागमा राखेर प्रयोग गर्ने तर नेपाली भाषाको उचित प्रयोय गर्नु पर्ने महत्व बुझेको पाइदैन । यसकारण पनि शिक्षकले कक्षामा मात्र नेपाली भाषालाई प्रोत्साहन गर्दा विभिन्न चुनौतीहरुको सामना गर्नु परेको देखिन्छ । विद्यार्थीमा नेपाली भाषाको आधारभूत ज्ञानको कमी हुनुका साथै सम्बादमा पनि कमी देखा पर्नुले उनीहरुमा भाषा प्रवाह र व्याकरणीय त्रुटि बढ्दै जाने जसलाई सुधार्न शिक्षकले नै थप मेहनत गर्नु पर्ने दखिन्छ ।

निष्कर्ष

नेपाली भाषा शिक्षकहरुले संस्थागत विद्यालयमा भाषीक कारण विभिन्न चुनौती र समस्या भोग्दै आइरहेको पाइएको छ । यस अध्ययनमा संस्थागत विद्यालयमा अध्यापनरत नेपाली भाषा शिक्षकसँग विभिन्न चरणमा अन्तर्वार्ता गरी उनीहरुका मनका कुरा ल्याएर चुनौती र समस्या पहिचान गरिएको छ ।

प्रस्तुत अध्ययनले संस्थागत विद्यालयहरूमा कार्यरत नेपाली भाषा शिक्षकहरू गम्भीर पेशागत, पहिचानगत तथा मनोवैज्ञानिक समस्याहरूबाट गुज्रिरहेको निष्कर्ष निकालेको छ । विद्यालय प्रशासन, समाज र अभिभावकहरूले समेत अङ्ग्रेजी भाषालाई सामाजिक प्रतिष्ठा र विश्वव्यापी अवसरको पर्याय ठान्दै अत्यधिक प्राथमिकता दिँदा राष्ट्रभाषा नेपाली र यसका शिक्षकहरू उपेक्षित र अवमूल्यित हुन पुगेका छन् । अध्ययनका अनुसार नेपाली विषयलाई "कमजोर" र "सजिलो" विषयका रूपमा हेरिनु, विद्यालय परिसरमा नेपाली बोल्न बन्देज लगाइनु र अन्य विषयका शिक्षकको तुलनामा कम पारिश्रमिक तथा सुविधामा चित्त बुझाउनु पर्ने जस्ता विभेदकारी अभ्यासहरू संस्थागत रूपमै मौलाएका छन् ।

यी कारणहरूले गर्दा नेपाली शिक्षकहरूमा पेसाप्रति असन्तुष्टि, आत्मसम्मानमा कमी र पहिचानको सङ्कटट जस्ता गहिरो मनोवैज्ञानिक असरहरू देखिएका छन् जसले उनीहरूमा पेशागत नैराश्यता बढाउँदै शिक्षण पेसाबाटै पलायन हुने अवस्था सिर्जना गरेको छ । अङ्ग्रेजी भाषाको बढ्दो मोहले गर्दा विद्यार्थीहरूमा पनि नेपाली भाषाप्रतिको रुचि, मौलिक ज्ञान र दक्षता निरन्तर घट्दै गएको छ जसले शिक्षण कार्यलाई थप चुनौतीपूर्ण बनाएको छ । समग्रमा यो अध्ययनले नेपाली भाषा शिक्षकहरू चौतर्फी दबाबमा रहेको उनीहरूको पेसागत मर्यादा र पहिचान गम्भीर सङ्कटमा परेको र यसले अन्ततः हाम्रो राष्ट्रिय पहिचान, साहित्य र संस्कृतिको आधारस्तम्भकै भविष्यमाथि गम्भीर प्रश्न खडा गरेको तथ्यलाई उजागर गरेको छ । तसर्थ यो केवल पेसागत मात्र नभई गम्भीर राष्ट्रिय सरोकारको विषय हो, जसमा सम्बन्धित निकायले तत्काल नीतिगत हस्तक्षेप गरी भाषिक समानता र शिक्षकको सम्मान सुनिश्चित गर्न ध्यानाकर्षण हुनु जरुरी देखिन्छ ।

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लेखसार

प्रस्तुत लेख सोभियत संघको भाषानीतिलाई त्यहाँको राजनीतिले केकसरी र केकस्तो प्रभाव पार्यो भन्ने विषयसँग सम्बन्धित छ । यस लेखमा भाषानीति भनेको के हो भन्ने विषयमा पनि चर्चा गरिएको छ । त्यसै गरी यस लेखमा सोभियत संघले आफ्नो अस्तित्वकाल (सन्.१९२२- १९९१) मा बहुजातीय र बहुभाषिक समाजलाई एकीकृत गर्न भाषालाई राजनैतिक साधनको रुपमा प्रयोग गर्यो भन्ने विश्लेषण पनि गरिएको छ । यसका साथै यस लेखमा सोभियत संघको केन्द्रीय नेतृत्वले कहिले बहुभाषिकतालाई आत्मसात् गर्यो भने कहिले रुसी भाषालाई रुसीकरण गरेर अन्य स्थानीय भाषालाई गौण बनायो भन्ने निधो पनि निकालिएको छ ।संसारमा सोभियत संघले सर्वप्रथम भाषानीति बनाएको, लेनिनपूर्वका जार साही,लेनिन , स्टालिन र स्टालिनपछिको नेतृत्वले सोभियत संघको भाषानीति आफू अनुकूल तय गरेको,सोभियत संघको भाषानीतिलाई नै आधार बनाएर अन्य देशले आआफ्ना राष्ट्र र समाजका प्रकृति अनुकूलका भाषानीति बनाएको भन्ने विश्लेषण पनि यस लेखको मुख्य पाटो अन्तर्गत पर्छ । वास्तवमा सोभियत संघले तय गरेको भाषानीतिमा त्यहाँको राजनीतिले असरदार प्रभाव पार्यो भन्ने निष्कर्ष नै यस लेखको सार हो । अनुसन्धानको गुणात्मक ढाँचालाई आधार बनाएर तयार पारिएको यस लेखमा विषयवस्तुको प्रस्तुतिमा वर्णनात्मक र विश्लेषणात्मक प्रक्रिया अपनाइएको छ ।

