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# Gender Planning Network Nepal

## First Phase Report

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Dr. Bhanu B. Niraula  
Dr. Samira Luitel

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**Agricultural Projects Services Centre**

Post Box No. 1440

Ramshah Path, Kathmandu, Nepal

Tel. No. 262585, 262440, Fax: 0977-1-262500, Email: aprosc@plaza.mos.com.np

## FOREWORD

Women Development Decade (1975-85) heightened the concerns of women's integration into development. Over the years, number of international conferences and gatherings (Nairobi Conference, Convention on Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women, International Conference on Population and Development, Social Summit, Earth Summit, Beijing Conference on Women, Food Summit etc.) have further espoused women's empowerment as a pre-requisite condition for sustainable development based on equity and social justice.

However, lack of gender-disaggregated data hinders mainstreaming gender concerns into development activities. Realising this lacuna, ISST initiated a regional study on gender planning network in South Asia and this study represents Nepal's participation in the project. We thank ISST for taking this lead and including Nepal in general and APROSC in particular as the focal point of the study. We also thank IDRC Canada for sponsoring the study and for their continued support to APROSC.

Dr. Shiva Sharma, Team Leader, MIMAP, Nepal and Dr. Shyam K. Poudel, then Executive Director of APROSC were instrumental in shaping the study at APROSC and I would like to thank them for their leadership.

Despite hard times at APROSC, Dr. Bhanu B. Niraula, Senior Social Demographer of this Centre and Principal Investigator of the study patiently co-ordinated the study and brought to successful fruition. I would like to extend my sincere thanks for his untiring efforts.

Dr. Munni Sharma was involved in the initial stage of the project and I appreciate her interest in the study. Mr. Raja Singh, Computer Assistant, consultants of the study and members of the Advisory Committee deserve thanks for their contribution to this study.

Dr. Laxmi Pradhan  
Acting Executive Director

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## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1. The total population of Nepal crossed 22 million marks in 1999. Women make up about half of the population. The demographic feature shows a greater number of female population in the age group of 15-59 years in the hills and mountains. Whereas there is a greater number of male population at all ages in the terai and urban areas. The urban sex ratio is 108.4 against 98.5 in rural areas . Male migration to urban areas and terai has put more pressure on women needing their labour both in the farm and household.
2. Women are far behind men in every sphere e.g. education, health, employment and access to power. Socio-cultural discrimination against women and discriminatory state policies have put women in low status. Nepal has the second-last GEM value in South Asia
3. Nepal has more than 60 caste-ethnic groups and women's status varies among these groups. Women in the ethnic minority or Tibeto-Burman groups enjoy relatively more power and privilege than the women in Hindu dominated caste system. A woman's life is almost impossible without association of man where he has all the supremacy over her be it a father/brother/husband/son.
4. A woman's life goes through major changes after marriage, where she enters into a life of control from liberty. An unmarried girl enjoys more freedom and privileges at her parents home than in her husband's home where her life is limited to the household. Her prime duty will be to please in-laws to adjust in her new home as well as to secure her future life.
5. Although the legal age at marriage for girls is 18 years, 60 percent of the girls are married below the age of 18 and a girl may bear her first child at the age of 15-16. A woman in an average gives birth to 4-6 children in her life time.
6. The health status of Nepalese women is one of the lowest in the South Asian region where women live shorter than men. Nepal is one of the two countries in the world having low life

- expectancy for women. Female life expectancy according to 1991 census is 52 years as against 55 years for men.
7. Lack of health care system, negligence during pregnancy and at the delivery time causes high maternal mortality. The MMR in Nepal is the highest in South Asia.
  8. Although infant mortality rate is slightly higher among male child, under 5 mortality is higher among the female children. Female mortality rate is higher at all age groups. Discrimination in bringing up children differential socialization, low level of nutritional intake poor sanitation and health facilities are some of the leading factors contributing to higher mortality among female children.
  9. Utilization of modern health care facilities is low in Nepal. Limited health care systems compel people to depend on traditional methods of treatment. Women are the major users of traditional medicine and in case of deliveries women in both urban and rural areas depend on TBAs and family relatives for assistance.
  10. Nearly one third of women have heard of HIV/AIDS. Women face high risk factor due to prevailing STDs and HIV/AIDS. Diseases like syphilis and gonorrhoea cause still births, infected infants and neonatal deaths. Open order and girls trafficking, season migration has further aggravated the situation.
  11. Female literacy is almost half of male literacy. Female literacy according to 1991 census is only 25 percent against 55 percent male literacy rate. Adult literacy is 35 percent of which female adult literacy is only 13 percent.
  12. Girl's enrolment in primary school is lower than that of boys, which is 56 percent against 79 percent. Disparity in school enrollment persists at all levels.
  13. Although girls' enrolment is less than boys, there is little difference in promotion, repetition and dropout rate of girls in comparison to boys.

14. To increase girls' enrolment at least at primary level, the government has introduced the concept of having at least one female teacher in each primary school. Yet the total percentage of female teacher is only 11.2 percent.
15. The bias attitude of higher education personnel against female teacher is one of the reasons to have less female teachers.
16. Women contribute more than 50 percent of the household income and yet are not considered economically active. Women's productive work force according 1991 census is 48 percent against 70 percent that of men.
17. Most of the men are engaged in paid jobs while women are mostly unpaid family workers. But due to growing carpet industries, a considerable number of female are working in urban area as paid workers.
18. A higher number of women 83.7 percent are self employed which shows that female employment has decreased. Since 1981 female unemployment and underemployment has increased.
19. Rural women's work load has increased since 1981. Their time is consumed in conventional activities e.g. agricultural work, livestock care, and domestic activities. Women's participation in market economy is nominal.
20. Women's participation in labour force is declining even in urban areas despite their higher literacy rate in these areas, showing a reverse relationship between education, urbanization and female employment.
21. Child labour is pervasive in Nepalese society. More female children work than male children (46% vs 36%), giving a national total of 42 percent, that translates into 2.6 million children at work. Of the total working children one million are working alone while the rest are working and studying.

22. Most of the women work as unskilled labourer in industries and get less wage. They are also the victim of hiring and firing. Due to illiteracy they get less wage and are employed as unskilled labourers.
23. Nepal has ratified various international conventions including CEDAW but there are still laws that discriminate women. Right to inheritance to property marriage and divorce laws are against women.
24. Majority of the women are not aware of the laws that favor them and are also reluctant to exercise them. Evidence shows that even if they happen to exercise those laws, many times decisions are not made in their favour which makes them reluctant to exercise their right.
25. Despite the provision of minimum wage and equal pay for equal job women are less paid than men for the same work. Young girls are prone to be victims of both physical and mental exploitation.
26. Women's participation in politics is very low. The government has made a policy for each party to field at least 5% women as candidates for election. In 1991 general election only 3.4 percent women got elected. This percent increased in 1996 election and rose to 12 percent.
27. Women's participation in high level administration and judiciary is also low. Not a single woman is serving at the diplomatic position nor there is a single woman at the special class level of administrative services.
28. Women's decision making power in the farm and household affairs can not be neglected. They have been the prime contributor in the family and farm however, men make most decisions regarding such affairs.
29. However, due to gender stereotypes and illiteracy & low level of education they are marginalised from the household economy.



30. Increasing commercialization of agriculture and introduction of new technology and the changing pattern of household expenditure are the contributing factors for marginalization of women.
31. Women's participation in different NGOs is creating solidarity among women as a source of empowerment. They have been contributing in fighting back the social evils forming women's groups. Many women's NGOs are becoming active to encourage/help women to participate in politics and fights back for their rights.
32. There are few sources of data on various forms of violence against women and children in the country.
33. Violence against women in the society is pervasive it exists in all forms in all caste-ethnic groups.
34. Girls trafficking for prostitution, domestic and social violence in the society has historical roots in the ideology of patriarchy and Hindu way of life.

## CHAPTER - I INTRODUCTION

Nepal's population crossed 22 million marks in 1999. The total population of Nepal according to 1991 census was 18.5 million. During the inter-censal period 1981-91, population growth rate was 2.1 percent and is currently estimated to be growing at the rate of about 2.4 percent per annum (Ministry of Population and Environment, 1998).

Nepal's population is characterized by higher proportion of child population aged 0-14, which accounts for more than 42 percent of the total population in the country. A little more than half of the population was estimated to be female population. The age-sex composition of Nepal's population is such that it has in-built momentum for growth even if fertility declines appreciably in future. This is because the number of women who will be entering reproductive career is quite high and despite reduction in fertility rate, the size of the population will continue to grow in near future.

Table 1.1 shows that sex ratio defined as males per 100 females was 96.8 in 1952/54 which improved gradually to 105 in 1981 and again declined to 99.5 in 1991. The higher number of females at certain point of time reflects exodus of Nepalese to and from India and other countries

Table 1. 1: Sex Ratio of Total Population in Censuses, 1952/54-1991, Nepal

Year	Total Population	Sex Ratio	Masculinity Proportion (M/T x100*)
1952/54	8256,625	96.80	49.19
1961	9412.996	97.28	49.25
1971	11555,983	101.37	50.34
1981	15022,839	105.02	51.22
1991	18491,097	99.47	49.87

Table 1.2 shows sex ratio for five year age group of population in the latest round of census (1991). Sex ratio increases with an increase in age groups (0-4/10-15) then gradually declines in ages 15-34. The increase in sex ratio in child population may reflect higher infant and child mortality of female child. The lower sex ratio at ages 15-34 may be due to out migration of male population to and from other countries and due to age mis-statement and mis-location.

Topographically country's three ecological zones, the mountains, the hills and terai account for 7.8 percent, 45.5 percent and 46.7 percent of national population respectively. In recent years, terai is under pressure to provide a "safety valve" for out migrants from the hills and mountains. As a result, the share terai population to total population has increased from 37.8 percent in 1971 to 46.7 percent in 1991, an increment of almost 10 percent during the period. Sex ratio for the mountains and hills are similar across age groups but the terai shows some what different pattern.

Table 1.2: Sex Ratios by Five Years Age Groups for Ecological Zones, Nepal, 1991 Census.

Age	Mountain	Hill	Terai
00-04	101	103	103
05-09	102	102	106
10-14	107	104	114
15-19	94	91	103
20-24	88	81	89
25-29	89	83	95
30-34	95	88	95
35-39	100	90	111
40-44	90	89	98
45-49	98	95	115
50-54	101	98	115
55-59	98	111	124
60+	108	100	104
	98	95	104

Source: CBS, 1995, Vol. IV

To cater to the regional development needs of the country and promote balanced regional growth, Nepal is divided into five development regions. The distribution of population across development regions and corresponding sex ratio is shown in Table 1.3. Spatial distribution of population shows that more than one-third of the people live in central development region (33.4) followed by the eastern (24.1) and western (20.4) development region. The mid-western & far-western development regions share 13 percent & 9 percent respectively. This table show that in general the mountains and hills have higher number of females than in the terai. In case of the

terai, there are more males per 100 females. Across development regions, sex ratio is at unity for the eastern development region, more than in the central development region and shortage of females in the remaining three development regions, in the west of the country. Variations in sex ratio across age groups and development regions are noted. For example, in western development region sex ratio of 15-29 and 30-39 age group is 71 and 74 which indicates higher shortage of males in the groups studied.

Table 1.3: Regional distribution of Population and Sex Ratio

	Total Population	Sex Ratio
Mountain	7.8	98.4
Hill	45.5	95.3
Terai	46.7	103.9
Eastern Development Region	24.05	100.5
Central Development Region	33.44	104.0
Western Development Region	20.39	93.5
Mid-Western Development Region	13.04	99.2
Far-Western Development Region	9.04	96.0
Total	18,491,097	99.47

Source: CBS, 1995

The census data show that during 1981-1991, 3.5 percent of the population in mountain and 5.9 percent of the population in the hills moved permanently to the terai. The migrant population in total population in 1971, 1981 and 1991 was 2.9 percent, 1.6 percent, and 2.4 percent respectively (HRD/N, 1998). Marriage migration of females is highest in the country.

Agriculture is the main stay of Nepalese economy. Nepal has the lowest GNP per capita of US \$ 190 in South Asia. More than 70 percent of the population are poor (World Bank, 1995). According to Lipton's estimate (1990), 66 percent of the population are living below poverty line. However, official estimates of population living below the poverty line is 40 percent (National Planning Commission, 1998). See table 1.4 below.

Table 1.4: Population Below Poverty Line, 1990

(in millions)

	Terai			Hills			All Nepal		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Total population, 1990	8	0.5	8.5	9.7	1.0	10.7	17.7	1.5	19.2
Population below poverty line	2.3	0.1	2.4	5.3	0.1	5.4	7.6	0.2	7.8
Households below poverty line	0.32	0.01	0.33	0.87	0.02	0.89	1.19	0.03	1.22
Children below poverty line	1.13	0.05	1.18	2.52	0.05	2.52	3.65	0.1	3.75
Population below poverty line	29%	17%	28%	55%	13%	52%	42%	15%	40%
US\$ 150 per capita per annum	69%	51%	68%	78%	32%	15%	74%	42%	71%
Lipton estimate**	70%	50%	65%	65%	52%	54%	68%	51%	66%

Source: Nepal: Relieving Poverty in a Resource Scarce Economy, World Bank, 1990. Cited from UNICEF, 1996

A typical poor rural family in Nepal owns under 0.5 hectares land and produces food for six months. They have to depend on off farm labour eg. portering and laboring for their sustenance. Where off farm labour opportunities are not available the families have to sustain by borrowing money from the private money lenders with high interest rates. This situation puts many poor rural families in indebtedness, which have direct implication on the living standard of women and children. According to a World Bank estimate indebtedness in Nepal accounts for an average of 6 percent of the average annual income increasing to about 20 percent among the poor.

The rural women have to work longer hours to meet their family requirements. They work an average of 10.9 hours against men 7.8 hours per day. Women's work hours has increased from 1981 (CEDA) which was 10.8 hours a day. With the increase work burden, there is a change in the work composition. Women's participation in agriculture and employment outside home has increased much in the recent years than before in the past.

## 1.2 Incidence of Female-Headed Households

The incidence of female-headed household as estimated from the 1991 census is 13 percent. This incidence of female headship increase with age of women and is generally higher in the hills and mountains than in the terai. Data collected by the credit survey and analysed by Sharma (1996) shows that the incidence of poverty between female-headed households and male-headed household does not vary much at the macro level. Incidence of poverty is slightly lower among female-headed households (Table 1.5). Note that the incidence of female headship of the household is only 6.7 percent in credit survey against 13 percent reported by the census (Table 1.6).

Table 1.5: Female -Headed Households in Nepal.

	CBS	Credit Survey
Mountain	13.47	5.83
Hills	16.72	8.40
Terai	9.43	5.04
Total	13.18	6.76

Source: Sharma, (1996) on Credit Survey, 1991 and CBS, 1993

Table 1.6: Incidence of Poverty between Female-Headed Household and Male Headed Household

	Poverty Incidence	
	Male Headed Households	Female Headed Household
Mountain	63.07	56.62
Hills	62.65	52.36
Terai	32.01	31.69
Total	50.73	47.18

Source: Sharma, (1996) on Credit Survey, 1991

### 1.3 Women's Contribution and status

Although women are the main contributor in the domestic activities and are solely responsible for family enhancement their access to knowledge, skill, resources and power is very limited. The female literacy rate is only 25 percent against male literacy which is 67 percent (NMIS, 1995).

Women's high work burden and illiteracy has direct impact on their health. Scarcity of modern health care system and low utilization of health services result in high maternal and infant mortality rate. In addition, low consumption of nutritional food, repeated and closely spaced pregnancies and inadequate birthing services lead to complications during delivery, post natal problems and death of the infant as well as mother. Every year an estimated 927,000 pregnancies take place in Nepal of which 40 percent are considered at high risk for mother and child (CBS, 1994). The maternal mortality rate of 539/100,000 is highest in South Asia (MOH, 1993). UNICEF country report (1996) present this figure as high 1,500/100,000. Combined effect of low health status, less nutritional food in take, lack of health services and high work burden are the factors for less survival among women. Nepal is among the only two countries in the world where average life expectancy for women is shorter than men.

## 1.4 Gender Disparity

Women lag far behind men in all spheres-education, employment personal property, health status, legal, political and social lives, showing a high sex disparity. The traditional/cultural values still governs the way of life of Nepalese people in most of the communities that stands as a barrier in the wholistic development of women. The national policies regarding legal rights such as right to property, divorce and marriage which directly effect women are not favourable to women. This has made their life more vulnerable and dependent on men. A woman's life is always associated with male where a father/husband/son has to be identified to know a woman. Children are identified by their father whether he is alive or dead, handicapped or eloped. A woman even if she is widow or living separate still has to produce the identification of her husband in any written documents. Considering the socio-cultural values and state policies a girl child is always the second preferred child in Nepalese society. She is not only an undesired sex but in many cases is grown up in a state of scarcity and discrimination, where 40 percent of the population lives below poverty line. In these households women bear most of the family and farm burden which is considered economically unproductive work. A girls child grows up in a state of dependency upon her male counterpart be it a father, brother, husband and son from her childhood to old age. They are the care takers, protectors and masters of the household and most of the time controller of women in every walks of their lives. In cases where men have supremacy and bad will they can be violent, exploiters and providers of all hazards of women lives. In such cases women become the victim of male violence and domination bringing in them psychological depression and dependency syndrome.