शब्दकुन्जी : उत्तरप्रत्यक्षवाद, भाषानीति, रुसीकरण,रुसीगणराज्य,

अध्ययनको पृष्ठभूमि

वर्तमान सभ्यतासम्ममा आइपुग्दा मानवजातिले प्राप्त गरेको सबैभन्दा उल्लेख्य वस्तु भाषा हो । भाषा विचार विनमयको माध्यम हो । इथ्नोलग:लेङ्गुइज अफ द वर्ल्डका अनुसार वर्तमान संसारमा ७१६४ भाषा बोलिन्छन् (लेविस्, सिमन्स् र फेनिङ् ,२०२१,पृ. २) । भाषाको आन्तरिक नियम र व्यवस्था पनि हुन्छ भने यसका माध्यमबाट विचार आदानप्रदान गर्दा घरपरिवारमा, समाजमा,क्षेत्रविशेषमा, राष्ट्रमा र अन्तर्राष्ट्रस्तरमा समेत निर्धारित निर्देशित नीतिनियम हुन्छ,बनाइन्छ । विचारको आदानप्रदानमा उपयोग हुने र गरिने भाषाप्रयोगसँग सम्बन्धित नियम अनुशासनलाई भाषानीति भनिन्छ । व्यक्ति,घरमूली,टोल,गाउँ,समाज, राष्ट्र र अन्तर्राष्ट्रले आवश्यकता अनुसार भाषानीति निर्धारण गर्छ । भाषानीति भनेको इतिहासमा आधारित विषय पनि हो ।"भाषाको मानकीकरण गर्ने,आधुनिकीकरण गर्ने,प्रयोजनपरक मान्यता स्थापित गराउने,राष्ट्रको भाषिक विकास र विस्तार तथा सङ्कटापन्न भाषाको जगेर्ना गर्दै भाषा र संस्कृतिको उत्थानका लागि गरिने सम्पूर्ण प्रयास र नीतिगत मान्यतालाई भाषानीतिले निर्धारण गरेको हुन्छ " (पौडेल र भट्टराई,२०७७,पृ.२) । यसको कार्यान्वयन देश अनुसार फरकफरक हुन्छ । यसको प्रयोग व्यवहार एक राज्य र अर्को राज्य अनि एक प्रान्त र अर्को पान्तबिच पनि भिन्न हुनसक्छ । भाषानीतिलाई भाषा छनौट र प्रयोगको आधार पनि मानिन्छ । त्यसैले भाषानीतिले असमानता पनि सिर्जना गर्न सक्छ । "भाषाको संरक्षण, संवर्द्धन, विकास र स्तरीकरणका निम्ति राज्य वा सरकारले अँगाल्ने नीतिलाई नै भाषानीति भनिन्छ" (गिरी ,सन्. २०१०,पृ.२००) । कुन भाषाका वक्ता कति छन्, त्यसमा के-के काम भएको छ, त्यसले लेख्य रूप पाएको छ कि छैन आदि कुराको ज्ञान नभई उपयुक्त भाषानीति बन्न सक्दैन । त्यसैले भावमा बगेर होइन, यथार्थमा टेकेर भाषानीति बनाइन्छ र त्यसलाई समाज र राष्ट्रको हित अनुकूल अपेक्षित परिणाम

प्राप्त गर्नका लागि लागू गरिन्छ। "भाषिक नीति प्रयोग गरिने भाषाहरुमा मात्र सीमित नरहेर भाषाको व्याकरण,शब्दावली विधा र शैलीमा समेत आधारित रहेको हुन्छ "(सोहामी,२००६ : पृ.४८)। अतः भाषिक नीतिको दायरा फराकिलो हुन्छ। स्पोल्स्की भन्छन्,

> भाषा छनोट र व्यवस्थापनमा प्रत्येक संस्था र सामाजिक समूहका आआफ्नै भाषिक नीति हुन्छन्। कार्यक्षेत्रको भाषिक नीति स्थानीय तहबाट निर्देशित हुन सक्छ। त्यसो त व्यापारिक फर्महरुले पनि आफ्नै भाषिक नीतिहरु स्थापना गर्छन्। जस्तो कि ,बहुराष्ट्रिय युरोपेली फर्महरुले आफ्ना कर्मचारीहरुबाट अंग्रेजी भाषा प्रयोगको अपेक्षा गर्छन् (सन्२००४,पृ.५२)।

यसरी भाषानीति तयार पार्दा समाज,राष्ट्र र संस्थासमेतको स्वार्थ पनि हेरिन्छ। भाषानीति स्वतन्त्र हुँदैन बरु सापेक्षिक स्वतन्त्र हुन्छ र कुनै मुद्दालाई आधार बनाएर भाषानीति तय गरिन्छ। यसै सन्दर्भमा सोहामी भन्छन्, "भाषा स्वतन्त्र नभएर निश्चित राजनैतिक ,वैचारिक,सामाजिक र आर्थिक मुद्दामा आधारित रहेको हुन्छ। यी संयन्त्रहरु तटस्थ छैनन्। यिनले निश्चित मुद्दालाई प्रबर्धन र निरन्तरता दिने साधनका रुपमा कार्य गर्छन् "(सन्.२००६,पृ.५५)। यसरी भाषानीतिले प्रचलनलाई समेत निरन्तरता दिएको पाइन्छ। बहुभाषिक मुलुकमा भाषिक न्याय हुनुपर्छ। भाषिक समतालेनै उन्नतिको जग बस्छ। सोहामीले पुनःभनेका छन् ,"समाजमा रहेका भाषाले प्रथमिकता र हैसियत पाउनुपर्छ। भाषानीतिले भाषाहरुलाई स्थानीय, क्षेत्रीय, राष्ट्रिय भनी निर्धारण गर्नसक्छ ,साथै भाषालाई आधिकारिक, सही ,मानक वा स्तरीय भनी निश्चित गर्नसक्छ " (सन्.२००६, पृ.४७)। यसरी राष्ट्रको भाषानीति भाषा र भाषिका छुट्याउनका लागि पनि उपयोगमा आउँने गरेको पाइन्छ।