Nepal is a Hindu Kingdom and about 80 percent population is Hindus followed by Buddhist 7.8 percent and Muslims account for 3.5 percent of the population. The remaining is contributed by tribal and ethnic and Christian population (Census, 1991). The most powerful are the Goddesses (female god) in Hindu religion but in practice the religions, cultural and legal rules put women in a vulnerable position. The life of a woman according to Hindu way of life is not complete and almost impossible without an association with a male where he is regarded as the supremo in a woman's life. Ritually Hindu women hold most respectable and high position as mother, sister or daughter but the lowest position as sister-in-law and daughter-in-law. A woman's real life starts after marriage when she enters into family life and as responsible person to take care of the family

affairs. She is called the better half of her husband but will have no say in the family affairs if there are other elder women in the family. An unmarried daughter and sister will have less responsibility in the household when there are other elder people in the household. She enjoys more freedom in her parent's home. So, after marriage every woman has to pass through a difficult position from liberty to control. If she happens to marry in a traditional/conservative family her life totally changes. A woman's oppression begins after marriage in such families. Except a few liberal families most of the women in conservative Hindu families experience such situation and are not allowed to take part in the outside activities, where they can have exposure of outside world. If a woman comes from an economically and socially strong parental background and gets constant support from them then she enjoys some freedom and also holds considerably high position in her husband's home. If she comes from a weak (economically) parental background then she has to secure her position in her in-laws home from different means. Bennett (1981) explains the position of power of a woman in her husband's home as:

1. Women's continuing relationship with their maiti or natal home;
2. Women's sexuality which encompasses both their ability to bear children and to give (or withhold) pleasure to their husband;
3. Women's ability to uphold or tarnish the honour/reputation (izzat) of the family in the community at large;
4. Women's own labour and ability to contribute to the productivity of the affinal family.

In consideration to the above points a woman in a small nuclear agricultural family enjoys more freedom than in a large economically better off, but traditional family where her agricultural labour is either not required or could be replaced by wage labours or others. Women from the Buddhist religion enjoy more freedom than women in Hindu religion. Buddhist women who mostly belong to the Tibeto-Burman origin also called the ethnic groups hold most power in the household. Ethnic groups such as Sherpas of Himalayas also practice polyandry where a woman marries all the brothers of the same family and enjoys the property right. Women in many ethnic groups hold high position in their family and have more decision making power than the women of major Hindu origin. Studies show that women in different communities, the Newar women of Bulu (Pradhan,



1981), the Tharu women of Dang (Rajaure, 1981), the Kham Magar of Thabang (Molnar, 1981), the women of Baragaon (Schuer, 1981) have been presented and treated as equals in their community. Similarly, equality and freedom among the Rai women have been described by Mc Dougal (1973); among the Limbus by Jones (1976); among the Sherpas by Haimendrof (1964); among the Rana Tharu of Kailali by Bista (1967) and among Tamang by Holmberg (1989). But all these women described by the writers are very hard working. Though women have a say in their household chores and farm-work it does not mean that the main economic decision in disposal of property or in buying economic assets are done by women. Women in these communities also enjoy inheritance of property rights as against the national law which denies property rights to women. The national law of Nepal provides inheritance right to property only to the son and daughter will get the share of property if there is no grand son. An unmarried daughter after attaining the age of 35 is entitled to get a share in the parental property but if she marries after that she has to return all the property to her brothers.

## **1.5 Organization of the Report**

A detailed picture of women's position in national context in different periods of time and in different conventional measures e.g. health, education, employment and economy, and political and legal rights have been presented in details in the following chapters. Chapter two deals mostly on conventional indicators on women's status. Chapter three is macro-economic policies and reforms. Chapter four reviews sources of non-conventional indicators on women.

## CHAPTER - II CONVENTIONAL INDICATORS

### 2.1 Health Indicators

The health status of Nepalese population is one of the lowest in the South Asian region in general and female health in particular. Life expectancy among female is lower than male, one of the unique features in the world. High birth rate, low life expectancy, high infant and maternal mortality rate and high death rate indicate the poor health status of women.

Table 2.1: Health and Demographic Structure of Nepal

Population Structure	1971	1981	1985*	1991	1996+
Total Population (in million)	13.74	15.02	18.00	19.37	21.10
Life expectancy for men	-	47.5	51.5	55.38	57.00
Life expectancy for women	-	44.5	51.5	52.60	56.00
Crude birth rate (in thousand)	45.7	42.0	41.6	41.00 (1986-87)	
Crude death rate (in thousand)	20.8	19.0	16.0	16.00 (1986-87)	
Annual population growth rate	2.71	2.7	-	2.1	
Infant mortality rate (per thousand)	150	133	111.5	107 (1986-87)	97.5
Maternal mortality rate				515 (NFFPHS)	
Average birth rate per fertile woman	6.8	6.4	-	5.60	

Source: \* Report of population commission  
Census Report 1971, 1981, 1991  
+ CBS Projection 1995

Despite the decreasing trend in both mortality and morbidity rate Nepal stood on the third group and 4th position of the countries in 1985 (WSNCC, 1985). This situation has not changed much at the present time if we compare it with other countries. Infant mortality rate is slightly higher among male but male-female gap still exists in all areas -life expectancy, child mortality, death rate etc. Mortality level (Neo-natal, post-natal, infant & child) are higher in rural areas than in urban areas and western part of the country worse-off than the eastern part (see tables 2.1-2.4).

Table 2.2: Life Expectancy and Mortality Estimates

	Details	Unit	1974/75	1991
1.	Life Expectancy			
	Female	Year	42.5	53.5
	Male	Year	46.0	55.0
2.	Maternal Mortality	Number per 100,000 births	818	575
3.	Infant Mortality	Number per 1000 live births		
	Male	" "	141.2	94
	Female	" "	123.0	101
4.	Child Mortality	Number per 1000 children between 1 & 5 years		
	Male	" "	125	36
	Female	" "	139	50
5.	Death Rate	Number per 1000 population		
	Male	" "	18.6	12.9
	Female	" "	20.4	13.6

Source: Population Monograph of Nepal. Tables 9,10,18 in chapter 4 and p 110 for MMR.  
Cited from UNFPA, 1997

Table 2.3: Infant and Child Mortality, by Socio-economic Characteristics

Mortality Rates (Per 1000 LB)					
Background Characteristics	Neonatal	Postneonatal	Infant (0-1 yrs)	Childhood (1-4 yrs)	Under - 5
<b>Place of Residence</b>					
Urban	40.9	19.5	60.4	35.3	93.6
Rural	57.7	42.4	100.2	52.1	147.0
<b>Development Region</b>					
East	53.5	31.9	85.4	44.4	126.0
Central	59.6	38.9	98.5	53.5	146.8
West	49.8	29.8	79.6	37.8	114.4
Mid west	63.7	62.2	125.9	68.2	185.6
Far west	60.5	63.5	124.0	64.5	180.5
<b>Ecological Region</b>					
Mountains	67.0	43.8	132.3	79.2	201.0
Hills	44.4	24.8	85.5	50.1	131.3
Terai	66.6	10.8	104.3	48.0	147.3

Source: NFFPHS, 1993. Cited from UNICEF 1996

Table 2.4: Trends in Reproductive Health, 1991 and 1996

Indicators	1991	1996	Source
Percent of all women married by age 19	47.3	44.0	CBS 1995b; MOH 1996a. 1996b
Percent of married women who give birth by age 19	38.3	42.4	MOH 1991, 1996a
Percent of pregnant women with anemia	33.0	64.0	World Bank 1993
Percent of women with TT2	26.8	32.6	MOH 1991, 1996 a
Percent of birth attended by trained health personnel, including TBAs	17.7	32.6	MOH, 1991, 1996a
Mean duration of breast-feeding (months)	28.0	28.0	MOH 1991, 1996a

Source: Cited from Nepal Human Development Report 1998.

Besides poverty, gender discrimination in bringing up children is a factor of more death among girl children. Low level of nutritional status poor sanitation condition and ill health add up to the cause of child mortality and morbidity. The U5MR (under 5 mortality rate) is among the highest in the world and female mortality rate tends to be higher in all age groups (CBS, 1991). Studies indicate that among the children who survive, the female child is nutritionally worse off than male. Girls under 5 years of age are twice at risk to be under nourished than boys (RIDA, 1991). Study on the status of girl child (RIDA, 1991) found out that more girls (50%) than boys (40%) were found mal-nourished, anemic and stunted.

Available data project that the nutritional status of Nepali women particularly in the rural areas is very low. There is a lack of Vitamin A, iron, iodine and protein in the diet. The deficiency in nutritional and mineral values in the food intake during the time of pregnancy put the mother and infant in high risk. Repeated pregnancies, hard work without rest and not enough food to eat are the factors of maternal as well as infant mortality. The situation is worst in the western rural areas than other parts of the country.

A survey of Joint Nutrition Support Programme (JNSP, 1986) the prevalence of anemia among women ranged from 71 percent in Sindhupalchowk village near Kathmandu to 95 percent in Nawalparasi (a terai village). Nutritional anemia among women during pregnancy is a common problem in Nepal.

A great risk factor for women in recent years is the growing prevalence of sexually transmitted diseases (STDS) and HIV/AIDS. Diseases like syphilis and gonorrhoea in early pregnancies cause still births, neonatal deaths and infected infants (UNICEF, 1996).

Early marriage and young motherhood is another high risk factor for women in Nepal. According to Ministry of Health about 60 percent of marriages take places below the age of 18 and a girls may bear her first child at the age of 15-16 which is not a age for motherhood. The age at motherhood has declined since 1991 with 42.4 percent girls being mothers at the age of 19. Problems of mal-nourishment and small pelvic bones and birth canals also result stuntedness among children in their growth. Among the older women also close spaced births and high birth rate keep

both mother and child at risk. The 1991 census reports an average of 5.1 children of Nepali women of reproductive age which reportedly declined to 4.6 in 1996 (MOH,1997). According to MOH survey (1993) the median birth interval was 34 months.

## Health Care Services

Utilization of health care services is low in Nepal. Data collected from the NMIS shows that a large majority of pregnant women do not visit for ANC. Table 2.5 presents data on ANC visit. Only about 20 percent of pregnant women attend ANC services. Mean number of ANC visit per pregnancy is 0.7. The mean is 3.5 which is closer to the minimum number of visits outlined by the safer-motherhood program. If we calculate the mean only for those who have attended the ANC clinic at least once, then. This also means that if women attend ANC clinic, they are more like to make repeat visits.

Table 2.5: Mean ANC Visit by Selected Characteristics, Nepal, 1997

<b>Characteristics</b>	
<b>Age of Pregnant women</b>	
15-19	0.9
20-34	1.0
35-49	0.6
<b>Place of residence</b>	
Urban	2.8
Rural	0.6
<b>Literacy of respondents</b>	
Literate	1.8
Illiterate	0.4
<b>Ecological region</b>	
Terai	0.5
Hill	0.7
Mountains	0.2
<b>Development Region</b>	
Eastern	0.5
	0.7
Western	0.9
Mid-western	0.1
Far Western	0.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>0.7</b>

Source: Regmi, Manandhar and Malla, 1998.

## Tetanus Toxoid (TT)

Tetanus toxoid coverage is higher than the ANC visit. Table 2.6 shows the number of TT shots to women regardless of whether they received ANC services. This Table shows that about 42 percent of women received TT shots. Almost 23 percent received at least two doses of TT shots while only 6.9 received only one shots and 13 percent more than three shots. A study estimated that coverage of TT shot was higher if we take only those women who attended ANC. Among those women, only 10 percent did not receive any TT shot, 12 percent received one, 51 percent two doses and 27 percent received three doses of TT shot. Given that at least two doses of TT shots is required to be effective, almost 78 percent of women who attended ANC service were protected from TT(Regmi et al, 1998).

Table 2.6: Percentage of women who have received TT shots

No. of TT Shots	Percent
No TT	57.8
One	6.9
Two	22.7
Three or more	12.6

Source: Regmi, Manandhar and Malla, 1998.

The medical council directory (1994) presents a figure of 1547 total doctors out of which 288 are women whereas the economic survey reports a total of doctors 1497(see table 2.7). The national average of one doctor stands of 12611 people per doctor. It is estimated that 60 percent of the doctors are working at Kathmandu. This means that doctors population ratio is as high as 52456 (1:52456).

Table 2.7: Medical practitioners by level of education and by gender, 1993 Medical practitioners, 1993

(in numbers)

Education Level	Total	Practitioners	
		Women	Men
MD	303	54	249
MBBS	1210	224	986
BDS	29	9	20
Others	5	1	4
Total	1547	288	1259

Source: Compiled from Medical Council (Directory), 1994

Nurses and Auxiliary Nurse Midwives (ANMs) are the trained health practitioners who provide services to the people. But there is a shortage of nurses in the hospital and health posts 1: 6,295 population (Economic Survey 1993/94). The number of ANMs is still lower 2,126 and many health posts do not have ANMs at all.

### Place of Delivery

Table 2.8 shows percentage distribution of women according to reported place of their delivery. In Nepal, almost 91 percent of babies are delivered at home. This is followed by delivery at hospital which accounts for about 8 per cent of total deliveries. Delivery at other institutional health service facilities is nominal (0.4%). The findings on delivery place in this survey represents slight improvement over the 1991 and the 1996 figures. The 1996 Nepal Family Health Survey reported delivery at modern health care facilities at 7.6 per cent (NFHS, Ministry of Health, 1997).

Table 2.8: Distribution of Sample Respondents by Place of Delivery

Place of Delivery	Number	%
House	15160	89.0
Hospital	1348	7.9
Bran Shed	288	1.7
Outdoors	158	0.9
Nursing Home	29	0.2
Private Clinic	22	0.1
Health Post/Sub-health Post	20	0.1
Primary Health Care Center	6	--
Total	17031	100.0

Source: Niraula, Pradhan and Basnet, 1998.

### Assistance During Birth

Table 2.9 shows percentage distribution of women reporting type of assistance received during delivery. Almost half of women who have delivered their babies received assistance from their family members (48.9%), followed by untrained traditional birth attendants [(TBAs) 23.4] and neighbours (22.8%). Only about 5 per cent of women received assistance from trained health care professionals during their deliveries. The reported delivery assistance from the trained health care professionals in this cycle of NMIS is lower than the level reported by the NFHS, 1996. In that

survey, assistance provided by the trained health professionals stood at more than 10 per cent, twice the level reported in this survey. This may be due to differences in target population.

Table 2.9: Percentage Distribution of Assistance Providers During Birth

Assistance Providers	%
Family Members	48.9
Neighbours	22.8
Trained Professionals	4.9
Untrained TBAs	23.4
Total	100.0

Source: Niraula, Pradhan and Basnet, 1998

### Use of Contraceptives

Birth control is one of the measures to improve women's health. It has already been discussed earlier that in an average women in Nepal give birth to 5 children. The use of contraceptives has increased during the recent years which shows a growing consciousness among women about reproductive health. Contraceptive Prevalence Rate (CPR) has increased from about 3 percent in 1996 to about 29 percent in 1996 (Ministry of Health, 1997). See Table 2.10 for details.

Table 2.10: Trends in current use of family planning methods

Percentage of currently married non-pregnant women age 15-49 who are currently using modern contraceptive methods, Nepal 1976-1996					
Method	1976 NFS	1981 NCPS	1986 NFFS	1991 NFHS	1996 NFHS
Any modern method	2.9	7.6	15.1	24.1	28.8 <sup>1</sup>
Female sterilization	0.1	2.6	6.8	12.1	13.3
Male sterilization	1.9	3.2	6.2	7.5	6.0
Pill	0.5	1.2	0.9	1.1	1.5
Injectables	0.0	0.1	0.5	2.3	5.0
Condom	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.6	2.1
Norplant	NA	NA	NA	0.3	0.5
IUD	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3

Source: Ministry of Health, 1993:112

NA= Not applicable

<sup>1</sup> Includes users of vaginal methods (diaphragm, foam, jelly)

Most of the contraceptives and sterilization are directed to women. Female sterilization increased more than 358 percent while male sterilization rate increased by only 134 percent from 1981 to 1991 (Acharya, 1994). In 1991 also male sterilization rate was half of female sterilization rate. The use of contraceptives indicate a distinct biasness against women given the greater male



command over resources, higher education, greater social status, mobility and independence (Acharya, 1997). Although women are the users of almost all contraceptives and permanent sterilization the use of condoms projects a high number of male than female using the family planning devices. It is a feeling that the permanent sterilization makes a person weak so men are reluctant to go for permanent sterilization. Although male sterilization is easy, women are compelled to do permanent sterilization when they have complications during pregnancies or delivery or have more children. Yet they can not do this on their own will if their husbands do not agree. This is one of the main reasons to have more children and put women in high risk.

### Child Nutrition

Protein Energy Malnutrition (PEM) is a chronic problem in Nepal. General malnutrition among children under 3 years of age is a high a 57 percent. Not much differences was noted between the sexes. Children in rural area and in the hills and mountains suffer were from malnutrition in the country. See Table 2.11a for different measures of malnutrition and child population in the country.

Table 2.11 a: Percentage of children under three years of age who are classified as malnourished according to three anthropometric indices of nutritional status, Nepal, 1997 and 1998.

	Height/ Age	Weight/Height	Weight/Age
Sex of Child			
Male	53.8	16.0	57.0
Female	52.4	16.5	56.9
Place of Residence			
Urban	36.3	14.0	41.7
Rural	53.7	16.9	57.5
Ecological Region			
Terai	54.9	10.1	52.3
Hills	59.2	27.7	65.6
Mountains	63.8	8.0	53.0
<b>Nepal</b>	<b>53.1</b>	<b>16.4</b>	<b>57.1</b>

Source: Nepal Multiple Indicator Surveillance, 1997

### Women's Nutritional Status

Nepal Family Health Survey conducted in 1996 was the first ever attempt to collect nutritional data of reproductive women, who have had births during last 3 years (MOH, 1997). It

collected data on height and weight of women and body mass index (BMI) which is an indicator that combines height and weight data.

Maternal height and weight are associated with nutrition during childhood and adolescence. Both low height and weight can be considerable health hazard for women. Small pelvic size, short stature could lead to unfavourable delivery outcomes including low birth weight of babies. The height below which a women is considered to be at nutritional risk is the range of 140-150 cm. This survey found that about 15% of women are below 145 centimeters.

The BMI which is a composite index of height and weight (weight in kilograms divided by the square of the height in meters). For the BMI, a cut-off point of 18.5 has been recommended as an indicator of chronic energy deficiency in Nepalese population. The mean BMI is 19.8 and 28.3 percent of women are below the cut-off point (Table 2.11 b).