क्षेत्रफलका आधारमा संसारको सबैभन्दा ठुलो देश रुस हो। यसलाई USSR वा सोभियत संघ पनि भनिन्छ। यसको कूल क्षेत्रफल १,७०,९८,३२५ वर्ग कि. मि.रहेको छ। सन्. २०२३को जनगणना अनुसार यसको जनसङ्ख्या १४,३५,६९,०४९ रहेको छ। यस देशमा १२० जाति र १०० भाषा बोलिन्छन् (history of soviet union ,२०२३)। त्यसैले सोभियत संघ बहुजातीय र बहुभाषिक देश हो। सोभियत सङ्घमा भाषानीतिसम्बन्धी कामको सुरुआत सन् १९०५ बाट भएको हो। सोभियत सङ्घ (रुस) विश्वमा भाषानीति बनाउने पहिलो राष्ट्र हो। भाषानीति बनाउने पहिलो व्यक्ति जोन बोडवाँ द कुर्तने (Jan Boudouin de courtenay) /कुर्तने हुन्। उनी र उनका चेलाहरू क्रुजेप्स्की, शेर्वा, याकुबिन्स्की, पोलिवानोफ र संरचनात्मक भाषाविज्ञानका प्रवर्तक ससुर, यिनै भाषावैज्ञानिकहरूका पहलमा रुसमा भाषानीतिसम्बन्धी कामको सुरुआत भएको हो (KNK advi,2023)।

लेनिनग्राद विश्वविद्यालयका प्राध्यापक कुर्तनेले रुसमा पहिलो भाषानीति बनाएका हुन्। उनको भाषानीतिलाई लेनिनले आत्मसात गरे। कुर्तनेका चेलाहरूले भाषाविज्ञान विषयमा नयाँ आयाम थप्ने काम गरेका थिए। तिनीहरूले पनि लेनिनलाई भाषिक विकासको काममा सघाए। यिनै कामले सोभियत संघमा समाज भाषाविज्ञानको विकास भएको हो। रुसमा जारहरूकै पालामा अर्थात् सन् १८७० पूर्व नै समाज भाषाविज्ञानको जन्म भएको थियो। सोभियत सङ्घमा भाषिक समानताको कुरा सन् १९०५ मा आएको हो (पौडेल र भट्टराई,२०७७,पृ.२)। कुर्तनेले सन् १९०५ मा रुसी साम्राज्यका लागि बहुभाषिक भाषानीति तयार पारेका थिए। त्यो पर्चाका रूपमा एक वर्षपछि (१९०६) मा प्रकाशित भएका थियो। सन् १९१३ मा अर्को पर्चामा कुर्तनेले एउटा बहुभाषिक गणराज्यमा बोलिने सबै भाषाहरूको बराबर अधिकार हुनुपर्दछ भन्ने धारणा राखेका थिए। बोल्सेविक (कम्युनिष्ट) र कुर्तनेको भाषानीति एउटै थियो।संसारकै पहिलो र आदर्श भाषानीति तय गर्ने सोभियत संघको भाषानीतिमा राजनीतिको प्रभाव सकारात्मक या नकारात्मक केकस्तो रह्यो ,त्यसले अन्य एकभाषिक,द्विवभाषिक, वा बहुभाषिक मुलुकमा केकस्तो असर पर्यो अनि सोभियत संघको भाषानीतिले अन्य मुलुकलाई आआफ्नो देशको भाषानीति तय गर्नमा केकसरी सहयोग गर्यो भन्ने प्रश्नहरु यस लेखमा समस्याका रुपमा चयन गरिएका छन्। यसै गरी भाषानीति भनेको के हो भन्ने प्रश्न पनि यस लघु अनुसन्धानको समस्या हो। यिनै समस्याको समाधानार्थ प्रस्तुत लेख लेखिएको हो। अतः संक्षेपमा भाषानीति भनेको के हो भन्ने विषयको अध्ययन गर्नु र सोभियत संघको भाषानीतिमा राजनीतिको प्रभाव अध्ययन गर्नु, नै यस लेखको मूल उद्देश्य रहेको छ। यस अध्ययनले सोभियत संघले तय गरेको भाषानीतिको जानकारी राख्ने जिज्ञासु एवम् त्यससँग सम्बन्धित विषयमा आगामी समयमा अनुसन्धान गर्न चाहने अनुसन्धातालाई समेत आवश्यक सहयोग गर्ने ठानिन्छ।

अध्ययन विधि र प्रक्रिया

प्रस्तुत लेख उत्तर प्रत्यक्षवादी धारणालाई आधार बनाई तयार पारिएको छ ।" प्रत्यक्षवादले जस्तै उत्तर प्रत्यक्षवादले पनि सत्य एउटै र निरपेक्ष हुन्छ भन्ने मान्यता राखे तापनि परिस्थिति र परिवेश अनुसार त्यस्तो सत्यमा केही फेरबदल हुनसक्छ भन्ने अवधारणा राख्छ" (खनाल,२०८१ , पृ. १६) । यस अनुसार उत्तर प्रत्यक्षवादले बहुसत्यलाई स्वीकार गर्छ । यो लेख अनुसन्धानको गुणात्मक विधि अपनाएर लेखिएको छ । गुणात्मक ढाँचाअन्तर्गत पर्ने वर्णनात्मक र विश्लेषणात्मक विधिको उपयोग गरी यो लेख लेखिएको हो । यस लेखमा द्वितीयक स्रोतका सामग्री चयन गरिएको छ । मूलतः पुस्तकालय कार्यमार्फत् सम्पन्न गरिएको यो लघु अनुसन्धानमा व्याख्या विश्लेषण मार्फत् निष्कर्षमा पुगिएको छ । त्यसै गरी पुस्तकालयीय कार्यका माध्यमबाट आवश्यक सामग्रीहरूको सङ्कलन गरिएको छ । यस क्रममा भाषानीति र यस सम्बन्धमा चर्चा गरिएका अङ्ग्रेजी भाषाका पुस्तक पनि यस लेखको स्रोतका रूपमा उपयोग गरिएको छ ।