### **Knowledge of HIV/AIDS and STDs**

Knowledge (heard about) is low in Nepal. Poor sanitary and hygienic practices complied with poor health, and nutritional status, poor economic condition, make women more susceptible to sexually transmitted diseases including HIV/AIDS. About 4 Nepali women are estimated to be trafficking to India for prostitution. Some of the returned prostitutes continue their operation in Nepal. Male migrant to India is also high. There men visit various brothels are likely to bring STDs/AIDS to their wife on their return to Nepal. STDs are thought to be common disease in remote hills and mountains. Knowledge of HIV/AIDS among women of reproductive age is about 27 percent in the country.

Table 2.11 a: Maternal nutritional status by background characteristics

Among women who had a birth in the three years preceding the survey, mean height and percentage of women shorter than 145 centimetres, mean body mass index (BMI), and percentage of women whose BMI is less than 18.5 (kg/m <sup>2</sup> ), by selected background characteristics, Nepal 1996						
Background characteristics	Height			BMI		
	Mean	Percentage <145 cm	Number of women	Mean	Percentage <18.5 cm (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	Number of women
<b>Age</b>						
15-19	150.1	13.3	393	19.7	30.6	336
20-24	150.9	13.3	1,192	19.8	29.8	981
25-29	150.3	13.9	1,008	19.9	25.2	880
30-34	150.3	16.1	631	19.8	27.5	545
35-49	150.0	19.5	522	19.8	30.5	474
<b>Residence</b>						
Urban	150.6	15.1	242	20.5	22.8	211
Rural	150.4	14.7	3,504	19.8	28.7	3,006
<b>Ecological region</b>						
Mountain	150.2	14.7	287	20.4	13.6	241
Hill	150.4	15.0	1,609	20.5	16.5	1,377
Terai	150.5	14.6	1,851	19.1	40.7	1,599
<b>Development region</b>						
Eastern	150.4	12.9	780	19.7	32.7	689
Central	150.1	16.7	1,255	19.6	32.0	1,072
Western	150.1	16.3	748	20.2	23.2	638
Mid-western	150.9	13.8	582	20.0	20.4	493
Far-western	151.2	10.9	382	19.5	29.2	325
<b>Sub-region</b>						
Eastern mountain	150.4	15.3	57	21.2	12.2	51
Central mountain	149.9	14.5	100	20.4	13.1	81
Western mountain	150.4	14.6	130	19.9	14.6	109
Eastern Hill	149.9	15.4	265	20.7	12.6	228
Central Hill	150.0	16.6	447	20.8	12.9	396
Western Hill	150.1	15.8	446	20.9	15.6	377
Mid-western Terai	151.1	13.0	297	20.0	21.3	247
Far-western Hill	151.3	10.8	154	19.4	28.1	130
Eastern Terai	150.7	11.1	458	19.0	46.4	410
Central Terai	150.2	17.0	708	18.8	47.3	595
Western Terai	150.1	17.0	302	19.3	34.2	262
Mid-western Terai	151.1	12.5	226	20.0	20.7	196
Far-western Terai	151.2	12.5	157	19.4	36.7	136
<b>Education</b>						
No education	150.1	16.3	2,968	19.7	28.7	2,536
Primary	151.2	9.8	427	20.1	27.3	366
Some secondary	151.6	8.9	248	20.1	29.7	224
SLC and above	152.7	6.8	104	21.1	19.7	91
<b>Literacy</b>						
Literate	151.4	9.7	783	20.3	24.9	686
Illiterate	150.2	16.1	2,963	19.7	29.3	2,531
<b>Total</b>	150.4	14.8	3,746	19.8	28.3	3,217

Note: The BMI index excludes pregnant women and those who are less than three months postpartum.  
SLC= School Leaving Certificate

## 2.2 Education Indicators

### Literacy Status

Education is one of the major sectors where gender disparity is stark. With much emphasis to raise the literacy status it is estimated to have reached to 53% in 1997, female literacy stands at 38% against male literacy, which is 68%. Emphasis put on girls' education and adult literacy in the past was the main reason to raise the female literacy status from 3.6 in 1971 to 12% (about 3 times more) in 1981 which has doubled to 25% in the year 1991 and to 38 percent in 1997 (Table 2.12).

Table 2.12: Literacy Rate for Population 6 years of age and above for different years, Nepal

Year	Male	Female	Total Both Sexes
1971	23.6	3.9	13.9
1981	34.0	12.0	23.3
1991	54.5	25.0	39.6
1997	68.0	37.8	52.8

Source: CBS, 1995, CBS, 1998

Table 2.13 shows literacy of population aged 6-14 years as recorded by the censuses. It shows that literacy rate among child population has increased tremendously in recent years. In 1971, literacy rate for both sexes of population aged 6-9 years was 11.1 percent which increased to 47 percent for both sexes in 1991, a four-fold increment during the intervening period. Similarly literacy of population aged 10-14 years was 24 percent in 1971 which increased to 63 percent in 1991. A more recent survey conducted in 1997 as part of the Nepal Multiple Indicator Surveillance (NMIS), shows further improvements in literacy of child population in Nepal. This survey found that literacy rate among 6-9 years has gone up to 65 percent (including 73.3 percent for male and 57.6 percent for female child). Similarly literacy rate among the 10-14 years was reported at 75.9 percent, which includes 86.5 percent for male and 67.9 percent for female children.

Table 2.13: Trends in Literacy Rate of Population Aged 6-14 Years by Sex and Census Years

Census	6-9 Years			10-14 Years		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1971	16.4	5.5	11.1	35.8	9.6	23.8
1981	27.8	15.2	21.6	50.8	21.2	38.8
1991	55.7	38.0	47.0	76.0	49.3	63.2
1997	73.3	57.6	65.1	86.5	67.9	75.9

Source: Data for 1971, 1981 and 1991 are from Central Bureau of Statistics, 1975, 1984, and 1993, respectively. Data for 1997 are taken from Nepal Multiple Indicator Surveillance Fifth Cycle, CBS, 1998.

There is still a wider gap in the literacy percentage of rural and urban areas. Women in rural areas still lag far behind in literacy status than the women of urban areas. Urban literacy is 73 percent that includes male literacy of 85 percent and female literacy of 62 percent, almost half of female literacy in rural area. likewise women of mountain regions and terai are far behind to their counterparts in the hills and mountains. Women of Mid-western and Far-western development region are far behind to women of other development regions (Table 2.14).

Table 2.14: Literacy Rate for Both Sexes of Population 6 years and Above year by Ecosystems and Development Regions, Nepal, 1997

Development Region		Both sexes	Male	Female
Eastern	1991	44.3	59.3	29.2
	1997	52.4	67.5	37.2
Central	1991	38.6	52.0	24.6
	1997	46.4	61.5	31.2
Western	1991	44.0	58.5	28.0
	1997	65.1	80.4	51.7
Mid-Western	1991	31.8	47.6	16.3
	1997	41.3	59.1	23.3
Far-Western	1991	32.2	52.0	13.3
	1997	46.2	65.4	27.6
Mountains	1991	33.2	50.2	16.5
	1997	46.8	62.4	30.6
Hills	1991	43.9	60.2	28.5
	1997	58.4	75.0	42.8
Tarai	1991	36.5	49.8	22.7
	1997	43.0	57.1	28.1
Rural	1991	36.8	51.9	22.0
	1997	51.7	66.9	36.6
Urban	1991	66.9	78.0	54.8
	1997	73.2	85.1	61.5
Nepal	1991	39.6	54.5	25.0
	1997	52.8	68.0	37.8

Source: CBS 1995, CBS, 1998

Female literacy rate in the older age group 15 + is much lower than in the age group below 15. It shows the reality that female education is a very recent phenomenon in the Nepalese context.

### **Girl's Participation at Different Levels**

School enrollment at the primary level among the girls is lower than boys (Table 2.15). Only 56% girls are enrolled at primary level as against boys 79% (HRD/N 1998). The NMIS report (1996) taking age stratification into account states that a girl has:

- more than two and half times the risk of not currently attending school
- 20% more at risk to repeat a year
- 50% more at risk of dropping out.

Table 2.15: Primary School-age children and enrolment rates, 1995

	Total number of children in age-group (6-10)	Number enrolled	Number not in school	Gross enrolment rate (b/a* 100)	Net enrolment rate (a/c*100)
	(a)	(b)	(c)		
Boys	1477687	1961410	314268	132.7 (100)	78.7 (67)
Girls	1381269	1301640	613756	94.2 (72)	55.6 (46)
Total	2858956	3263050	928024	114.1 (86)	67.5 (57)

Source: MOE 1997c. Figures within parenthesis are 1996 NERs and GERs calculated from CBS 1997c. Cited from HRD/N 1998

Disparity in the enrollment persists at all levels of schooling. There is an increasing tendency of girl's enrolment every year (Table 2.16). This table shows that girls enrolment has increased from 34 percent in 1985/86 to 65 in 1995. Corresponding figure for boys is 57 percent in 1985/86 to 81 percent in 1995. During the period 1985-95 girls enrolment increased by 91 percent whereas boys enrolment increased by only 42 percent.

Table 2.16 : Gross Enrolment Rates of Total Students and Girls (by Level)\*

Year	Primary		L. Secondary		Secondary		Combined	
	Total	Girls	Total	Girls	Total	Girls	Total	Girls
1985	77	48	33	19	24	12	57	34
1986	82	52	33	19	25	12	57	34
1987	83	53	37	20	26	13	60	36
1988	87	58	38	21	27	15	62	40
1989	101	73	39	24	28	16	70	49
1990	107	81	41	26	29	17	75	54
1991	106	83	40	27	32	20	75	56
1992	107	84	44	31	34	21	77	58
1993	107	85	44	31	32	20	77	59
1994	112	NA	45	NA	30	NA	79	NA
1995	114	94	48	36	32	22	81	65

Source: CERID, 1997

Girls enrolment in higher level education is much lower than that of the boys. However, a high number of girl 51.5% and 55.5% in the year 1991 & 1992 is seen in medicine followed by education and humanities. The high number of girls in medicine also includes faculty of nursing, an area traditionally held by women. Table 2.17 shows that only 21.8 percent of girls are enrolled in medicine. There is a low enrolment of girls in agriculture and forestry even in later years.

Table 2.17: Enrolment in higher education by institution and by sex, Nepal, 1970-1992

(in numbers)

Enrolment/Year	Year 2027 (1970)	Year 2042 (1985)	Year 2048 (1991)	Year 2049 (1992)
Total enrolment	17025	54452	110239	103840
Total Female enrolment	3103	12790	26221	24316
(%)	(18.2)	(23.5)	(23.8)	(23.4)
Education Total	191	3630	9114	9204
Education Female	54	243	2084	1895
(%)	(28.3)	(6.7)	(22.9)	(20.6)
*Humn. & Soc.Sc. Total	10327	21310	46487	43703
* Humn. & Soc. Sc. Female	2458	8273	15549	14249
(%)	(23.8)	(38.8)	(33.5)	(32.6)
Law Total	249	4907	7991	7461
Law Female	4	442	734	711
(%)	(1.6)	(9.0)	(9.2)	(9.5)
Management Total	3714	12067	29314	26384
Management Female	242	2979	5061	4763
(%)	(6.5)	(22.2)	(17.3)	(18.1)
Sc. & Technology Total	2544	7308	2113	12272
Sc. & Technology Female	345	979	1565	1563
(%)	(13.6)	(13.4)	(12.9)	(12.7)
Medicine Total	-	1385	1777	1499
Medicine Female	-	35	921	832
(%)	-	(2.5)	(51.5)	(55.5)
Engineering Total	-	2180	2268	2080
Engineering Female	-	87	196	160
(%)	-	(4.0)	(8.6)	(7.7)
Agri. & Forestry Total	-	1665	1175	1237
Agri & Forestry Female	-	52	111	143
(%)	-	(3.1)	(9.5)	(11.6)

Source: Tribhuvan University

Note: \* includes the enrollment of inst. of Sanskrit

Excludes the enrolment of Private Campuses

Figures in the ( ) indicate the percentage of females to the corresponding total

There is a less number of female graduates at all institutions including medicine (Table 2.18). Female students enrolled in graduate studies account for less than one-fifth of total graduate in the country. Of the various faculties, enrolment in medicine is highest (22%) followed by Social sciences (21%) and Science (16%).

Table 2.18: Number and percentage of \* Graduates in third level of education by field of study and by sex, Nepal 1991

Field of Study	Total	Male	(%)	Female	(%)
** Social Sciences	183045	144725	79.1	38320	20.9
Science	27341	22922	83.8	4419	16.2
Medicine	1722	1347	78.2	375	21.8
Engineering	4295	4015	93.5	280	6.5
Agri. & Forestry	2409	2273	94.4	136	5.6
Sanskrit	2362	2241	94.9	121	5.1
Others	746	620	83.1	126	16.9
Total	221920	178143	80.3	43777	19.7

Sources of basic data: Population Census 1991 Vol 1 Part X, CBS

Note: \* Indicate Popn. 15+ with intermediate or above level of education.

\*\* Includes Arts, Commerce, Law, Education & Pub. Administration not stated category (4.9 %) is excluded

### Girl's Performance in School

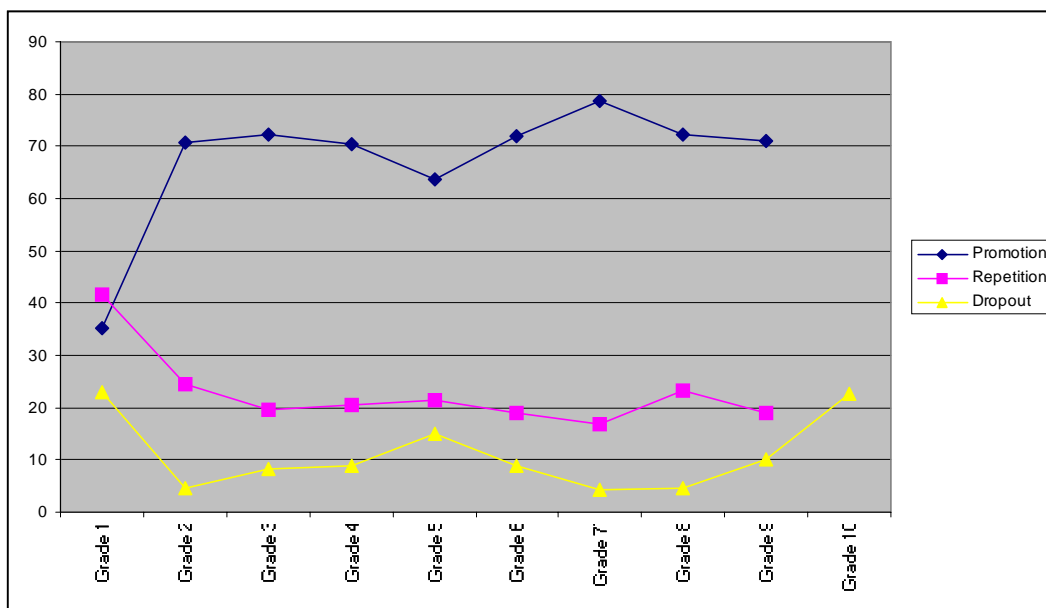
Although the enrolment rate among girls is low there is not much difference in the promotion, repetition and dropout rates in comparison to boys (Table 2.19). A great number of students (both boys and girls) show a tendency to dropout in the beginning (grade -1) and at the end of primary level (grade 5). Dropout rate among the girls at secondary level is less than that of boys. It shows that girls retention rate is higher than boys once enrolled in school.

Table 2.19: Promotion, Repetition and Dropout Rates (%), 1996 (2053)

Grade	Promotion			Repetition			Dropout		
	Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys
Grade 1	35.2	34.8	35.5	41.7	41.2	42.0	23.1	24.0	22.5
Grade 2	70.8	68.8	72.1	24.6	26.4	23.4	4.6	4.8	4.4
Grade 3	72.1	73.6	71.1	19.7	21.1	18.8	8.2	5.3	10.1
Grade 4	70.4	71.4	69.6	20.6	21.6	20.0	9.0	6.9	10.4
Grade 5	63.6	60.9	65.4	21.3	22.3	20.7	15.1	16.8	13.9
Grade 6	72.0	72.3	71.8	19.1	20.6	18.2	8.9	7.1	10.0
Grade 7	78.8	76.1	80.5	16.8	17.7	16.2	4.4	6.2	3.4
Grade 8	72.1	71.1	72.7	23.3	25.8	21.7	4.7	3.1	5.6
Grade 9	71.0	72.9	70.0	18.9	21.1	17.6	10.1	6.1	12.4
Grade 10	**	**	*	19.6	22.8	17.7	**	**	**

Source: Educational Statistics 1996, Ministry of Education





Source: Educational Statistics 1996, Ministry of Education.

Table 2.20: Promotion, Repetition and Drop-out Rates for Secondary Grade Students of 1994 (in percentage)

	Promotion		Repetition		Dropout	
	Total	Girls	Total	Girls	Total	Girls
Grade 6	79.4	81.2	13.2	13.2	7.4	5.6
Grade 7	81.1	80.0	11.1	11.0	7.8	8.9
Grade 8	71.2	72.3	16.9	17.9	11.9	9.8
Grade 9	76.8	80.4	12.0	13.6	11.2	6.1
Grade 10	NA	NA	18.3	20.8	NA	NA

Source: CERID, 1997

Table 2.21: Trends in Grade Retention Rate of Female and Male Student at Primary and Secondary Level of Education, Nepal, 1987-1991

(Percent)

Year/Grade	Female					Male				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Primary Level										
1987	100.0	48.1	91.5	98.0	90.8	100.0	48.9	88.4	97.3	85.1
1988	100.0	49.5	87.2	94.3		100.0	49.7	86.8	91.1	
1989	100.0	44.1	83.1			100.0	46.1	82.0		
1990	100.0	43.2				100.0	45.4			
1991	100.0					100.0				
Secondary Level										
1987	100.0	94.3	91.4	95.1	95.9	100.0	91.7	87.3	94.8	93.0
1988	100.0	92.9	90.0	96.1		100.0	92.4	87.6	99.3	
1989	100.0	92.8	95.6			100.0	91.8	94.6		
1990	100.0	93.4				100.0	92.0			
1991	100.0					100.0				

Source of basic data: Various bulletin of Educational statistics, MOEC, 1987-1991

The retention rate of both sexes is higher in secondary level than in primary level. Retention of both boys and girls is lowest in year two of primary schooling but gradually improves thereafter at higher grade. The causes of low enrolment for both the sexes was mainly due to poverty and their involvement in household chores (NMIS 1996, CERID, 1997). However parents' reluctance to send their daughters to school was expressed as no return from their education (NMIS, 1996). Report of the consultative panel for Asia and Oceanic (1979) seems still true even today which states:

*In Nepalese society, where education of boys is considered as an economic investment and education of girls as a wastage, attention is mainly focused on boys. The limited resources are spent for boys, leaving very little for girls (cited in Luitel 1992, p. 28).*

*Study reports show that there is chance of high enrolment among girls if the decision maker in the household is a female (NMIS 1996). In almost all of the household (90%) the decision maker or the household head is a male.'*

Gender stereo-typical presentation in curriculum, text books showing women in private and men in public affairs are some other discouraging factors for girls education (CERID, 1997). The projection of media in highlighting women's body as commodity and source of generating income is more challenging for educated elite's (Thapa 1995). The physical environment of the school and the teaching/learning environment is also not congenial to the young girls. Most of the public school do not have toilet facilities and young girls who require privacy at age face more problems than the young boys, may dropout from school. The absence of female teachers in school makes the situation still worse in such cases. Male teachers give less attention to girls in classroom teaching which is a cause of girls reluctance to attend classes. This is reflected in SLC result. A study conducted by CERID (1997) revealed that girls lag far behind boys in SLC examination:

A big problem to dropout at the early years of primary education (grade 1) was found to be adjustment problem for the low caste groups and linguistic problem and teacher's ignorance to deal with these issues (NMIS 1996; CERID 1997). These cases mostly prevail in the rural areas than in urban areas.

- Out of the total students (91167) that appeared in the SLC examination in 1996 only 32.2% (29296) were girls.

- The range of percentage of girls in the total was from 3.7 (Humla) to 46.2 (Manang).
- Out of 75 districts in the country, in four (5.3%) districts namely, Humla, Mugu, Achham and Bajhang (districts in mid-western mountains and far-western hills) the percentage of girls in the total who appeared in the SLC was below 10%. In about one-fifth of the districts the percentage of girls was below 20%. On the contrary, in six (8%) of the districts namely, Manang, Parbat, Lalitpur, Palps, Arghakhanchi and Kathmandu (districts in central and western hill as well as a district in western mountain) the girls' percentage appearing in the School Leaving Certificate examination was more than 40.
- Regional analysis reveals that districts in the far-western and mid-western regions have less percentage of girls among those who appeared in the SLC. Western development region seems to be better than the other regions in terms of the percentage of girls to total SLC appeared students.
- The proportion of girls in total students that appeared in the SLC varies more in the mountain and hilly districts than in the Terai districts. The districts in the Terai region fall within the 20 to 40 percent bracket of pass percentage of girls.

In comparison to male the educational attainment of female is much lower . About 60 percent of males are illiterate against 74 percent of females. Percentage of male population who have attained 6-10 grade is almost double of females attaining the same level of education. This pattern holds true for higher levels of education as well (Table 2.22).

Table 2.22: Educational Attainment of Females (6 years and above)

Attainment	Total	Female
Illiterate	9073370 (59.91)	5671097 (74.40)
No Schooling	1360371 (08.98)	453441 (5.95)
Primary (1-5)	2445959 (16.15)	852742 (11.19)
Secondary (6-10)	1345461 (8.88)	378887 (4.97)
SLC & Equivalent	300342 (1.98)	71334 (0.94)
Intermediate & Equivalent	136214 (0.90)	28408 (0.37)
Graduate & Equivalent	96977 (0.64)	17778 (0.23)
Level not stated	273424 (1.81)	82912 (1.09)
Literacy not stated	112953 (0.75)	65855 (0.86)
Total	15145071 (100)	7622454 (100)

Source: National census report, 1992

Note: Figures in parenthesis represent percentage

There are wide disparities in literacy rate and educational attainment across rural urban spectrum. Literacy rate in urban area is higher than in rural areas (Table 2.23). For example, 55% of urban women are literate compared to 25% of rural women. This trend holds true for at all levels of educational attainment.

Table 2.23: Selected Indicators on Educational Status

S.N	Indicators	Urban		Rural		Overall	
		1981	1991	1981	1991	1981	1991
1.	Literacy Rate (6 years+)	50.5	66.9	21.4	36.8	23.3	39.6
	Male	61.1	78.0	32.0	51.9	34.0	54.5
	Female	38.2	54.8	10.3	22.0	12.0	25.0
2.	Graduates Among 2024 age group	5.26	4.26	0.37	0.38	0.73	0.83
	Male	6.64	5.29	0.68	0.70	1.16	1.29
	Female	3.76	3.19	0.09	0.11	0.34	0.44
3.	Female Among School Completes	31.6	36.7	11.9	17.1	20.3	23.8
4.	Female Among Graduates & above	21.7	23.9	8.4	8.8	15.6	18.3
5.	Literacy Among 10-14 age group	67.6	83.4	36.8	61.2	38.8	63.2
	Male	73.9	88.0	49.2	74.8	50.8	76.0
	Female	60.1	78.2	22.3	46.6	21.2	49.3

Source: Population Monograph of Nepal CBS, 1995, pp 448, 378-381, 390-393. Cited from UNFPA 1997.

## Female Teachers

To enhance girls enrolment at least at primary level government has initiated various programs at school level girls (see Annex.....). The government also has initiated provision of at least one female teacher in each primary school to increase girls enrolment. With this provision the number of female teacher at the primary level has nearly doubled from 8% in 1976 to 15 % in

1991. The number of female teachers at the tertiary level was 7.0 % in 1970 which increased to 18.7 in 1991. The percentage of female teachers at all level specifically at secondary level is much lower compared to male teachers (Table 2.24).

Table 2.24: Teachers in the first, second and third levels of education by sex, Nepal, 1970-1992

Teachers/year	Year 2027 (1970)	Year 2033 (1976)	Year 2040 (1983)	Year 2048 (1991)	Year 2049 (1992)
First level Total	18250	20775	38131	74495	77948
First level Female	N.A	1706	3503	10206	11685
(%)	-	(8.2)	(9.2)	(13.7)	(15.0)
Second level Total	5257	11371	15910	24632	25357
Second level Female	N.A	1055	1462	2423	2969
(%)	-	(9.3)	(9.2)	(9.8)	(11.7)
Third level total	1058		*3640	4845	
Third level Female	74		*506	906	
(%)	(7.0)		(13.9)	(18.7)	

Source: Ministry of Education & Culture and Tribhuvan University

Note: First, Second and Third levels of education are termed for the primary, L.Sec, incl. Secondary and higher levels of education respectively.

Figures in the ( ) indicate the percentage of females to the corresponding total.

\* refers to the year 2041

The percentage of female teachers at secondary level is highest in the Central Development Region (hill) which includes Kathmandu, Lalitpur and Bhaktapur and lowest in Far-western Development Region. Except in the central hill, Eastern and Western Terai Region the percentage of female teachers is very low (Table 2.25).

Table 2.25: Regional Distribution of Female Teachers (1994) at Secondary Level

Development Region	Geographical Belt			
	Mountain	Hill	Terai	Total
Eastern Region	2.3	3.6	11.9	8.1
Central Region	3.2	25.7	4.9	19.2
Western Region	3.9	4.5	16.1	7.2
Mid-western Region	3.7	4.7	7.4	5.5
Far-western Region	0.9	1.5	8.8	3.6
Total	2.5	13.2	10.0	11.2

Source: Educational Statistics of Nepal, 1993, Statistics and Computer Section, MOE

The low percentage of female teachers at all levels indicates the poor educational status among females. Another reason is that unlike government policy for primary teachers, there is no government policy to encourage female teachers at the secondary level. The government higher

level officers (DEOS) and the Head Teachers have bias attitudes towards female teachers. They regard that female teachers are not serious towards their studies and are not competent as male teachers. They take more leave and go in maternity leaves which hampers the teaching learning at school. A study conducted by CERID (1997) revealed this attitude of high level educational personnel towards female teachers which is reflected in the recruitment of female teachers. This is why there was less number of female teachers at secondary level. One of the head teachers said -

*"young married women should not be recruited as teachers, as they are highly fertile and they tend to go on maternity leave which hampers the school activities. It does not matter in other jobs but teaching job is something people should not take risk in (CERID, 1997 p. 58)".*

There was high disparity not only in the recruitment of female teachers but also in teacher's training programme of Secondary Education Development Unit (SEDU). Only 1.6% female teachers were trained from five SEDUs (Table 2.26).

Table 2.26: Number of Female Teachers Trained in SEDUs

SEDU	Teachers	
	Total	Female
Jhapa	428	2
Kavre	275	8
Myagdi	162	4
Kailali	192	6
Jumla	162	0
Total	1219	20

No criteria to train female teachers was adopted during the training program and most of the contacts to the teachers were made either by DEO office or directly by the SMTs. The training program was arranged for Science, Mathematics and English teachers and female teachers taking up these subjects are very few in the country

## 2.3 Economy & Employment

### Work Pattern

Women constitute half of the labour force yet most of their work is not considered as economic activity. In 1991 census only 48.1 percent of rural women as compared to 69.8 percent of men are reported as economically active (Table 2.27). For both sexes participation rates are lower at the entry and sit points of productive career. For both sexes, participation rate is higher at ages 35-39 which taper off their after. It is imperative of the fact that a large portion of women's work is still unreported and unrecognized. The status of women study (1981) reported that in rural areas women and girl together contribute more than 53 percent of the total household income. Most recent studies (Ojha, 1989, MOA 1994, Stri Shakti 1995) also reconfirmed the the findings reported in status of women report. However, there is no consistency in reporting the real contribution of women to total national economy. A more recent study reported that productive work participation rate for women is 66 percent while the corresponding figure for men is 75 percent (CBS, 1997). A much higher participation rate is reported by another study undertaken by Ministry of Health (MOH, 1997c).

Table 2.27: Economic Participation Rates by Sex and Age Group

Age Group	1981		1991	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
10-14	61.3	51.9	18.1	28.0
15-19	69.2	51.3	49.2	49.0
20-24	86.3	47.6	80.0	54.1
25-29	93.4	44.9	92.3	53.9
30-34	95.3	43.3	95.3	53.8
35-39	95.8	44.1	95.9	54.5
40-44	96.0	44.1	95.5	54.1
45-49	96.4	44.7	94.7	52.1
50-54	94.3	44.9	91.7	48.0
55-59	92.2	43.3	88.2	41.5
60-64	83.3	39.9	66.2	25.4
65+	68.7	35.0	40.0	12.8
All Ages	83.2	46.2	68.2	45.2
Urban	74.9	31.5	59.4	20.3
Rural	83.8	47.2	69.8	48.1

Source: Population Monograph, CBS, 1995

## Women and Productive Work by Sector

The major sector generating employment still seems to be the primary sectors of economy for both male and female. Accordingly, a large percentage (86%) of rural population is engaged in agriculture and farming activities. The percentage of female population engaged in agricultural pursuit is higher (93%) compared to the males (80%). Women's employment in other sectors of the economy is much lower (7%) than for men (14%). However, there is much more diversity of sectoral employment in urban area. In urban area, 38% of women are employed in agriculture. Personal and community services employ almost one third of female labour force in urban area (Table 2.28)

Table 2.28: Percentage Distribution of the Employment Population (Aged 10+ Years) by Major Industries for Rural and Urban Areas, Nepal, 1991.

Major Industry	Rural			Urban		
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing	85.54	80.37	92.79	24.07	19.67	38.12
Mining and Quarrying	0.02	0.03	0.01	0.13	0.13	0.12
Manufacturing	1.51	2.05	0.76	9.12	8.72	10.39
Electricity, Gas and Water	0.10	0.17	0.01	0.93	1.11	0.38
Construction	0.36	0.54	0.10	2.16	2.57	0.82
Commerce	2.29	2.86	1.50	19.34	20.81	14.67
Transport and Communication	0.46	0.75	0.04	3.84	4.83	0.65
Finance and Business services	0.14	0.22	0.02	2.21	2.36	1.75
Personal and Community services	8.41	11.40	4.23	34.54	35.80	30.57
Others	0.36	0.58	0.05	0.63	0.72	0.33
Industry not stated	0.80	1.03	0.48	3.04	3.29	2.25
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

Sources: CBS, 1993, Vol. I, Part XI, Table 39  
CBS, 1994, Vol. II, Table 15

Despite diversity in urban employment agriculture still provides employment to one-fourth of urban population including 38 percent for women and 20 percent for men. Personal and community service sector is the largest employer in urban area in which almost 31 percent of women and 36 percent of men are employed. This is due to slow industrial growth and less opportunity in the secondary employment sectors. This pattern has not changed overtime though a marginal increase is shown from 1971 to 1991 in the secondary and tertiary sectors (Table 2.29).



Women's labour participation in secondary sectors in the urban areas shows almost a parity with that of men in 1991. This is due to the growing carpet and garment industries in urban areas which require more female work force. An increasing trend of women & decreasing trend of men in the labour force in the secondary sector over the years is due to this reason (Table 2.29).

Table 2.29: Percentage Distribution of the Employed Population (Aged 10+ years) by Major Industrial Sectors and Sex for Rural and Urban Areas, Nepal, 1971-1991.

Industrial Sectors	1971			1981			1991		
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female
<b>RURAL</b>									
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Primary <sup>1</sup>	96.26	95.21	98.75	92.74	90.82	96.30	85.54	80.37	92.69
Secondary <sup>2</sup>	0.84	1.03	0.38	0.33	0.42	0.16	1.90	2.62	0.87
Tertiary <sup>3</sup>	2.89	3.75	0.86	5.14	6.72	2.20	11.40	15.39	5.81
Others	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.36	0.58	0.05
Not Stated	-	-	-	1.78	2.02	1.34	0.80	1.03	0.48
<b>URBAN</b>									
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Primary <sup>1</sup>	32.83	29.53	54.81	63.96	57.00	83.39	24.07	19.67	30.12
Secondary <sup>2</sup>	12.03	12.78	7.02	3.81	4.54	1.75	11.40	11.42	11.43
Tertiary <sup>3</sup>	55.13	57.68	38.16	29.09	34.74	13.33	60.86	64.90	47.96
Others	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.63	0.72	0.33
Not Stated	-	-	-	3.12	3.70	1.51	3.04	3.29	2.25

Source: CBS, 1975, Vol. III, Part I, Table 21 and Vol. V, Table 45

CBS, 1984, Vol. I, Part V, Table 24 and Vol. III, Table 21

CBS, 1993, Vol. I, Part XIII, Table 52

CBS, 1994, Vol II, Table 15.

- 1 Primary sector includes agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing
- 2 Secondary sector includes mining, quarrying, manufacturing and construction
- 3 Tertiary sector includes electricity, gas, water, transport, communication and other services.

Even though women constitute a substantive workforce they have not been able to absorb the job market due to illiteracy and low level of education. Due to less chance of getting employment in the formal public sectors women are found engaged in private sectors .

Employment status of the rural population shows that own account workers or (self-employed) account for almost 78 percent of population of which 72.5 percent is for males and 85.2 percent for females. About 11 percent of females are employees in rural area while only 0.4 percent hold the status of employer. Corresponding figures for males 18.25 percent and 0.7 percent respectively. In urban area, own account workers constitute almost half of women work

force followed by employees (46%). Corresponding figures for male in urban area are 39 percent and 58 percent respectively.

Table 2.30: Percentage Distribution of the Employed Population (Aged 10+ years) by Employment Status and Sex for Rural and Urban Areas, Nepal 1971-1991.

Employment Status	1971			1981			1991		
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female
<b>RURAL</b>									
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Employees	8.02	10.05	3.21	8.07	10.55	3.49	18.88	24.86	10.50
Employers	0.44	0.54	0.20	0.68	0.86	0.36	0.53	0.66	0.35
Own Account Workers	87.21	86.27	89.41	87.21	84.56	90.19	77.80	72.54	85.17
Unpaid Family workers	4.33	3.13	7.17	2.60	1.77	4.14	2.39	1.55	3.55
Unspecified	-	-	-	2.10	2.25	1.81	0.41	0.40	0.43
<b>URBAN</b>									
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Employees	52.38	54.78	36.53	26.02	31.16	11.65	54.93	57.83	45.68
Employers	0.84	0.86	0.74	0.71	0.81	0.41	1.07	1.17	0.75
Own Account Workers	43.94	42.10	56.17	68.57	62.83	84.59	41.43	38.87	49.60
Unpaid Family workers	2.84	2.26	6.74	1.15	1.09	1.38	1.72	1.29	1.08
Unspecified	-	-	-	3.55	4.11	1.97	0.85	0.84	0.88

Source: CBS, 1975, Vol. III, Part II, Table 25 and Vol. V, Table 45  
CBS, 1984, Vol. I, Part V, Table 25 and Vol. III, Table 22  
CBS, 1994, Vol. II, Table 16

## Employment Status and Under-Employment

Unemployment and under-employment has increased since 1981. Lack of job opportunities in non-agricultural sector and absence of household employment programmes has caused female unemployment. Studies and surveys show that the problem of under-employment is more serious among women than men. A survey of income employment and consumption pattern conducted by the National Planning Commission in 1977 found that unemployment rate as percentage of the labour force was 5.6 percent, including 5.3 percent for males 6.0 percent for females (NPC, 1978). Unemployment rate was slightly higher at 5.9 percent in urban area compared to 5.57 in rural areas. According to a more recent study 90.8 percent of the labour force is employed which constitute 82 percent of the population. Unemployment rate is 9.2 percent of the labour force and 8.3 percent of the total population (CDPS, 1997).