पूर्वकार्य

प्रजातन्त्रको पुनर्बहालीपछि २०५० सालमा राष्ट्रिय भाषानीति सुझाव आयोग गठन भयो । त्यस आयोगमा विभिन्न भाषाका भाषाविद्को संलग्नता थियो । सो आयोगले सेमिनार गरेर बहुभाषिक मुलुक नेपालको वर्तमानको भाषानीति केकस्तो छ र अब केकस्तो हुनुपर्छ भन्ने विषयमा राष्ट्रि य भाषानीति सुझाउ आयोग २०५०ले प्रतिवेदनमार्फत् सरकारसमक्ष अनेक सुझाव पेस गर्यो । नेपालको आगामी भाषा नीतिका बारेमा सो आयोगले प्रस्तुत गरेका विषयको अंश निम्न हो :

> भारत ,सिंगापुर र स्विजरलेण्डजस्ता बहुभाषिक राष्ट्रसरह नेपालमा पनि विभिन्न भाषिक समुदायका व्यक्तिहरुलाई सहुलियत दिन एकभन्दा बढी सरकारी कामकाजको परिकल्पना गर्नु पनि युक्तिसंगत हुनसक्छ । सरकारी कामकाजको भाषाको रुपमा नेपालीलाई कायमै राखी अन्य राष्ट्रिय भाषाको क्षमता, वक्ताहरुको प्रवृत्तिसँगै राष्ट्रिय हितलाई समेत ध्यानमा राखी यस सम्बन्धमा निर्णय लिनु उचित हुनसक्छ (पृ.१२) ।

उक्त प्रतिवेदनको विषयलाई यस लेखको छलफल र प्राप्ति उपशीर्षकमा समेटिएको छ ।

(गिरी,सन्.२०१०) ले नेपालको भाषानीति लेख प्रकाशित गरेका छन् । यसमा उनले भनेका छन्,

> नेपालको बहुभाषिक अवस्था यस मुलुकको एक विशिष्ट परिचायक हो । जसरी यहाँको रमणीय प्रकृतिप्रति विश्व लोभिँदै आएको छ त्यसरी नै यहाँका भाषाहरूको मोहले पनि यसप्रति विश्व आकर्षित भएको पाइन्छ । यी भाषाहरूको समुचित भाषानीतिद्वारा सही व्यवस्थापन हुनसक्यो भने मुलुक र संसारले यिनबाट पाउने अमूल्य निधि यिनमा सञ्चित छ । सही भाषानीतिबाट नै राष्ट्रिय एकता सुदृढ हुने छ र परस्परको सद्भावमा विभिन्न भाषाहरू एक अर्काबाट लाभान्वित हुँदै भाषिक क्षेत्रका हाँकहरूको सामना गर्न सक्षम हुने छन् । भाषाका सन्दर्भमा सङ्घ समन्वयकारी भूमिकामा रहनु पर्छ । भावी समृद्ध नेपालको निर्माणमा भाषिक क्षेत्रको महत्त्वलाई राज्य र जनस्तर दुबैबाट गम्भीरतापूर्वक आत्मसात् गर्न आवश्यक छ (पृ.२०१) ।

उक्त लेखले प्रस्तुत लेखको अध्ययनको पृष्ठभूमिअन्तर्गत लेखिएको भाषानीतिको अवधारणा तय गर्ने क्रममा सहयोग गरेको छ ।

पौडेल र भट्टराई (२०७७) ले **नेपालको भाषानीति र योजना आधार** पुस्तक प्रकाशन गरेका छन् । यस पुस्तकमा भाषानीति र भाषायोजनाका बारेमा विस्तृत चर्चा गरिएको छ । त्यसै गरी यस पुस्तकमा पपुवा न्यूगिनी,सोभियत संघ,भारत र नेपालको भाषायोजनाका विषयमा समेत आवश्यक मात्रामा व्याख्या विवेचना गरिएको छ । प्रस्तुत सोभियत संघको भाषानीतिमा राजनैतिक प्रभाव लेखमा **नेपालको भाषानीति र योजना आधार** पुस्तक र तदन्तर्गतको विषयवस्तुलाई आवश्यक मात्रामा ग्रहण गरिएको छ ।

निरौला (२०७९ माघ २०८० असार) को सङ्घीय नेपालको भाषिक नीति तथा लोपोन्मुख भाषाहरू शीर्षकको लेख प्रकाशित छ । यसमा उनले पोखरेल(२०६९) ले साभार गरेको कुर्तने (सन् १९०६) को भाषानीतिलाई पुनर्साभार गरेका छन् । सो निम्नानुसार छ :

राज्यमा बोलिने भाषाहरूमध्ये कुनै एउटा भाषालाई मात्र राष्ट्रभाषाको एकलौटी दर्जा दिन नहुने, सबैभन्दा धेरै जनताले बोल्ने भाषालाई केन्द्रीय सरकारको कामकाजको भाषा बनाउनुपर्ने राज्यका कुनै पनि मातृभाषालाई सरकारी कामकाजमा प्रयोग गर्न प्रतिबन्ध लगाउन नहुने, हरेक नागरिकले केन्द्रीय सरकारी कार्यालयहरूमा आफ्नै मातृभाषा प्रयोग गर्न पाउने अधिकार स्थापित हुनुपर्ने र सबै अल्पसङ्ख्यक भाषाका मातृभाषीहरूले आफ्नै मातृभाषामा शिक्षा लिन पाउनुपर्ने भन्ने कुरा भाषानीतिअन्तर्गत पर्छन् (पृ.१४ र १५) ।

सोभियत संघका कुर्तनेको उक्त भाषानीतिलाई प्रस्तुत लेखमा भाषानीतिको अवधारणा उल्लेख गर्न उपयोग गरिएको छ । भुसाल(सन्.२०२२) ले नेपालको भाषानीति र कर्यान्वयनको अवस्था शीर्षकको लेख प्रकाशित गरेकी छन् । उनले भाषानीति र नेपालको बहुभाषिक नीतिको विषयलाई निम्नानुसार उल्लेख गरेकी छन् ,