Employment rate is higher in urban area (17.1) compared to 8.2 percent in rural area, giving a national unemployment of 10.7 percent. Underemployment (employed for less than 36 hours a week) was estimated at 26 percent which includes 25.5 for males and 26.5 for females. Underemployment is the same for both sexes in rural area. But underemployment in urban area is as high as 28.3 percent. This includes 34 percent for females and 22.4 percent for males indicating that urban underemployment is a serious problem in the country.

## Wage Rate

Discrimination against women in job opportunities and wage rates is a common pattern in both the rural and urban areas (Table 2.31). The male female wage ratio has increased from 1981. The wage ratio in urban areas was 66.6 in 1981 which reached to 75.0 in 1991. In rural areas it was 88.6 and reached 86.8 in 1991 which shows a slight decline (Acharya 1997). Women are paid low at all level of work than men, this situation has not improved over time. In recent years wage rates seem to have declined for both males and females which also is indicate of increase in poverty levels.

Table 2.31: Male/Female Real Wage Rates at 1987/88 Prices

Year	Hills (Kathmandu)				East Terai (Biratnagar)				West Terai (Nepalgunj)			
	Agriculture		Construction		Agriculture		Construction		Agriculture		Construction	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
190/91	40.0	31.0	39.9	34.1	25.6	22.8	27.6	24.8	29.5	25.6	29.5	27.6
1991/92	36.0	27.0	35.9	31.5	24.2	21.0	27.4	24.2	25.2	21.0	24.8	22.6
1992/93	38.0	24.0	37.5	33.5	25.3	22.3	28.3	25.3	23.2	19.3	25.3	22.3

Source: Nepal Rastra Bank

Data collected by the Central Department of Population studies on employment shows that 7 percent of women are employed in paid jobs, 30 percent in various income earning activities while a large chunk of women (63%) are involved as unpaid family worker (CDPS, 1997). This Partly explains their low socio-economic status in the society. See table 2.32 for more details.

Table 2.32: Distribution of Employment by Type, Region and Gender

Employment Status	Paid Job	Income Earning	Unpaid Work
<b>All Nepal</b>	<b>19.6</b>	<b>36.8</b>	<b>43.7</b>
Male	32.1	44.0	23.9
Female	7.3	29.8	63.0
<b>Mountain</b>	<b>15.1</b>	<b>52.0</b>	<b>32.9</b>
Male	23.9	52.9	23.1
Female	6.6	51.1	42.3
<b>Hills</b>	<b>17.6</b>	<b>43.3</b>	<b>42.3</b>
Male	29.6	47.4	23.0
Female	5.9	39.3	54.7
<b>Tarai</b>	<b>22.3</b>	<b>27.8</b>	<b>49.9</b>
Male	35.9	39.2	24.8
Female	8.8	16.6	74.6
<b>Rural</b>	<b>18.7</b>	<b>38.0</b>	<b>43.3</b>
Male	30.6	44.9	24.4
Female	6.9	31.2	61.9
<b>Urban</b>	<b>28.2</b>	<b>24.2</b>	<b>47.5</b>
Male	46.4	34.3	19.2
Female	11.1	14.7	74.2

Source: CDPS 1997. Cited from HRD 1998

Underemployment is a glaring problem in the case of women than men in the sense that they work longer hours in a poor working condition without compensation or insurance. Lack of private property and control over productive resources or land property has barred women to access credit for productive works. The CBS (1997a) and NLSS report show that only 4 percent women against 11 percent men are engaged in self-employment outside agriculture, 81 percent women are still confined to self-employment in agricultural sector. This is the low production and high labour intensive area-keeping women away from productive economic activities. A study conducted by Stri Shakti (1995) reports that rural women's work load has increased from 1981. Their time is more consumed in conventional economic activities (agriculture, livestock raising, manufacturing for home use, wage/salary work) and in domestic activities (cooking/servicing, washing, cleaning, child care etc.). Table 2.33 shows trends in time use patterns for both sexes.

Table 2.33: shows that both men and women in rural area work more hours than in urban area. This table shows that work burden for women is about 11 hours in rural areas compared to 7.5 hours for men. In urban area, women work burden is 4.7 hours compared to 3.2 hours for men.

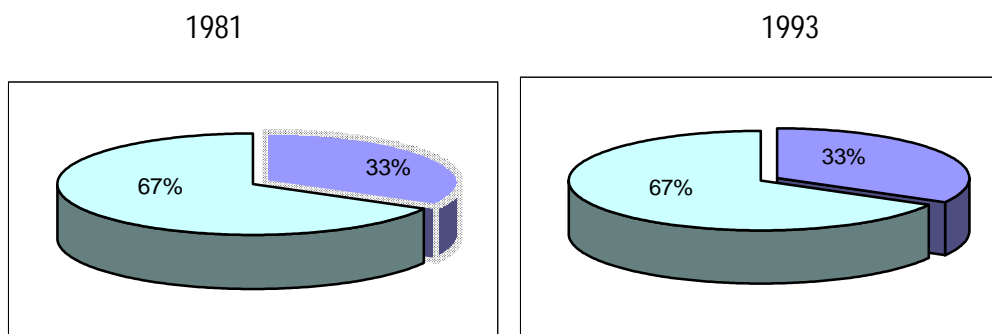
Table 2.33: Male/Female Time Use Patterns (Comparative Figures 1981/1993)

	Activities/Sites	Rural				Urban			
		1981		1993		1981		1993	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1.	CONVENTIONAL ECONOMY								
	Animal Husbandry	1.43	0.97	1.76	1.07	1.78	1.18	1.37	1.01
	Agriculture	2.72	2.74	2.54	2.54	0.70	1.12	0.48	0.56
	Manufacture	0.42	0.45	0.48	0.48	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.15
	Outside Earnings (wage, salary, business, tea shop etc.)	1.24	0.46	0.69	0.69	0.17	0.24	0.02	0.18
	Sub total for 1	5.81	4.62	5.77	4.78	2.70	3.22	1.91	1.90
2.	EXPANDED ECONOMY								
	Hunting+Gathering	0.17	0.05	0.11	0.07	0.05	0.03	0.05	0.06
	Fuel Collection	0.24	0.38	0.10	0.21	0.11	0.28	0.01	0.09
	Water Collection	0.07	0.67	0.06	0.26	0.17	0.46	0.12	0.20
	Construction	0.25	0.08	0.30	0.11	0.05	0.04	0.02	-
	Food Processing	0.18	0.97	0.28	1.04	0.09	0.20	0.15	0.22
	Sub-total for 2	0.91	2.15	0.85	1.69	0.47	1.01	0.35	0.57
3	DOMESTIC ACTIVITIES								
	Cooking/Serving	0.27	2.05	0.30	1.93	0.09	0.35	0.19	0.45
	Cleaning Dishes	0.03	0.39	0.01	0.41	0.02	0.15	0.03	0.25
	Cleaning House	0.03	0.46	0.03	0.26	0.03	0.14	0.02	0.12
	Laundry	0.02	0.15	0.01	0.17	0.01	0.05	-	0.09
	Shopping	0.24	0.17	0.20	0.16	0.04	0.06	0.08	0.07
	Other Domestic Activities	0.04	0.13	0.21	0.19	0.04	0.04	0.02	0.05
	Child Care	0.16	0.69	0.46	1.35	0.18	0.34	0.57	1.22
	Sub-total 3	0.79	4.04	1.22	4.47	0.41	1.13	0.91	2.25
	<b>I sub total for work burden</b>	<b>7.51</b>	<b>10.81</b>	<b>7.84</b>	<b>10.94</b>	<b>3.58</b>	<b>5.36</b>	<b>3.17</b>	<b>4.72</b>
4.	EDUCATION	0.43	0.10	0.52	0.28	1.34	0.48	4.36	3.28
5.	PERSONAL MAINTENANCE	1.45	1.12	1.50	1.38	1.38	1.39	1.25	1.41
6.	SOCIAL ACTIVITIES	0.31	0.16	0.48	0.49	0.11	0.16	0.22	0.34
7.	LEISURE	6.30	3.81	4.95	2.73	9.59	8.61	6.08	5.56
	II Sub-total (4+5+6+7)	8.49	5.19	7.45	4.88	12.42	10.64	11.91	10.59
	III Grand Total (I+II)	16.00	16.00	15.29	15.82	16.00	16.00	15.08	15.31

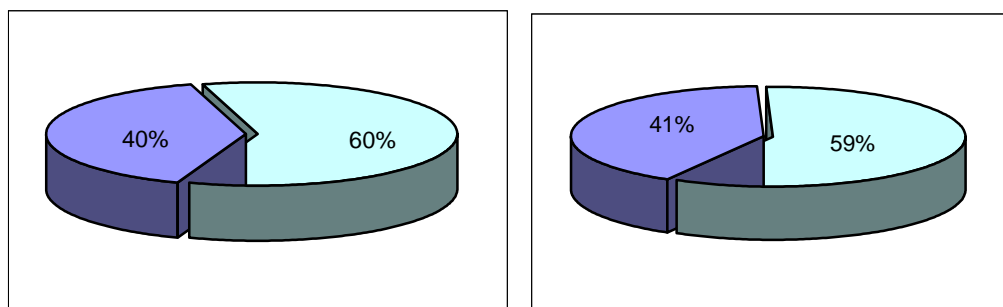
Source: Women Development Democracy, Stri Shakti 1995.

## Male/Female Participation in the Three Sphere of Subsistence Economy (Rural Sites)

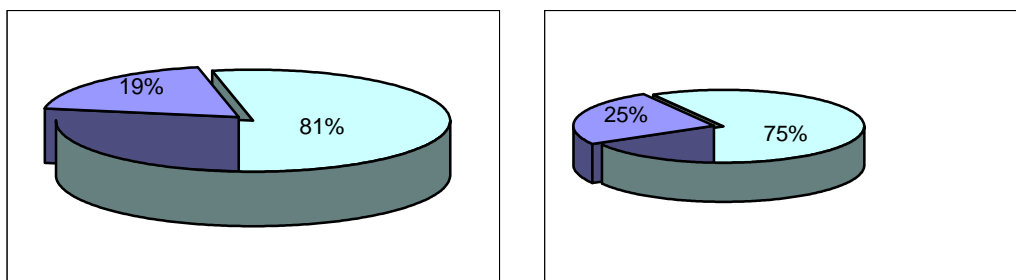
### I. The Family Farm Economy



### II. The local Market Economy



### III. Short Term Migration



Source: Women Development Democracy, Stri Shakti 1995.

Female

Male

## Trends in Women's Participation in Labour Force

Various reports show that women contribute a substantive portion of labour force. Women's share in total labor force of the country was 45.5 percent in 1991 a slight decline from 1981 which was 46.2 and yet the surveys show a lower rate of women's participation in economic activities compared to men. Women's economic participation has even declined in 1991 than 1981.

This shows that the major bulk of women's work in the household and agricultural sectors has not been counted as economic activity due to the dearth of gender sensitive data (Hamid 1994).

Not only in rural area but also in urban area economic participation of women has declined from 1981 to 1991 (31.5 to 20.3%). Similarly their labour force participation has fallen down from 26.4% in 1981 to 23.8% in 1991. This trend shows a negative effect of urbanization on women (Acharya 1997).

Table 2.33: Selected Economic Indicators on Women's Participation Rates

(Percent) <sup>1/</sup>

S.N	Indicators	Urban		Rural		Overall	
		1981	1991	1981	1991	1981	1991
1.	Economic Activity Rate	31.5	20.3	47.2	48.1	46.2	45.5
2.	Women in the Total Labour Force	26.4	23.8	35.1	41.6	34.6	40.4
3.	Women in Agriculture	34.4	37.8	36.4	45.2	36.4	45.0
4.	Women in Non-Agricultural Sector	12.2	19.5	17.9	20.7	16.6	20.2
5.	Women in Manufacturing	12.5	27.3	16.5	20.9	14.9	22.9
6.	Female/Male Agricultural Wage Ratio <sup>2/</sup>	66.6	75.0	88.6	86.8	-	-

Source: Population Census of Nepal, Various Tables. Cited from UNFPA

<sup>1/</sup> These figures indicate proportion of women in the total economically active percent to population engaged in respective sectors

<sup>2/</sup> Kathmandu for Urban and Nepalgunj for Rural because Nepalgunj is largely dependent on agriculture. The source for this indicators is Acharya, 1994

Acharya (1997), wrote that despite higher literacy and educational levels in urban areas, urbanization is causing women to withdraw from labour force which is indicative of a reverse relationship between urbanization, education and female employment. This might be due to the

fact that the traditional social values against women has not changed over time with the development of education economy and the has not been able to create conducive employment opportunities for women.. A large portion of women are still working at home as unpaid workers and most of them do not get time to work outside home. Their family members (husband, brothers or guardians) in some cases also do not approve to work outside (See annex....).

The increase female labour force participation rate in manufacturing and service sectors is due to the growing carpet industries that have drawn women in the urban areas to seek jobs. A large number of young women below the age of 22 are working in carpet industries in Kathmandu. These young women due to illiteracy and poorly are prone to get less wage and are cheated by the employers (Thacker, 1992). Industrialization and import of goods also put a negative impact on home based industries where women were playing a supreme role as manager and entrepreneurs. Women in the industrial sector work as unskilled labour and are in disadvantaged position vis-à-vis their male counterparts and become the victim of hiring & firing (Rana & Shah, 1987). In textile and carpet industries men are mostly employed as skilled labourer and permanent workers whereas women mostly work in temporary or wage basis. They are thus prohibited from regular salary and other benefits (Acharya, 1994 a). This situation makes them over worked fatigued and vulnerable to labour retrenchment.

Poverty, landlessness and less job opportunity and rigorous work in agricultural sectors have pushed women in the manufacturing jobs in urban areas. A survey (Basnet 1992) observed that almost 71 percent of the women worked in textile industries due to poverty of which 52 percent of them were illiterate and 29 percent had no other bread winner in the household. More than 60 percent of these women were between the age of 20 to 34 years and about 12 percent of them were child labourers.

### **General Activities**

Table 2.34 shows that most of the activities are gendered. Women are exclusively responsible for cooking, processing, transplanting, washing and doing household chores. Ploughing is exclusively done by men.



Except ploughing women do all the operations required for growing food grains and vegetables. They are also responsible for rearing livestock. Most of the agricultural activities eg. hoeing, sowing, weeding, transplanting, reaping, manuring, processing, preserving and preparing food are done by women. They are also engaged in fruit cultivation, animal husbandry, home based cottage industry and disposal of their outputs at fairs and markets.

A total of 84 percent of food processing activities are undertaken by women and also are primarily responsible for food selection, storage, application of fertilizer and vegetable gardening (UNESCO, 1982). A detail agricultural work pattern of Nepali men and women of a mid hill village of western Nepal is given by Schroeders and Schroeders (1978). The work mostly done by men are paid more than the work mostly done by women, while the work done by women requires intensive work. Field data on cost of rice production in selected places in terai show that the entire production process from land preparation to harvesting, about 87-93% of labour involved is spent on planting, weeding and harvesting which is mostly done by women (Schroeders and Schroeders, 1978).

Table 2.34: Agricultural Tasks by Sex

	Only by men	Either Sex	Only by women
1. Ploughing	x		
2. Sowing Grain	x		
3. Transporting Seedlings	x		
4. Irrigating Plants	x		
5. Making Rope	x		
6. Threshing Grain	x		
7. Smashing Clods		x	
8. Raising Goats and chicken		x	
9. Harvesting and Hauling Rice		x	
10. Growing Vegetables			x
11. Shucking Corn			x
12. Planting Seeds			x
13. Transplanting Rice, Millet			x
14. Weeding			x
15. Hauling and Spreading Manure			x
16. Harvesting Corn and Millet			x
17. Hauling Corn and Millet			x

Source: Schroeder and Schroeder 1978 (note: it is still the same even today)

## Child Labour

Child labour is pervasive in Nepalese society. It exists at all levels: the household, the community, and the society at large. It is prevalent in both types of work: domestic work and non-domestic work; formal and informal sectors. And within the formal sectors it exists in all the sectors of the economy: agriculture, manufacturing, services, transport and communication. This section draws upon the Because of the specific nature of the non-conventional studies, a large number of studies are localized and do not provide national dimensions. Nevertheless, they help to gauge the extent underpinning the child labour issues in the country.

### Child Population in the Country: Levels and Trends

For the purpose of this study, population aged 5-14 years is defined as child population. Child population in the country as estimated by the 1991 census is 5113,419 that is almost 28 percent of the total population in 1991. Population projection made by the Ministry of the Population and Environment (MOPE) estimates the child population at 5360,656 in 1996 which is 25.7 percent of the total population estimated for that year.

Table 4.35: Child Population in Nepal, 1971-96

Year	Population-Nepal	Child Population 5-14 Years	
		Population	% to Nepal
1971	11,555,983	3,040,468	26.3
1981	15,022,839	3,897,467	25.9
1991	18,491,097	5,133,419	27.8
1996	20,831,644	5,360,656	25.7

Sources: Central Bureau of Statistics, 1975. Population Census, 1971, Part 1.

" 1984. " , 1981, Vol. II.

" 1991. " , 1991, Vol. 1, Part II.

Ministry of Population and Environment, 1998, Vol.1, Medium Variant.

### Age and Sex Composition of Child Population

Table 2.36 shows age and sex composition of child population in the country. The share of population aged 5-9 to child population is 52 percent and to the total population of the country is 15.2 percent. Corresponding share of the population aged 10-14 is 48 percent and 12.6 percent respectively. Of the total child population in 1991, 51.4 percent is male and 48.6 percent is female.

Population aged 5-9, is made up 51 percent males and 49 percent females. The corresponding figure for the population aged 10-14 is 52 percent for male and 48 percent for female.

Table 2.36: Age-Sex Distribution of Child Population, 1991, 1996

Sex	Total		5-9		10-14	
	Number	(%)	Number	(%)	Number	(%)
Male	2640,068	(51.4)	1430,265	(51.0)	1209,803	(52.0)
Female	2493,351	(48.6)	1375,868	(49.0)	1117,483	(48.0)
Total	5133,419	(100.0)	2806,133	(100.0)	2327,286	(100.0)
Sex Ratio (M/F*100)	105		103		108	

Source: As in Table 10.

### Economic Activity Participation Rate: Levels and Trends

Children perform a variety of tasks in the society. Censuses in Nepal have been collecting data on economic activities of population aged 10 years and above. Although there are problems in the census definitions of economic activity in successive censuses, Table 2.37 shows significant decline in the economic activity of children whatsoever the definition was employed. The overall economic activity rate for child population in 1971 was almost 51 percent (59% for males and 40% for females) which increased to 57 percent in 1981 (including 61 percent for males and 52 percent for females) and then declined to 23 percent in 1991. The decline is more marked for males which declined from 61 percent to 18 percent than for females (which declined from 52 percent to almost 29 percent). While some of the decline could be attributed to the increased emphasis placed on schooling of the children, definitional problems may also be responsible for sudden jump in the economic participation of the population. A decline in male child's participation rate than the female is suggestive of the selectivity in favor of the male child against the female child. During the period under review, more male children were withdrawn from economic activities than is the case for female children.

Table 2.37: Activity Rates for Population aged 10-14 by Census years, 1971-91

Census Years	Age Specific Activity Rates		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female
1971	50.5	59.2	40.1
1981	56.9	61.3	51.9
1991	23.3	18.4	28.5

Source: Population Monograph of Nepal, Central Bureau of Statistics, 1995.

## How Many Children Work

Almost one-third of Nepal's population is estimated to be child population aged (5-14). In absolute terms, the number of children in the country for the year 1996 stood at 6225 thousands of which 3202 is male (51.4%) and 3,024 is female (48.6%). Of the total children in the country, working children constituted 41.7 percent (including 36% for males and 48% for females). Some other studies estimate child labour is as high as 71 percent in the country (CWDC/NPC, 1997).

Table 2.38 below summarizes the major sub-national distribution of working children in Nepal as estimated by the CDPS/ILO-IPEC study.

Table 2.38: Estimates of the working children aged 5-14 years who worked most of the year and work participation rate by background characteristics

Background Characteristics	Total Children			% of Working Children		
	Both	Male	Female	Both	Male	Female
Nepal	6225	3202	3024	41.7	36.1	47.6
<b>Age</b>						
5-9	3403	1734	1668	24.8	20.3	29.5
10-14	2823	1467	1355	58.3	51.5	65.9
<b>Residence</b>						
Urban	520	272	248	23.0	17.2	29.4
Rural	5705	2929	2776	43.4	37.9	49.2
<b>Ecological Zones</b>						
Mountain	462	235	227	52.2	45.7	58.9
Hill	2824	1432	1392	45.4	41.5	49.6
Terai	2939	1534	1405	36.3	29.2	43.9
<b>Development Regions</b>						
Eastern	1506	772	735	45.9	40.5	51.7
Central	2020	1056	964	36.8	33.1	45.2
Western	1293	659	634	33.2	29.5	37.3
Mid-Western	826	418	408	50.4	44.2	56.6
Far Western	580	297	283	48.7	40.6	57.1
<b>Education of Household Head</b>						
Illiterate	3038	1555	1483	44.8	38.9	51.0
Primary	1867	952	915	42.7	37.5	48.2
Secondary	795	414	380	35.9	30.3	42.0
Secondary +	514	273	241	28.8	34.3	33.9
<b>Main Occupation of HH head</b>						
Agriculture	3817	1951	1867	45.2	39.6	51.2
Others	1627	856	770	36.3	30.6	42.6
<b>Family Size<sup>36.4</sup></b>						
1-2	19	11	5	63.9	67.4	58.6
3-4	603	352	250	42.1	36.4	50.1
5-6	2180	1162	1015	43.1	37.8	49.0
7-8	1762	861	901	43.6	37.6	49.2
9+	1662	813	849	37.6	31.5	43.4
<b>Size of Landholding</b>						
Landless	1065	559	506	33.7	26.7	41.5
Small	261	141	119	43.2	36.7	51.0
Medium	1416	722	694	43.3	37.8	49.0
Large	3469	1774	1695	43.4	38.3	48.6
<b>Current School Attendance</b>						
Attending	4060	2349	1708	39.1	36.3	42.8
Not Attending	1993	768	1228	50.4	39.2	57.4
Total Population, in '000	6225	3202	3024	2596	1156	1439

Source: Child Labour Situation Analysis (Report from Migration and Employment Survey, 1995/96). ILO-IPEC, CDPS, 1998.

### Major highlights of CDPS/ILO-IPEC findings are:

- ◆ One in three people living in Nepal are children. Estimated child population aged (5-14) is 29.1 percent of the total population of Nepal. Of the total child population, 51.4 percent is male and 48.6 percent female. This translates into a sex ratio of 105 males for 100 females.
- ◆ There are 2.6 million working children in Nepal. This constitutes 41.7 percent of the child population in the country.
- ◆ One in four child aged 5-9 is involved in work (20% for male and 29.5% for female). Six out of 10 children aged 10-14 are involved in work (58.3% including 51.5% for males and 65.9% for females).
- ◆ More female children work than males. Work participation rate for male child is 36.1 percent compared to the 47.6 percent of the female child. This translates into for every 80 working male children there are 100 female working children in the country.
- ◆ Size of the household is negatively associated with work participation of children. The lower the family sizes the higher the participation rate. For example, work participation rate is highest (64%) for children living in small households (1-2 members) compared to 38 percent of children with more than 9 members in the household.
- ◆ Children in the mountain region work more than children living elsewhere. Work participation for children in the terai is lowest.
- ◆ Work participation of the children of either sexes decrease with increases in the educational level of household head.
- ◆ More than 90 percent of working children live in rural areas and more rural children work than their counterparts in urban area.

- ◆ Of the total-working children in the country, 1 million are working alone (not attending school). This constitutes about 17.2 of the total population in rural area. In urban area, working only children is low: only 4.5 percent of total urban children work only.
- ◆ About 18% of children in urban area and 26 percent of children in rural area are working and attending school.
- ◆ Forty percent of the economically active children do not attend school.
- ◆ About two-third of the working children belong to households whose head is involved in agricultural pursuits/occupation.
- ◆ There is little variation between children's work participation and size of land holding: across all categories of the landholdings, children work and the rate does not vary.
- ◆ In general, those in school work less than those not attending school.

### **How Many of Working Children Attend School**

- ◆ Almost Four out of ten working children do not attend school. They are 'working' only. Girls outnumber boys in this category. Half of the working girls do not attend school. Comparative figure for boys is almost half of the girls.
- ◆ Across the background characteristics, the percentages of working and schooling are higher for boys than the girls. This is because, half of the working girls are not in school.
- ◆ In urban areas working children attend school more than in rural areas.
- ◆ Work burden of working only female child is considerably higher in small sized households and illiterate households. This also holds true in mid-western and Far Western development region.
- ◆ More girl child aged 5-9 work only. Compared to girl child aged 10-14 (45.9%), a considerable higher percentages of girl child aged 5-9 work only (55.9%).
- ◆ Work and study is more pre-dominant in the urban area than the rural area. It is also more of a common feature in the hill ecological region than the mountains and the terai.

- ◆ Across the development region, work and study pattern is more common in the western region than any other regions in the country. More than 75 percent of children work and study in this region.
- ◆ Work and study and education of the household head is positively correlated. An increase in the educational attainment of the household also increases the percentages of children working and studying. Almost 90 percent of children from work and study in a household whose head has attained SLC and above education compared to 48 percent of household whose head is illiterate.
- ◆ More children from the non-agricultural household occupation tend to work and study than the children from agricultural households.

## 2.4 Legal Rights And Political Participation

### Legal rights

The Nepalese constitution states that there will be no discrimination of any kind on the ground of sex, caste, religion and race. Yet there are certain national codes which privilege men. The right to inheritance to property, marriage and divorce, tenancy and transaction rights still favour men. The social and human aspects also do not seem congenial for women as there still remain certain clauses in public law (Mulki Ain) that put women in a vulnerable position. They are:

### Law and Women: according to the Muluki Ain (Public Law), 1962

- i. Inheritance of property and its succession
  - ◆ According to the Mulki Ain (Public Law), under the heading of Partition of Property, section 1, a daughter is debarred from her share of parental property, whereas property right is the birthright of son.
  - ◆ Section 16 of the chapter on the partition of property grants a daughter the right to parental property if she remains unmarried until the age of 35. The law is silent on how a 35 year-old unmarried daughter can claim her rightful share of property, if it has already been partitioned among the brothers by then.
  - ◆ The same section dictates that if the daughter marries after inheriting the parental property, she has to relinquish the property after deduction 10% for marriage cost.

- ◆ Section 2 of the chapter on female property states that an unmarried daughter, having obtained her share of parental property, can dispose of only 50% of her immovable property on will and disposal of the remaining 50% requires the consent of the male guardian.
- ◆ Section 10 of the chapter on the partition of property does not make it mandatory for the fathers to maintain their daughter's upkeep or give a share of property as specified for the wife and sons if the husband or father fails to provide food and shelter.
- ◆ Section 5 of the chapter on Women's Property grants a daughter the right to her mother's exclusive property (*daijo, pewa*) at her death only if her father and brother are not alive.
- ◆ Section 2 of the chapter on Inheriting Property allows a daughter to inherit the deceased parent's property only when there is no surviving male (son or son's son) of either parent.
- ◆ According to section 10 (a) of the chapter on Partition of Property, a wife is entitled to a share in her husband's property after attaining 35 years of age and completing 15 years of married life. A wife can legally claim a share in the property only if her husband fails to provide food and shelter.

## ii) Divorce and Property Rights

- ◆ Section 1.1 and 1.3 in the chapter on husband/wife dealing with divorce say that a husband is not obliged to provide maintenance to his wife if she has been physical torturing/deserting her husband or if the divorce takes place with the consent of both husband and wife.
- ◆ A husband is granted divorce from an adulterous wife, as absolute fidelity is demanded of a wife to her husband (section 2 in chapter on husband/wife). However, a wife cannot seek divorce from her husband on similar grounds.



### iii) Marriage

- ◆ Section 8 of the chapter on marriage provides for annulment of marriage if the bride untruthfully claims to be a virgin.
- ◆ Section 9 of the chapter on marriage allows a man to marry a second time even if his first wife is living, if she
  - becomes incurably insane;
  - is issue less after 10 years of marriage;
  - turns blind completely;
  - becomes crippled;
  - contracts a sexually transmitted disease that is incurable; and
  - is separated after taking the share of her husband's property.

However, the same rights do not apply to a wife under similar circumstances.

- ◆ Although polygamy is illegal section 10 of the chapter on marriage recognize the second marriage of a man, after a punishment of 1 to 2 months imprisonment and payment of a fine of Rs. 1,000 to 2,000.

### iv) Transaction

Section 9 of chapter on Transaction does not recognize any transaction carried out by a wife without the consent of her husband.

### v) Tenancy Rights

Section 26 (1) of the Land Reform Act 2021 has been amended which grants tenancy rights to an unmarried daughter completing 35 years of age and to the daughter-in-law. However, there is no provision for a married daughter to assert her tenancy rights if her parents have no other issues.

**vi) Army**

Section 10 of the Army Act 2016 bans the recruitment of women into the Royal Nepal Army.

**vii) Citizenship**

- ◆ According to section 6 (2) of Citizenship Act 2020, a woman of foreign nationality is granted Nepali citizenship on marrying a Nepali citizen, provided she gives up her foreign citizenship. However, this provision does not apply to a foreigner marrying a Nepali woman.
- ◆ According to section 3 of the same act, an individual is entitled to Nepali citizenship if her/his father is a Nepali citizen. An individual cannot obtain Nepali citizenship on the basis of mother's citizenship.
- ◆ *Birth, Death and Personal Incident Registration:* The Right to Child Registration is recognized under the name of the male head of the family, and his absence, under that of the eldest male member of the family (according to section 4 (1) of the Birth, Death and Personal Incident Registration Act 2033). The child's mother is barred from this right.

**viii) Adoption**

Section 12 on adoption states that a family with only one son is prohibited from giving him for adoption. In the case of single daughter, her adoption would be legal.

**ix) Abortion**

Abortion is dealt with under the heading of homicide. It is declared illegal and permitted only when performed for the "welfare" of the expectant mother (sec. 28 of chapter on homicide). The "welfare" clause is not clearly defined as referring to

the mother's physical and mental health. Abortion of a 6 month-old foetus carried out with the consent of the mother is punishable by imprisonment of up to 1 year. Section 32 on abortion states that an abortion committed as an act of calculated revenge by any other person is punishable by only 3 months imprisonment. In case of pregnancy of 6 months or more, this imprisonment increase to 6 months.

There exists no provision for abortion in cases of unwanted pregnancies as a result of rape, incest and failure of contraception. As abortion is illegal, it is tantamount to committing infanticide, and the majority of women so charged are liable to life long imprisonment.

**x) Rape**

- ◆ If the rape victim is below 14 years of age, the assaulter is imprisoned for a period of 6-10 years; if the victim is above 14 years, the maximum number of years of imprisonment is 3-5 years (section 3 of chapter on Rape). Section 8 of the same chapter states there shall be no punishment if the victim kills the rapist within one hour of the commitment or attempt of rape. But the victim is liable to a punishment of up to 10 years imprisonment or a fine of Rs. 5,000, if the rapist is killed after the hour.
- ◆ Indulgence in a physical relationship with a prostitute, without her consent, is punishable by a fine of Rs. 500 or imprisonment of up to 1 years.

**xi) Prostitution/Trafficking**

Prostitution /Trafficking is recognised under Nepali law, as there is no punishment in cases where a woman declares that the act took place with her consent.

## xii) Sexual and Other Harassment

- ◆ The chapter that deals within intention to indulge in physical relationship states that if any man touches any part of the body of a woman except his wife, above eleven years of age with mal-intentions, he will be fined Rs. 500 or imprisoned for up to 1 year or both.
- ◆ Section 2 (g) of the Public Offences and Punishment Act, 2027 states that any person found guilty of maltreating or seducing a woman in public is liable to a fine of up to Rs. 10000, along with a claim for compensation.
- ◆ Section (8) of the Defamation Act, 2016 states that any person abusing a woman verbally, or by gesticulation, or encroaches upon her privacy, shall be fined Rs. 100-500, along with an imprisonment of up to 6 months.

There are no legal safeguard against sexual harassment or domestic violence targeted at women. Such cases are also, however, difficult to prove.

Nepal has ratified CEDAW (Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women) in 1991, which reinforces the rights of girls and women to decisively eradicate inequality and discrimination.

Although Nepal ratified CEDAW or amended constitution, the discriminatory practices still exist. More to that many women (even men) are not aware of such laws and hardly practice them when they became victim. A study (Stri Shakti 1995) reports that only 11.4 percent of the total 578 sample rural household were aware of the new constitution (1990), and only 2.8 percent women in rural areas and 23.2 percent women in urban areas knew about the provision of fundamental rights in constitution. More than 80 percent of women in remote rural areas were not informed about the constitutional provisions for their protection. The study also revealed that of the total 678 respondents 41.4 percent of rural women were unaware of the legal provisions regarding divorce and only 68 percent of urban women were aware of such provision.

People follow their own way of conduct as legal provisions are not available easily. Even if they are available it is very costly and out of the reach of poor people. Various ethnic groups in Nepal still follow their own traditional customary laws. Instances have shown that even legal provisions do not guarantee that the decision is made in favor of women when they are not in a position of its disposal. For example women have absolute right on their stridhan (private property/pewa or daijo). But in a case (Singh, S. 1981) on the claim of a divorced women on the house which was purchased by her pewa/daijo, the division bench of the court gave the decision in favour of her husband that as the property was bought before divorce and it should go to her husband as she could not produce strong evidence to support the case. Very recently in the claim of her parental property (Annapurna Rana, 1998) after 35 years of age the question of virginity test was raised by her opponents. Such case are enough to discourage other women to go to court who highly regard moral values and dare to file a case in the court.

Nepal became a signatory of several international conventions after the restoration of democracy in 1990 those which directly concern women apart from CEDAW are:

- Convention of political rights of women
- Convention for suppression of traffic in person and of exploitation or prostitution of others

**All the ILO conventions eg:**

- Weekly rest in industries
- equal pay for equal work for men & women
- no discrimination in employment and profession
- fixation of minimum wage in developing countries
- minimum age for employment

Apart from the above conventions the constitution of Nepal itself guarantees the fundamental rights such as:

- right to equality (article 11)
- right to freedom (article 12)
- right to property (article 17)
- cultural and educational rights (article 18)
- right against exploitation (article 20)

Nepal made the following commitments for the enhancement of women which also reflect the most important articles set out in CEDAW:

In spite of the constitutional rights and ratification in the conventions women are discriminated in all spheres and the government has not taken any strong actions against it. It has not properly implemented the laws in the case of women and all the government mechanism function in patriarchal social values. In a study conducted by Stri Shakti (1997) on the status of women (the following cases) revealed:

- Except the Mustang Thakali community (which is matrilineal) inheritance of property and ownership over most productive resources is still controlled by men. In Maithali Community (Sirsia) and Chhetri Community (Jumla) the self earned property and even daijo/pewa (personal property) are shared during family partition on which women have absolute legal right.
- The legal provision of security accorded in law to women in the case of divorce, remarriage, child marriage and forced marriage do not confirm to those provision in actual practice. There is no improvement in the enforcement of law in any of the above categories but have gone even worst in past 10-12 years. Many cases of informal divorce, separation, forced marriage and child marriage are still prevailing.
- despite the provision of minimum wage and equal pay for equal work discrepancies in wage and child labour still prevail. A large number of young women (age 12-25) who migrate to find employment opportunities face physical and mental exploitation.
- there is an increase in the incidence of rape, trafficking, flesh trade, red light areas and physical violence.