> बहुभाषिक देशका सबै भाषाहरूलाई व्यवस्थापन गर्ने कार्यमा भाषानीति मूल आधार हो । सरकारी तहबाट प्रयोगका स्तरमा भएको विकास र विस्तार गर्न, संरक्षण सम्वर्धन गर्न, खोज तथा अनुसन्धान गर्न बनाइएको भाषिक व्यवस्थालाई भाषानीति भनेर बुझिन्छ । कुन भाषालाई कुन स्थानमा राख्ने भन्ने व्यवस्थापनको कार्य भाषानीतिमा हुन्छ । बहुभाषिक मुलुकका कुन कुन भाषालाई राष्ट्रभाषा, कुनलाई सम्पर्क भाषा, कुनलाई शिक्षाको माध्यमको भाषा बनाउने भन्ने कुरा भाषानीतिले तय गरेको हुन्छ । नेपालमा रहेका सबै भाषालाई वि.सं. २०७२ को संविधानले राष्ट्रभाषाको स्थानमा राखेको छ । नेपाली भाषालाई सरकारी कामकाजको भाषा तथा माध्यम भाषाको स्थान दिइएको छ । महत्त्वपूर्ण क्षेत्र तथा राज्य भित्र अन्तरनिहित भाषा मध्ये सरकारले प्राथमिकताका आधारमा नीतिगत व्यवस्थापन गर्ने र संविधानसम्मत उल्लिखित भाषिक प्रावधान मिलाउने कार्यलाई भाषिक नीतिले सम्बोधन गर्छ । समाज र देशले अवलम्बन गर्ने नीतिसँग भाषाको प्रत्यक्ष सरोकार रहन्छ (पृ. २८)॥

यस अध्ययनमा भाषानीतिको सैद्धान्तिक अवधारणा प्रस्ट पार्ने क्रममा भुसालको यस लेखले सहयोग गरेको छ ।

हेरम्बराज बास्तोला ले नेपालमा भाषानीति,योजना र त्यसका चुनौती शीर्षकको लेख प्रकाशित गरेका छन् । यसमा उनले प्राध्यापक कुर्तनेको भाषानीति जसलाई लेनिनले पनि स्वीकार गरेका थिए त्यसलाई निम्न बुँदामा लेखेका छन् :

(क) सोभियत संघमा बहुसङ्ख्यक वा अल्पसङ्ख्यक सबै भाषाको समान अधिकार हुनुपर्छ ,

(ख) बहुसङ्ख्यक वा अल्पसङ्ख्यकद्वारा बोलिने भए पनि मातृभाषामा शिक्षा पाउनुपर्छ र आफ्नै मातृभाषा प्रयोग गरेर सरकारी सुविधा भोग्न पाउनुपर्छ,

(ग) भाषाका आधारमा राज्यका कसैमाथि पक्षपात हुनुहुँदैन (पृ.५२) ।

प्रस्तुत अध्ययनमा बास्तोलाको उक्त लेखलाई पनि आधार बनाइएको छ ।

यसप्रकार उक्त पूर्वकार्यले प्रस्तुत अध्ययनमा अध्ययनको पृष्ठभूमिअन्तर्गत उलेखित भाषानीतिको अवधारणा लेख्न, छलफल र प्राप्ति अन्तर्गत विश्लेषण गर्न र निष्कर्ष लेख्न आवश्यक सहयोग गरेका छन् तथापि सोभियत संघको भाषानीतिमा राजनैतिक प्रभावका विषयमा पर्याप्त सूचना दिने अध्ययनको अभाव महसुस गरी अभावपूर्तिका लागि यो लेख लेखिएको हो ।

परिणाम र छलफल

सोभियत संघमा जारसाहकालीन भाषिक अवस्था

सन्. १९१७ को बोल्सेभिक क्रान्तिभन्दा पहिले रुसी साम्राज्यको भाषानीति अत्यन्त केन्द्रीकृत र रुसी प्रभुत्वमा आधारित थियो । साम्राज्यभित्रका विभिन्न जातीय समूह र भाषालाई राज्यशक्ति र रुसी राष्ट्रवादको विस्तारका निम्ति नियन्त्रित गरिन्थ्यो । विक(सन्. १९९६) का अनुसार यस अवधिमा भाषा केवल सञ्चारको माध्यममात्र नभई शासकीय

नियन्त्रण र सांस्कृतिक आत्मसात्को प्रमुख औजार बनेको थिया । विद्यालयहरुमा मातृभाषाको प्रयोगलाई अवैध बनाउने रणनीति लिइएको थियो ।

यसप्रकार लेनिनपूर्वको जारसाहकालीन बहुभाषिक सोभियत संघमा भाषिक न्याय र समता थिएन । राज्यसत्ता सम्हालेका जारसाहले सत्ता टिकाउन भाषालाई रुसीकरण गरेका थिए । यस समयको अन्त्यतिर रुसका भाषाविद् कुर्तने उनका चेलाहरु र याकोब्सन लगायतका भाषाविद्हरुले बहुभाषिकता र भाषिक समानताका लागि काम गर्न सुरु गरिसकेका थिए(KNK advi,2023) ।

सोभियत संघमा लेनिनका समयको भाषानीति

सोभियत सङ्घमा भाषानीतिसम्बन्धी कामको सुरुआत सन् १९०५ बाट भएको हो । बोडवाँ द कुर्तने (१८४९–१९२९) कजान सम्प्रदायका प्रमुख व्यक्ति हुन् । उनका चेलाहरू क्रुजेप्स्की, शेर्वा, याकुबिन्स्की, पोलिवानोफ आदि थिए । कुर्तनेले भाषाको समकालीन अध्ययनमा जोड दिएका थिए । उनकै समयमा अर्का विद्वान् ससुर पनि भाषाका क्षेत्रमा काम गरिरहेका थिए । बोडवाँ द कुर्तनेका अनुसार रुस जस्तो बहुभाषिक मुलुकमा एउटै भाषाले मात्र मान्यता पाउनु हुँदैन, हरेक नागरिकले व्यक्तिगत जीवन तथा सरकारी कामकाज, संसद, न्यायिक निकायहरूमा आफ्नो भाषामा बोल्न पाउनुपर्छ, हरेक रुसी कार्यालयहरूमा परी आएका बेलामा दोभासेको व्यवस्था हुनुपर्छ, रुसी भाषालाई मात्र विशेष मान्यता दिनुहुँदैन, सबै अल्पभाषी मातृभाषीहरूलाई आफ्नै भाषामा शिक्षा लिन पाउने पूर्ण स्वतन्त्रता हुनुपर्दछ , रुसी भाषा महत्त्वपूर्ण भाषा भए पनि त्यसलाई राष्ट्रभाषाको दर्जा दिनु हुँदैन, रुसी भाषा सबैभन्दा धेरै मानिसले बुझ्ने भाषा भएकाले यसलाई केन्द्रीय सरकारको कामकाजको भाषा बनाउनुपर्छ, सोभियत सङ्घका सबै भाषाको विकास रुसी सरह हुने गरी गरिनुपछ(पौडेल र (KNK advi,2023)। कुर्तनेको यस किसिमको बहुभाषिक मान्यतालाई तत्कालीन सोभियत संघका सममाजवादी राजनेता भ्लादिमिर इलिच लेनिन /लेनिनले समर्थन गरे । लेनिनले सोभियत सङ्घका लागि कुर्तनेको विचारअनुसारकै भाषानीति उपयुक्त ठाने र रुसले त्यसैअनुसार भाषानीति तय गरियो । अतः कुर्तने लगायतका भाषाविद्ले पनि लेनिनलाई भाषानीति निर्माण र भाषिक विकासको काममा सघाएका हुन् ।