### **Women in Legal Service**

Women are the sufferers of various social, cultural, political and legal discrimination in Nepal. There are very few women working in the legal field. The Supreme Court report of 1994 shows that there are only 251 persons working in this field. Not a single woman has served as the

judge of Supreme Court until present day. Only two women are serving as judge at Court of Appeals. Women also do not own senior advocate position.

Table 2.39: Judges and Legal Practitioners, 1994

Level/Judges & L. practioners	Total	Women	Men
Judge Supreme Court	19	0	19
Judge, Court of Appeals	64	2	62
District Judge	107	1	106
* Senior Advocate	0	0	0
* Advocate	1296	61	1235
* Pleader	753	187	566
* Agent	81	0	81
<b>Total</b>	<b>2320</b>	<b>251</b>	<b>2069</b>

\* Registered within 1 year period only

Source: Compiled from Supreme Court (Register), 1994

The low participation of women in the legal field is due to challenging situation in this field. Those who study law also hardly go to join the job. There are only 4.70 percent women working as advocates. Most of the women who work in this field work for the support of women as pleaders in different courts.

### Political Participation

Women entered into formal politics with men from 1950 with the reshuffle of Rana regime the country. Since then women are involved in both national and local bodies but their participation is very low. The new constitution 1990 has made provision to field at least 5% women in the election of parliament. It also has made provision to nominate 5% of women in the upper house. This quota system has limited the chance of more women to contest election as there is male chauvinism in every political parties.. For example in 1991 general election only 82 women (6.1) contested, of those only 7 (3.4 percent) were elected, and only 3 women were nominated to the upper house.

Table 2.40: Participation of Men and Women in Political Bodies, 1993/94

Levels/Members	Total	Male		Female	
		Number	%	Number	%
House of Representatives	205	197	96.1	8	3.9
<b>District Development Committees</b>					
Chairperson	75	75	100.0	0	0.0
Vice Chairperson	75	74	98.7	1	1.3
Members	924	918	99.4	6	0.6
<b>Village Development Committees</b>					
Chairperson	3993	3982	99.7	11	0.3
Vice Chairperson	3993	3975	99.5	18	0.5
Members	35883	35673	99.4	210	0.6
<b>Municipalities</b>					
Mayor	36	36	100.0	0.	0.0
Deputy Mayor	36	36	100.0	0	0.0
Members	521	519	99.6	2	0.4
Total	45741	45485	99.4	256	0.6

Source: Election Commission Report, 1991. Cited from UNICEF.

In the mid term elections (1994) also only 8 women got elected in the lower house. Only 0.33 percent women candidates got membership in the District Development Committee election. At the local level village and town development committee elections, out of 102, 502 only 956 were women out of that only 241 (0.55%) were elected. From the beginning (interim period) to the present time only one woman is given the charge as a minister. A new ministry, the Ministry of Women and Social Welfare is created in the year 1996 to place the women minister in that particular ministry. This shows marginalization of women even in the high level in their own sphere limiting their capabilities to other areas.

Women's representation in the bureaucracy is also very low. Only one woman so far has served as ambassador before democracy. After 1991 not a single woman is placed at the diplomatic corps.

At the bureaucratic level no woman has placed at the highest level of "Special Class". After the creation of Ministry of Women and Social Welfare one woman was placed as special class secretary in that ministry, who was later promoted to the post of secretary. One woman also was appointed as secretary at the judicial service.



Table 2.41: Proportion of Women in Government Administration (July 1978 and July 1993)

	1978			1993		
	Number		Percent of Women in Total	Number		Percent of Women in Total
	Total	Female		Total	Female	
Gazetted	6,099	197	3.23	11,232	493	4.39
Special	45	-	-	41	-	-
First Class	353	4	1.13	650	16	2.46
Second Class	1,326	33	2.49	3103	139	4.48
Third Class	4,375	160	3.66	7438	338	4.54

Source: Nijamati Kitabkhana, HMG/N, 1993. Cited from UNICEF

At the lower level administrative position there is an increasing trend of women's participation as officers. The number of women increases from 4.2 percent in 1971 to 6.6 percent in 1981 and 9.3 percent in 1991. The overall percentage of female personnel has increased from 8.9 percent in 1978 to 11.7 percent in 1993 in selected government agencies and semi government agencies (UNICEF, 1996). Majority of women are involving at the non-gazetted officers level and getting less chance of promotion due to bureaucratic procedure and favoritism. At present more than 98 thousand men are serving in HMG civil services and only about 8 thousand are women (Radio Nepal, Sept. 20, 1999).

Although women have less participation in politics, bureaucracy and judiciary they have remarkable contribution in decision making process at the household level. Women serve as decision makers in farm management, domestic expenditure (food items, clothes & other expenses), education of children, religious and social travel, disposal of household production and also capital transaction. However, women's decision making roles seen to have declined in recent years (See Table 2.42).

Table 2.42: Women's Decision Making Role in Household

Items/Year	1981	1993
<b>I. Dealing with cash</b>		
Who keeps money	60.8	48.6
Who goes to bazar	53.5	43.7
Clothes & durable	45.3	36.3
Gifts & travel	59.8	37.7
Buy small food items	59.5	43.8
<b>II. Disposal of Product &amp; Transaction</b>		
Disposal of products	55.6	31.4
Land & animals	34.9	16.9
Entrepreneurial	69.5	37.9
Borrowing	39.6	11.9
<b>III. Others</b>		
Agricultural Labour	48.0	32.7
Education	33.7	28.6

Source: Women Development, Democracy P. 132

The Stri Shakti report (1997) explains the causes of this decline to be the diminution of barter system and requirement of monetary transaction . Due to illiteracy and low level of education women seem to be marginalized from their age old household economy (Luitel, 1996) Acharya (1997) provides an explanation of this marginalization to be the increasing commercialization of agriculture and introduction of new technology. The changing pattern of household expenditure in favour of market goods and investment beyond small household industries could be another reason to reduce women's decision making process. The decline may also reflect effects of social change brought about by education, increased awareness and other modernization process and women's refined treatment of what makes a decision (Neidell et al, 1997).

An overwhelming proportion of women are involved in social services in different NGOs and empowering women through various awareness raising programmes. Their major programmes include literacy, income generation, health and sanitation, environment protection and awareness about political and legal rights. Most of these NGOs are targeted towards women to eradicate illiteracy and to raise their economic condition by forming women's groups. These women's groups have helped to establish solidarity among women and be organized in taking actions against social evils (alcoholism, violence against women, girls trafficking and prostitution etc.). Some NGOs are strongly working to bring forth the issue of inheritance properly right to daughter. They have already produced this issue in the cabinet and are waiting to see the decision to come in their favour.

Nepal has the second lowest GEM value in South Asia, but it stands on top level in administrative and (HRD/N Report) category. In the four scale measures (categories) it stands at the lowest position in all categories but one in the world context. If human development is taken into consideration Nepal's Mugu district is compared to Niger which is at the lowest human development measurement. The human development balance sheet compares all aspects of development in Nepalese context on the following way:

Human Advance	Human Distress
<b>Education</b>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ The adult literacy rate increased from 13% to 26% during 1970 to 1993</li> <li>◆ Gross primary enrolment increased to 102%</li> <li>◆ Public expenditure on education increased more than seven times between 1970 and 1993</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ 73% of the adult population is illiterate</li> <li>◆ 2 million children are out of primary school</li> <li>◆ Almost half of the children in primary school drop out before reaching grade 5.</li> </ul>
<b>Health</b>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ The expenditure on health as a percentage of GDP (2.2%) in 1990 was higher than in any other country in the region.</li> <li>◆ Life expectancy increased by 16 years between 1960 and 1993</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ About four-fifths of the total population is deprived of basic sanitation and more than half has no access to potable water.</li> </ul>
<b>Food and Nutrition</b>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Per capita food production increased by 14% between 1980 and 1993</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Two third of all under-five deaths are due to mal-nutrition</li> </ul>
<b>The demographic Balance</b>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ The use of contraceptive among married women increased dramatically by 23 times between 1970 and 1993, from a very low level of 1 % in 1970</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ The population growth rate rose from 2.0% per annum in 1960-70 to 2.6 in 1980-90</li> </ul>
<b>Children</b>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ The infant mortality rate has declined by more than 50% from 190 per 1,000 live births in 1960 to 84 in 1994</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Stunting occurs in two-third of all children in Nepal</li> </ul>
<b>Women</b>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ The earned income share of women in Nepal is 26% one of the highest in the SAARC region.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Nepal is one of the only two countries in the world where males live longer than females</li> <li>◆ The adult female literacy rate is 13% - the lowest in South Asia</li> </ul>
<b>Poverty and Income</b>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Per capita income has more than doubled in the last two decades</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◆ Despite a vigorous growth rate, the current level of per capita income is only \$190, the lowest in the South Asia region.</li> </ul>

## CHAPTER - III ECONOMIC LIBERALIZATION

### 3.1 Macro-economic Situation<sup>1</sup>

Agriculture remains the mainstay of Nepalese economy with almost 90 percent of its population dependent on agriculture which generates more than 41 percent of GDP (Table 1). However, the performance of agriculture is less than satisfactory. Almost three decades ago, a study reported that Nepal is poor and becoming poorer (ILO ARTEP, 1974). Similar views were echoed by several others (Blakie, Cameron and Seddon, 1984). Despite decades of development efforts situation has not changed. During the 1970s, GDP growth averaged at 2.1 percent per annum in contrast to population growth of 2.6 percent per annum. The agricultural sector registered a growth rate of 0.5 percent which resulted into a decline of 2 percent in agricultural income. The real per capita income thus declined to a tune of decline of 0.5 percentage point. During the 1980s, growth rates in both the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors remained higher than the rate of population growth. Therefore, per capita income in the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors grew by 2.3 and 2.9 percent, respectively. During the 1990s, although the growth in per capita income has remained 2.9 percent on average, per capita agricultural income has recorded a decline.

Table 3.1: Composition and Trends of Gross Domestic Product

Sectors	Sectoral Shares		Growth Rates
	1991/92	1996/97	1992-96
GDP at factor cost			4.9
Agriculture, Irrigation and Forestry	44.89	41.02	3
Non-Agriculture	55.11	58.98	6.3
Industry, Mining and Quarrying	8.4	9.22	6.8
Electricity, Gas and Water	0.79	0.8	5.2
Construction	9.53	8.12	3.9
Trade, Hotel and Restaurants	10.65	11.81	7.1
Transport and communication	6.81	8.03	8.4
Real Estate and Dwelling	9.52	9.91	5.7
Social Services	9.42	10.08	6.3
GDP at producer prices			5.1

Source: National Planning Commission (1998), Kathmandu, Nepal.

<sup>1</sup> This section is partially adopted from Acharya and Karki, 1996.

### 3.2 Fiscal and Monetary Developments

Nepal's economy experienced a difficult situation in the early 1980's. Real GDP growth rate during the period fluctuated erratically. In 1982/83 it had dropped by a magnitude of three percent. Fiscal policy was so expansionary that total expenditures exceeded one-fifth of the GDP. Revenues amounted to only around one-twelfth of the GDP. Consequently budget deficit jumped up to over 12 percent of the GDP (in 1982/83). When foreign grant is subtracted from the resources, budget gap amounts to 15.5 percent of the GDP. Development expenditures had gone up so high relative to revenues that share of such expenditures financed by revenue surplus (total revenue less regular expenditure) dropped to below 17 percent. The resultant domestic resources gap spilled over into the external gap. In 1982/83, for the first time, Nepal experienced a shortfall in its foreign exchange reserves amounting to nearly two percent of the GDP. As an outcome of excess liquidity emanating from enlarged budget deficits, current account deficits widened to 6.0 percent of the GDP. The enlarged budget deficit was financed largely by borrowing from the banking system. The outcome was a heavy expansion in narrow money supply (M1), which in 1982/83 had increased by as high as 20.4 percent. Obviously, inflation rate as measured by GDP deflator, jumped up to 12.3 percent in 1982/83 on top of a 9.4 percent increase in 1981/82. In the subsequent two fiscal years 1983/84 and 1984/85, real growth rates rebounded encouragingly and expenditures dropped in proportion to GDP.

The revenue performance did not well respond to increased GDP. As such, budget deficits although declined from 12.3 percent, in both the years it still remained above 10 percent of GDP. Naturally, the pace of expansion of domestic credit persisted due mainly to increased banking sector credit to the government. Largely because of downward shifts in the trade gap to GDP ratio, current account deficits fell in proportion to the GDP. As foreign capital inflows did not offset the amount of current account gap, economy continued to experience the fall in its foreign exchange reserves up to 1984/85. Inflation rate slowed down, but still remained higher in comparison to Nepal's trade partners. Insufficient adjustments in nominal exchange rate resulted in appreciation of the Nepali currency. Thus, it was in this context of budget gap as well as external current account gap accompanied with slower growth and higher inflation rates throughout

the early 1980's Nepal's authorities felt the need for introducing adjustments in its economic policies.

### 3.2: Growth Rates of Selected Variables

Description	1990/91-1997/98
<b>A. Total Expenditure</b>	4.29
a1. Regular	10.19
a2. Development	0.2
<b>B. Sources of Financing</b>	7.95
B1. Revenue	7.88
B2. Foreign Aid (Grants)	8.93
b2.1 Bilateral	8.9
b2.2 Multilateral	7.9
<b>D. Sources of Financing Deficit</b>	-2.07
d1. Foreign Assistance (Loan)	-0.28
d1.1 Bilateral	-19.8
d1.2 Multilateral	3.76
d2. Interanl Loan	-7.8
d2.1 Non-banking Sector	-14.7
d2.2 Banking Sector	2.92

Source: Estimated with the semilogarithmic form:  $\ln y = a+bt$

Table 3.3: Share of Government Expenditure and Financing as a percent of GDP

	1990/91	1991/92	1992/93	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98*
<b>A. Total Expenditure</b>	19.56	17.67	18.02	16.86	17.82	18.70	18.08	19.66
a1. Regular	6.29	6.63	6.70	6.23	8.79	8.66	8.62	9.44
a2. Development	13.28	11.05	11.32	10.63	9.03	10.04	9.46	10.23
<b>B. Sources of Financing</b>	10.71	10.14	11.05	11.03	13.01	13.14	12.96	13.22
B1. Revenue	8.91	9.04	8.83	9.83	11.21	11.21	10.83	11.18
B2. Foreign Aid (Grants)	1.80	1.10	2.21	1.20	1.80	1.94	2.13	2.04
b2.1 Bilateral	1.57	0.84	1.65	1.03	1.49	1.23	1.84	1.76
b2.2 Multilateral	0.23	0.26	0.56	0.18	0.30	0.70	0.29	0.28
<b>C. Revenue Surplus(+), Deficit(-)</b>	-8.85	-7.53	-6.97	-5.83	-4.81	-5.55	-5.12	-6.45
<b>D. Sources of Financing Deficit</b>	8.85	7.53	6.97	5.83	4.81	5.55	5.12	6.45
d1. Foreign Assistance (Loan)	5.20	4.56	4.04	4.60	3.34	3.80	3.22	4.32
d1.1 Bilateral	1.33	1.60	0.76	0.29	0.33	0.18	0.30	0.46
d1.2 Multilateral	3.87	2.96	3.27	4.31	3.01	3.62	2.92	3.87
d2. Interanl Loan	3.78	1.39	0.94	0.91	0.87	0.88	1.07	1.16
d2.1 Non-banking Sector	3.08	0.79	0.54	0.50	0.59	0.30	0.53	0.55
d2.2 Banking Sector	0.70	0.60	0.41	0.41	0.27	0.58	0.53	0.61
d3. Changes in Cash Reserves (-surplus)	-0.13	1.58	1.99	0.32	0.61	0.87	0.83	0.97

Source: Calculated from HMG(1998), Economic Survey, Kathmandu, Nepal.

### **3.3 Economic Reforms in Nepal**

#### **3.3.1. Macro-economic Reforms**

To counter various uneasy trends in the macro economic development indicators in the country, HMG initiated a number of macro economic programme including in the country. The economic reform programmes in Nepal has comprised mainly of currency devaluation, financial deregulation, trade liberalization, reduction in budget deficits and policy reforms specially, removing input subsidies and input taxes. Gradual removal of subsidies from power, agriculture, and industry also forms part of the reform programmes launched in the country.

#### **3.3.2 Economic Stabilization and Structural Adjustment Program**

##### ***Economic Stabilization Program***

Adverse development in the economy in the sphere of growth rate, huge budgetary and external current account gaps, excessive liquidity and monetary expansion, higher pace of inflation and consequent real appreciation of the currency in the early 1980's called for rethinking in the strategy of national economic management. Nepal responded to these challenges by adopting economic stabilization program in 1985. The major components of this program were correcting distortions in the real exchange rate by adjusting nominal rate and restraining the budget deficits, primarily through the controlling of public expenditures.

Following demand management policy, budget deficits decreased from over 10 percent of GDP to 9.7 percent in 1985/86 and further down to 9.1 percent in 1986/87. The share of internal loans in deficit financing dropped drastically from around 40 percent in 1984/85 to 30 percent in 1986/87. Similarly, the extent of the development expenditures financed from revenue surplus increased from 17 percent in 1985/86 to 25 percent in 1986/87. In the external sector, current account gap increased from 4.2 percent of GDP in 1984/85 to 4.5 percent in 1985/86 and to 4.8 percent in 1986/87. However, foreign capital inflows, both official and miscellaneous, more than offset the current account imbalance by 1.1 percent of GDP in 1985/86 and one percent in 1986/87. Thus, the depletion in foreign exchange reserves experienced continuously for three years (1982/83-1984/85) was finally reversed in 1985/86.