बोल्सेविक (कम्युनिष्ट) र कुर्तनेको भाषानीति एउटै थियो । थोमस(२०१०)का अनुसार कुर्तनेले रुसी साम्राज्यको रुसीकरण नीति र भाषिक वर्चस्वको विरोध गरे र जातीय भाषाहरुको संरक्षणको वकालत गरे । कुर्तनेकै सिद्धान्तका आधारमा लेनिनले सन् १९१४ मा रुसीहरूलाई सम्बोधन गरेका थिए । उनले सम्बोधनमा देशमा रुसी भाषा लादिएको आरोप लगाएका थिए । उनले सरकारी कामकाजका चिठीहरूमा रुसी भाषा मात्र प्रयोग गरिनु हुँदैन भन्ने धारणा राखेका थिए । लेनिनको विचारमा भाषिक स्वतन्त्रता मार्क्सवादी वर्गसंघर्ष र जनताको आत्मनिर्णयको अधिकारसँग प्रत्यक्ष सम्बन्धित थियो । उनले जारकालीन रसियन भाषाको रुसीकरण नीतिको विरोध गर्दै प्रत्येक जातीय समूहले आफ्नो भाषामा बोल्ने,लेख्ने र पढ्ने अधिकार पाउनुपर्छ भन्ने धारणा राखे । उनले भनेका छन्, "हामी भाषिक अधिकारसहित सबै जातजाति समान अधिकार सम्पन्न भएको चाहन्छौं" (लेनिन,१९१३,पृ.४०) । यसरी कुर्तनेले भाषिक अधिकारको वैज्ञानिक र नैतिक आधार तयार पारे भने लेनिनले भाषिक समानता र संघीय संरचनामार्फत् आत्मनिर्णयको अधिकारलाई संस्थागत गरे ।

यसै सन्दर्भमा लेनिनले भनेका छन्, "म पनि महान् रुसी भाषाको स्वाद सबैले लिन पाऊन् भन्ने चाहान्छु तर म कोर्रा हानेर रुसी भाषा चखाउन वा लाद्न चाहान्नँ " (पौडेल र भट्टराई,२०७७,पृ.१०४) । यसप्रकार लेनिनले आफ्नो बहुभाषिक राष्ट्रमा भाषिक उदारता अपनाएको पाइन्छ । सोभियत संघमा बहुसंख्यक वा अल्पसंख्यक सबै भाषाभाषीको अधिकार समान हुनुपर्छ ,जनताले आफ्नै मातृभाषामा शिक्षा पाउनुपर्छ, भाषाका आधारमा राज्यमा कसैमाथि पनि पक्षपात हुनुहुँदैन भन्ने बहुभाषानीति मान्यता लेनिनको रहेको पाइन्छ । नेता लेनिनले सोभियत संघमा बहुभाषिक नीति लागू गर्दा निम्न पाँच चरणगत कार्य अपनाएको पाइन्छ :

१. पहिलो चरण : सोभियत संघभरि भाषावैज्ञानिकको सहायताबाट वर्ण निर्धारण गरी लेख्य परम्पराको विकास गरियो । लिपि भएका भाषाको वर्णमालालाई वैज्ञानिक व्यवस्थापन गरियो ।

२. दोस्रो चरण : हिब्रू र अरबीजस्ता पहिल्यै लिपि भएका तर अप्ठ्यारा भाषालाई अध्यापन गराउन गारो भएकाले त्यसको सट्टामा रोमन लिपिको प्रयोग गर्न निर्देशन गरियो ।

३.तेस्रो चरण : लेख्य परम्परा नभएका भाषाको लिपिको विकास गरी मानक भाषाको खोजी गरियो ।

४. चौथो चरण : सन्. १९३० को दशक (स्टालिनको पालामा) लेख्य परम्परा नभएका सबै भाषालाई रुसी लिपिमा विकास गरियो ।

५. पाचौं चरण : सन् १९४० र ५० को दशकमा सबै भाषाको एउटै लिपि बनाएर रुसी भाषाका प्राविधिक शब्दावलीलाई अन्य स्थानीय सबै भाषामा भित्र्याइयो । सबै भाषाको वर्ण र लिपिको विकास र सुधार गरी भाषासम्बन्धी अन्य समस्याको समाधान गरियो (पौडेल र भट्टराई,२०७७,पृ.१०४) ।

यसप्रकार सोभियत संघको भाषानीतिमा राजनेताको विचार र राजनीतिको प्रत्यक्ष प्रभाव परेको देख्न सकिन्छ । भाषानीति निर्माण सम्बन्धमा भाषाविद् एवम् भाषानीति निर्माता कुर्तने र तत्कालीन सोभियत संघको बोल्सेभिक पार्टीको समान विचार थियो । दुबै बहुभाषिकतालाई आत्मसात् गर्थे । समाजवादी नेता लेनिन पनि देशको भाषानीतिका सम्बन्धमा कुर्तनेकै सल्लाहसुझाव स्वीकार गर्थे । त्यसैले लेनिनले पनि आफ्नो शासनकालमा बहुभाषानीतिलाई लागू गरे । अतः तत्कालीन सोभियत संघको भाषानीतिमा राजनैतिक प्रभाव पाउन सकिन्छ ।

सोभियत संघमा स्टालिनकालीन भाषानीति

रुसी गणराज्यमा लेनिनपछिको समयलाई स्टालिनकाल मानिन्छ । स्टालिनले केन्द्रीकृत शासनव्यवस्था अन्तर्गत एक भाषा एक विचारधाराको सिद्धान्तमा आधारित रहेर भाषिक नीतिहरु कार्यान्वयनमा ल्याए । स्टालिनकालको भाषानीति रुसी भाषालाई प्रमुख प्रशासनिक, शैक्षिक र सैनिक भाषाका रुपमा स्थापित गर्न केन्द्रित रह्यो । पाभ्लेन्को (२००८)का अनुसार प्रारम्भिक कोरेनिजात्सिया नीतिको अन्त्य गर्दै स्थानीय भाषाको प्रयोगमा कटौती गरियो र रुसीफिकेसन नीति लागू गरियो । स्टालिनले भाषालाई राष्ट्रिय एकताका रुपमा हेरे । यस अवधिमा धेरै गैर रुसी भाषाहरुलाई ल्याटिन र अरबी लिपिबाट रुसी सिरलिक लिपिमा रुपान्तरण गरियो । उच्च शिक्षाप्रणली पनि रुसी भाषामै सीमित गराइयो । १९३० पछि रुसी भाषालाई शिक्षा, प्रशासन र मिडियाको मुख्य माध्यम बनाइयो । स्टालिनको शासनकालमा गैर रसी भाषाका विद्वान्,लेखक र शिक्षकलाई दमन गरिएको थियो । युक्रेनियन र बेलारुसियन भाषाको साहित्यिक स्वतन्त्रतामा पनि प्रतिबन्ध लगाइएको थियो(Political Science by Brajesk (2011)) । यसप्रकार सोभियत संघको स्टालिनद्वारा तय गराइएको भाषानीतिमा तत्कालीन राजनीतिको प्रभाव परेको पाइन्छ । यसले भाषिक विविधता घटायो,जातीय अल्पसंख्यकहरुको पहिचान संकटमा पार्यो । स्टालिनको भाषानीतिले भाषालाई विचारधारात्मक नियन्त्रणको औजार बनाएको स्पष्ट देखिन्छ । यसप्रकार स्टालिनकालीन भाषानीति राष्टनिर्माणको नाममा भाषिक एकरुपताको खोजी भए तापनि यसले बहुभाषिक समाजमा सांस्कृतिक दबाब र अन्ततः अस्थिरता निम्त्याएको देखिन्छ ।

सोभियत संघमा स्टालिनकालपछिको भाषानीति

स्टालिनको समयपछि रुसमा ख्रुस्चेभ,ब्रेजनेभ एवम् गोर्बाचोभ राजनेताका रुपमा आए । यिनीहरुले स्टालिनको एकात्मकताका विरुद्ध अभियान चलाए । यस समयमा गैर रुसी भाषाहरुको पुनरुत्थानलाई स्वीकार गरियो । प्राथमिक तहको शिक्षा स्थानीय भाषामा दिने भाषिक नीति अबलम्बन गरियो तथापि माध्यमिक र उच्च शिक्षामा भने केन्द्रीय रसी भाषाकै उपयोग गरिन्थ्यो । Political Science by Brajesk (2011) ले प्रस्तुत गरे अनुसार राष्ट्रपति गोर्बाचोभले त हरेक गणराज्यहरुलाई नै आआफ्नो गणराज्यहरुको भाषिक नीति बनाउन अनुमति दिए । यसले गर्दा युक्रेनियन,जर्जियन र बाल्टिकलगायतका स्थानीय भाषाहरुको पुनरुत्थान सुरु भयो । त्यसै समयमा वा सन् १९८९ मा एस्टोनियाले एस्टोनियन भाषालाई राज्यभाषा नै घोषणा गर्यो । यसपछि सन्.१९९१ मा त सोभयत संघ विघटन नै भयो र वर्तमानमा तत्कालीन सोभियत संघको नाम रुस / रसिया भएको छ (KNK advi,2023) ।

रुसमा पुटिनकालको भाषानीति

वर्तमानका रुसी राष्ट्रपति भ्लादिमिर पुटिनका समयमा रुसको भाषानीतिले सोभियत संघकालीन अभ्यासको पुनरावृत्तिलाई झल्काउने संकेत देखिन्छ । पाभ्लेन्को (सन्. २००८)का अनुसार सोभियत संघमा बहुभाषिकताको नाममा केन्द्रीकृत रुसी भाषाको वर्चस्वलाई प्राथमिकता दिइएको थियो । आजको रुसमा पनि राज्यद्वारा रुसी भाषाको प्रबर्द्धन तीव्र छ,विशेषतः संघीय गणराज्यहरुमा स्थानीय भाषाहरुको प्रयोग घटाउँदै लाने नीति अपनाइएको पाइन्छ । पुटिनको भाषिक नीति राष्ट्रिय एकताको नाममा रुसी सभ्यताको अवधारणालाई बलियो पार्ने माध्यम बन्न पुगेको छ । क्युचेभ्स्की

(सन्. २०१९) का अनुसार शिक्षामा रुसी भाषालाई अनिवार्य बनाउने तथा अल्पसंख्यक भाषाहरुको वैधानिक स्थान घटाउने कार्यले भाषिक विविधतालाई खतरामा पारेको छ (KNK advi,2023)। त्यसैले पुटिनकालीन रुसी भाषानीति सांस्कृतिक साम्राज्यवादको पुनरुत्थानको रुपमा मूल्याङ्कन गर्न सकिन्छ।

पुटिनकालीन भाषानीति रुसी पहिचान सुदृढीकरणको प्रयासस्वरुप विकसित भएको एक रणनीतिक अभ्यास हो। यस अवधिमा रुसी भाषालाई राष्ट्रिय एकताको केन्द्रको रुपमा स्थापित गर्दै अल्पसंख्यक भाषाहरुको प्रयोग सीमित गरिएको पाइन्छ। शैक्षिक र प्रशासनिक क्षेत्रमा रुसी भाषाको प्रभुत्वलाई प्राथमिकता दिइएको उल्लेख पाइन्छ। यसले गर्दा अन्य क्षेत्रीय भाषाहरुको संरक्षण र संबर्द्धनमा चुनौती थपिएको पाइन्छ।

निष्कर्ष

प्रयोग र व्यवहारलाई रिन्तरता दिन र निरन्तरतामा अझ स्तरीयता कायम गर्न सम्बन्धित संस्था एवम् राष्ट्रले बनाउने भाषासम्बन्धी नियम र अनुशासनलाई भाषानीति भनिन्छ। देश,भेष,संस्कृति अनुसार भाषानीति पृथक् हुन्छ। यस किसिमको भाषानीति बनाउने मध्ये सोभियत संघ संसारकै पहिलो मुलुक मानिन्छ। सोभियत संघ बहुभाषिक मुलुक हो। सोभियत संघको भाषानीति कुनै तटस्थ सामाजिक नीतिको रुपमा विकसित भएको थिएन ,बरु यो राजनीतिक सत्ता,विचारधारा र राष्ट्रिय एकताको संयोजनको रुपमा अगाडि सारिएको थियो। बहुजातीय र बहुभाषिक संरचना भएको सोभियत संघमा भाषानीति प्रारम्भदेखि नै रणनीतिक उपकरणका रुपमा प्रयोग भयो। यसले सत्ता सुदृढीकरण,विचारधारा विस्तार तथा सांस्कृतिक नियन्त्रणको माध्यमको रुपमा काम गर्यो। सन्. १९२२ मा सोभियत संघको स्थापना भएपश्चात् प्रारम्भिक वर्षहरुमा कोरेनिजात्सिया (korenizatsiya) नामक नीतिको विकास गरियो। यस नीतिले स्थानीय भाषाहरुलाई शिक्षा,प्रशासन,सञ्चार र साहित्यमा प्रयोग गर्न प्रोत्साहन गर्यो। यसबाट के बुझ्न सकिन्छ भने संघीय राज्यले विविधता स्वीकार गर्छ र भाषिक पहिचानलाई सम्मान गर्छ। यति भए तापनि यस नीतिको गहिराइमा भने राज्यसत्ता स्थानीय जनतालाई साम्यवादी विचारमा बाँध्ने र उनीहरुलाई सोभियत संरचनामा समाहित गराउने उद्देश्यका साथ अगि बढेको थियो। यस अवधिमा भाषा जनतालाई राज्यको निकट ल्याउने राजनीतिक संयन्त्र बनेको थियो। तर यो नीति दीर्घकालीन रहेन। स्टालिनको सत्तारोहणपछि सन्. १९३० को दशकदेखि रुसिफिकेसन नीति अगाडि सारियो। अब रुसी भाषालाई केवल सञ्चारको माध्यम होइन,संघीय एकताको मेरुदण्डका रुपमा चित्रण गरियो। यसले भाषालाई सत्ता सुदृढीकरणको प्रमुख हतियार बनायो। रुसी भाषा प्रशासन,विज्ञान,सेना, प्राविधिक शिक्षा र सञ्चार माध्यममा अनिवार्यजस्तै बनाइयो। यस क्रममा कैयौं स्थानीय भाषाहरु दबिए। केही भाषिक समूहका भाषाहरुमा विलुप्तिको खतरा उन्पन्न भयो। यो केवल भाषिक नभई सांस्कृतिक वर्चस्वको अभ्यास थियो।

राज्यले भाषाशास्त्रलाई समेत विचारधारात्मक नियन्त्रणमा राख्यो। भाषाविद्हरु जस्तैः भिलेम माथेसियस,याकोब्सन,मुकारोभ्स्की, एवगेनी पोलिवानेभ एवम् याकोभ्लेवले प्रारम्भमा विविध भाषाहरुको विकासमा योगदान गरे तापनि राजनीतिक सन्देहका आधारमा उनीहरुलाई दण्डित वा हत्या गरियो। यसै गरी भाषाविज्ञानलाई पनि राज्यसत्ता पूर्णतः राजनीतिक चस्माबाट नियाल्थ्यो। सोभियतसंघको भाषानीति अन्ततः भाषिक एकरुपताको प्रयासमा केन्द्रित भयो। तर यसको दीर्घकालीन प्रभाव उल्टो देखियो। स्थानीय भाषाहरुमाथिको दमनले असन्तुष्टि बढायो र सन्. १९९१ म सोभियत संघ विघटनपछि विभिन्न गणराज्यहरुले आआफ्ना भाषा पुनः स्थापित गर्न अग्रसर भए।

अतः सोभियत संघको भाषानीतिले भाषालाई केवल सञ्चारको साधन मात्र नमानी सत्ताको संरचना,नियन्त्रणको माध्यम, र विचारधाराको वाहकको रुपमा प्रयोग गरेको स्पष्ट गर्छ। भाषानीति कुनै तटस्थ प्राविधिक विषय हैन यो राज्यको राजनीतिक रणनीतिको अङ्ग हो भन्ने यथार्थ सोभियत संघको भाषानीतिको उदाहरणले पुष्टि गर्छ। यसका साथै हरेक राष्ट्रको भाषानीतिलाई राज्यसत्ताले प्रभावित गर्छ भन्ने कुरो पनि सोभियत संघको भाषानीतिले प्रमाणित गर्छ। यति हुँदाहुँदै पनि संसारको पहिलो भाषानीति सोभियत संघको भाषानीति नै हो। हरेक बहुभाषिक राष्ट्रले आआफ्नो मुलुकको भाषानीति तय गर्दा र तयार पार्दा सोभियत संघको भाषानीतिलाई अध्ययन र चिन्तन गर्नु आवश्यक हुन्छ। नेपालजस्तो बहुभाषिक मुलुकमा पनि भाषानीति बनाउँदा सोभियत संघ,पपुवा न्युगिनी एवम् भारत लगायतका बहुभाषिक देशको भाषानीति आधार हुन्छ र बनाउनुपर्छ।

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