## Structural Adjustment Program

Statistics suggest that demand management policy, on the whole, resulted in improved performance particularly in regard to fiscal deficit and foreign exchange reserves. Even though 1985/86 experienced unprecedented monetary expansion of 28.3 percent, the major source of such expansion was balance of payment (BOP). With this experience, Nepal introduced Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) in 1987 with the Fund-Bank support. The major objective of SAP was to foster economic growth while maintaining macroeconomic stability by correcting structural rigidities in the supply side of the economy. SAP, which included Structural Adjustment Loan (SAL) from the World Bank, was to be implemented in a three-year's period of 1987/88 to 1989/90. The program was designed to:

- i. sustain the real GDP growth at 4 to 5 percent per year,
- ii. contain external current account deficit (excluding grants) to about eight percent of GDP on average, and
- iii. achieve an overall surplus in the BOP.

## Program Components of SAP

The above targets were to be achieved by adopting the following policies and measures.

- i. **Public Sector Policies.** It consisted of fiscal and public enterprise policies. In the *fiscal policy* net domestic financing of budget deficits (internal borrowings from the banking system) was to be gradually reduced to one percent of GDP in 1990/91 from 1.7 percent in 1985/86. Revenue mobilization was set to increase by 0.7 percentage point of GDP every year. In the expenditure front, growth of regular expenditures was to be contained and that of development expenditures raised in relation to the GDP. Public enterprise policy was targeted to increase the profitability of non-financial enterprises by reviewing the sale prices of their products and their restructuring.



- ii. The thrust of monetary and credit policy broadly included the compression of domestic credit expansion, particularly to the public sectors, and financial sector reforms. The later target was to be achieved by commencing treasury bills auction and developing secondary market for them. Further, aspects of financial sector reforms were to diversify maturity structure of government securities, phasing out of central bank's automatic loans to commercial banks against government securities and reduction of arrears in government guaranteed loans. Restructuring of government-owned banks and development of healthy competitive environment in the financial system included further reforms in the financial sector.
- iii. External policy was to be geared at containing increase in debt servicing and strengthening external position by better exchange rate and external borrowing management.
- iv. Sectoral policies emphasized improved management of enterprises and ensured efficient supply of inputs. This included reducing the extent of protection, extension of OGL list and strengthening the capability of Nepal Electricity Authority to undertake the construction and management of large hydroelectricity projects such as Arun III.

### **Macroeconomic Impacts of SAP**

Full implementation of SAP got prematurely aborted owing to Nepal's prolonged trade impasse with India in 1989 and subsequent people's movement for restoration of democracy. However, between 1987/88 and part of 1989/90, SAP was in force. The impact of SAP can be seen from the following table:

**Table 3.4: Macroeconomic Indicators of Nepal, 1985/86 - 1989/90**

Indicators	1985/86	1986/87	1987/88	1988/89	1989/90	Program Target
Real GDP growth	4.7	2.0	7.0	5.4	4.9	4-5 percent
In percent of GDP						
1. External current account deficit (excluding grants)	7.2	6.9	8.1	8.9	8.8	about 8% on average
2. BOP	1.1	1.0	3.1	0.1	2.7	achieve an overall surplus
3. Net domestic financing of budget deficits <sup>1/</sup>	1.7	1.8	1.1	1.5	1.5	Reduce to one percent in 1990/91
4. Revenue	8.7	9.8	10.1	9.1	9.3	Increase by 0.7 percentage points every year
5. Total expenditures	18.4	18.8	19.3	21.0	19.7	
5.1 Regular	6.7	6.8	6.4	6.6	6.7	Reduce
5.2 Development	11.7	12.1	12.9	14.4	13.1	Increase
6. Budget deficit	9.7	9.1	9.2	11.9	10.1	
7. Budget deficit (excluding grants)	11.9	11.2	12.1	13.9	12.4	

Source: 1 Policy Framework Paper of IMF and various tables of Economic Survey 1995/96 of MOF, HMG/N.

1/ Government's borrowings from the banking system (Economic Survey table 8.1)

Looking at the table it is clear that growth rate has out-performed the target. BOP surplus has remained satisfactory except for heavy slowdown in reserve accumulation in 1988/89. Except in 1988/89, net domestic financing of budget deficits broadly tends towards the target. Revenue performance has remained poor. Expenditures appear to be downward sticky. However, increase in ratio of development expenditures to GDP is higher than that for regular expenditures. A criteria to examine the sustainability of expenditures is the amount of revenue surplus (revenues less regular expenditures). Such surplus had financed as much as 28 percent of the development expenditures in 1987/88. This share nose-dived to 17 percent in 1988/89 and finally reversed back to 20 percent in 1989/90. This is still far below 1987/88 level of 28.4 percent. Poor revenue performance and inelastic nature of regular expenditures are the primary reasons explaining weakening revenue surplus. In the external sector, the current account ratio is not far off the target. Nevertheless, in each successive years, current account ratio is moving away from the target by widening margin. To conclude, other than the growth rate, the macroeconomic scenario reflects much scope for moving towards the SAP target. In the terms of growth rate, since the growth stimulus has originated from the agriculture sector, the credit attributed to SAP needs rethinking. It is because, agriculture responds more to weather and climatic conditions than to macroeconomic policy environment.

### 3.4 Post-SAP Development

In the post-SAP period Nepal-India trade impasse was resolved. Multi-party democracy was restored in April 1990 after 30 years of party-less governance. A coalition government of all political parties jointly struggling for restoration of democracy was formed. The Interim Government following the popular movement successfully drafted the constitution and held general election. The general election returned Nepali Congress into power in May 1991. The new popularly elected government began liberalizing the economy by widening the OGL list, rationalizing tariffs, revising the prices of government controlled public utilities, deregulating the financial sector by freeing various interest rate, privatization of state enterprises and by freeing exchange rate determination to the market forces.

Real growth rate continued to increase satisfactorily due mainly to the resilience in the non-agricultural sources rather than agriculture. Revenue increment could not keep pace with pressures on aggregate expenditure resulting in increased budget deficit. However, net domestic financing of budget deficits continued to decrease in relation to the GDP. In the external sectors, current account deficits (excluding grants) continued to remain over eight percent of the GDP.

Table 3.5: Post-SAP Macroeconomic Scenario of Nepal (in percent of GDP)

Indicators	1989/90	1990/91	1991/92
<b>Real GDP growth rate</b>	<b>4.9</b>	<b>6.4</b>	<b>4.6</b>
In Percentage of GDP			
1. Current a/c deficits (excl.grants)	8.8	9.6	8.1
2. Balance of payments surplus	2.7	3.6	2.3
3. Net domestic financing of budget deficits	1.5	1.1	1.0
4. Revenues	9.3	9.2	9.3
5. Total expenditures	19.7	20.3	18.2
5.1 Regular	6.7	6.5	6.8
5.2 Development	13.1	13.8	11.4
6. Budget deficit	10.1	11.0	8.9
7. Budget deficit (excl. grants)	12.4	12.9	10.0

From the table it is evident that government's budgetary operations worsened in 1990/91 and there are signs of recovery in the following fiscal year. Net domestic financing of budget deficits, however, is continuously declining over the years. In the external sector, there is a

remarkable progress in BOP. The reverse scenario is observed in external current account imbalances. Growth rate fell to long run trend of 4-5 percent in 1991/92 after a much better performance 1990/91. To sustain the growth rate and to make long run improvement in the external and fiscal fronts there still existed sufficient scope for continuing with the structural adjustments that was aborted in 1989/90.

### **3.5 Enhanced Structural Adjustment Facility (ESAF)**

Nepal entered into ESAF agreement with the Fund in October 1992 for a period of three years. The support of the IDA and AsDB was also to be synchronized with ESAF. ESAF was more comprehensive than SAP in the sense that this program also covers issues beyond fiscal-monetary-external sector policy domain. ESAF charts extends as far as to reforms in the civil service, human resource developments including poverty alleviation, and environment. The analysis here will be confined to macroeconomic developments.

The major macroeconomic targets of ESAF follows. Real GDP was targeted to grow at the rate of five percent a year initially which was later revised to six percent in 1993/94 and 4.2 to 4.8 percent every year thereafter. Consumer price inflation was set to increase at the rate of eight percent a year which was later lowered down to five percent. Net domestic financing of budget deficit was to be lowered down to 0.7 percent of GDP and ultimately down to 0.6 percent by 1995/96. External current account deficit was targeted to remain under eleven percent of the GDP by 1995/96. Similarly, fiscal deficit (after grants) would have to be brought down to six percent of GDP in 1993/94 and was set to increase to eight percent by 1995/96. Revenue was targeted to increase by 0.5 percentage points of GDP every year. The actual outcome is given in Table 2.5.

**Table 3.6: Macroeconomic Developments, 1991/92-1995/96**

(in percent)

Indicators	1991/92	1992/93	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96
1. Real GDP growth rate					
1.1 Target	-	2.9	6.2	4.2-4.8	4.2-4.8
1.2 Actual	4.6	3.3	7.9	2.9	6.1
2. Consumer Price Inflation					
2.1 Target	-	10.8	8.0	7.0	6.0
2.2 Actual	21.0	8.9	9.0	7.7	9.2
In percent of GDP					
3. Fiscal deficit (before grants)					
3.1 Target	-	10.8	8.6	8.5	9.6
3.2 Actual	10.0	11.8	8.5	8.7	9.8
4. Net domestic financing of budget deficits					
4.1 Target	-	3.1	1.3	0.7	0.6
4.2 Actual	1.0	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.3
5. Revenue					
5.1 Target	-	9.9	10.6	11.2	11.7
5.2 Actual	9.3	9.2	10.2	11.7	11.8
6. External current account deficit (excl. grants)					
6.1 Target	-	8.7	9.0	9.9	10.7
6.2 Actual	8.1	8.2	5.8	8.9	11.8
7. Total Expenditures					
7.1 Regular	6.8	7.0	6.5	9.2	9.2
7.2 Development	11.4	11.8	11.1	9.4	10.3

Source: HMG/N, MOF Economic Survey 1995/96 (various tables)  
IMF's Policy Framework Paper.

On the whole, the performance of various indicators broadly tend towards the target. Except 1994/95, a poor weather year, growth performance has exceeded the target by a respectable margin. Consumer price inflation has remained off the target, with the actual performance deviating by 3.2 percentage points above the target in 1995/96. Fiscal deficits deviated from the target by a wider margin in 1993/94 and narrowed down in subsequent years. Net domestic financing of budget deficits (defined as government's internal borrowing from the banking system) has consistently out-performed the target. However, in terms of total internal loans (from banking plus non-banking sectors), the actual performance falls below the target in 1994/95. Such divergence widened further in 1995/96. Revenue mobilization has been satisfactory. The deviation from target narrowed down from 0.7 percentage point in 1992/93 to 0.4 percentage point in 1993/94. In the following two years revenue have exceeded the ESAF target. External current account deficits (excluding grants) though well above eight percent of GDP have

remained well within the ESAF target until 1994/95. In 1995/96 however, the projected deficits in current accounts is likely to exceed the ESAF target by 0.4 percent of the GDP.

Total budgetary expenditures which had declined from 18.7 percent of GDP in 1992/93 to 17.5 percent in 1993/94, increased to 18.6 percent in 1994/95 and further up to 19.5 percent in 1995/96 due mainly to mounting pressure from the regular budget. If this trend continues, development expenditures will fall behind regular expenditures in the near future.

At the policy level, import licensing was completely withdrawn and Nepali Rupee was made fully convertible in current account transactions in July 1993. Customs duty and sales tax have been rationalized by compressing the rate as well as streamlining the rate structures. In line with the structural adjustment program, 13 public enterprises were privatized by 1994. Selling prices of government controlled commodities and services such as chemical fertilizer, sugar, dairy products, petroleum products, electricity and drinking water have already been revised upward in stages. Licensing procedure for banks and financial institutions have been simplified. The entry conditions have been eased considerably. Their entry is now governed by capital adequacy and other prudential norms. Statutory liquidity ratio, other than cash reserves has been withdrawn. Interest rate is governed by treasury bill auction rate and central bank's rediscount rate.

### **3.6 The Ninth Plan (1997-2002) and Macro-Economic Policy**

#### **3.6.1 Long-term Development Perspective**

The Ninth Plan has been prepared in light of the 20 year long-term perspective plan. The major long-term development objective is to create a society that is cultured, modern development-oriented and endowed with skills through alleviating the prevailing widespread poverty in the country. It gives emphasis to higher economic growth rate, pro-poor development process and equitable distribution of income. To attain the rapid and sustainable development, plans, policies and programmes are geared towards poverty alleviation, employment generation and promotion, and reducing regional disparities.

Under the Plan, the liberal, open and market oriented economic policies pursued by the government will be further strengthened and their implementation will be made more effective.

This in turn will enhance competitiveness and make these policies sustainable by exploiting opportunities created by the open policies. The capability to cope with the changes in the world economy will be increased and reforms in the existing policies and improvement in the economic management will attract foreign investment (NPC, 1999).

Poverty alleviation has been the corner-stone of the long-term development goal of the government. The official estimates of people under poverty line are estimated at 42 percent but unofficial figures run as high as 70 percent. The long-term objective of the government is to reduce the population living below poverty line to 10 percent within next 20 years.

Agricultural Perspective Plan (APP) has been taken up as the accelerating machine of the economic development. The plan aims at increasing production, providing food security, increasing employment and income and ultimately contributing to poverty alleviation. The APP has given main emphasis to the supply of fertilizer, irrigation, rural; agricultural road construction and rural electrification, and the use of agro-climatically appropriate technology. It is envisaged that the implementation of the policies and programmes of the APP will accelerate the growth rate of the agriculture sector which will have a multiplier effect on the national economy. The growth in agriculture sector will enhance the performance of the non-agricultural sector, contributing towards achieving the macro-economic growth rate of 7.2 percent within next 20-years.

### **3.6.2 Macro-economic Targets**

Since APP has been taken as the basis of the engine of growth for Nepalese economy for the next 20 years or so, its successful implementation is vital for the attainment of targets set by the government. It is estimated that the GDP at producer's prices will grow by 6 percent per annum in the Ninth Plan and by 8.3 percent per annum in the 12th Plan, thus making the average growth rate of 7.2 percent during the 20 year period. During the 20 year period, the contribution of various sectors of the economy to GDP will be changed substantially. The contribution of the agriculture and non-agriculture sectors to GDP will be 25 percent and 75 percent respectively. The share of agriculture to GDP at present is estimated around 40 percent. To achieve the target of economic growth rate, the investment has to be 25 percent of GDP which has to be raised to 34 percent of GDP by the 12th Plan. To attain the investment portfolio, mobilization of national savings

will be raised to 12 percent of GDP during the Ninth Plan and gradually increasing to 30 percent of GDP by the end of the 12th Plan. Table 3.7 highlights major macro-economic Indicators projected for the long-term plan period.

**Table 3.7: Macro Economic Development Indicators of Long Term Plan, Nepal 1997-2015**

S.N.	Indicators	Planning Periods				
		FY 96/97	Ninth Plan	10th Plan	11th Plan	12th Plan
1.	Gross Domestic Product at Factor Cost		6.0	7.0	7.5	8.3
	a. Agriculture Sector Growth		4.0	5.0	5.0	5.0
	b. Non_agriculture Sector Growth		7.3	8.2	8.8	9.7
2.	Contribution to GDP					
	a. Agriculture Sector		38.0	34.0	30.0	25.0
	b. Non-Agriculture Sector		62.0	66.0	70.0	75.0
3.	Investment as percentage of GDP		25.0	27.0	31.0	34.0
4.	a. National Savings as Percentage of GDP		17.0	20.0	25.0	30.0
	b. Growth rate per year		8.8	10.0	12.0	12.0
5.	Poverty and Unemployment					
	a. People Living Below Poverty Line	42.0	32.0	23.0	15.0	10.0
	b. % of Unemployed Population	4.9	4.0	3.6	3.3	3.3
	% of Underemployed	47.0	32.0	23.0	15.0	10.0

Source: The Ninth Plan. National Planning Commission, Unofficial English Draft, 1999.

The government has committed itself to the concept of the liberalization of the economy to enable market-led development to take-off and help in the attainment of its development objectives. Accordingly, it has made it a policy to continue liberalization drive in future. Under the reform measures, trade has been liberalized with the elimination of quota system, tariff rates are reduced, restructured and rationalized. Some other elements of macro economic reforms include the following:

- Reform is going on to stabilize exchange rates
- Public enterprises are gradually privatized to reduce financial burden to the treasury
- Increased involvement of the private sector in industrial development enhanced with the implementation of the Foreign Investment and Technology act, 1992 and Industrial Enterprise Act, 1992.
- Commercial and joint venture banks are allowed to open to bring desirable changes in the financial reforms and improve the efficiency of trade and industry.



- Government has increased the tariffs of major utilities (water, energy etc) number of times in recent years.
- Gradual removal of subsidies in agriculture (chemical fertilizer), irrigation and food distribution.
- Export procedures have been simplified.

### **3.7 Some Issues in Economic Reforms in Nepal**

Nepal started planned development efforts in the mid-1950s. Guided by the idea of a welfare state, several public enterprises were created to undertake productive and distributive functions. Overtime, they became 'white elephants' incurring heavy losses and over-burdened the treasury.

Nepal entered into a new era of democratic government in 1990. Since then, it has been pursuing macro-economic reform programmes to promote market-led development in the country. Privatization of state-owned industries were some of the initial steps to encourage private sectors to help in the economic and industrial development of the country. But there are serious doubts on the implications of the measures undertaken. For example, after deregulation, a large number of national industries are closing down in major industrial centers of the country. National industries such as toilet soaps, tooth paste and others are being replaced by imports and products from multinational companies. What this has led is the development of consumerism-oriented industries not on import substitution and development of infrastructural base (Dahal, 1997) and loss of jobs to hundreds of workers employed by the industries. In a country with more than 42 percent of population living under poverty, the impact of macro economic reforms including SAP introduced with the interest of international money lending institutions can be disastrous especially on poorer section of the society. Sub-committee on Nutrition echoes the same across the board: globalization also creates and accelerates poverty, disparity, exclusion, unemployment, marginalization, alienation, environmental degradation, exploitation, corruption, violence and conflict (UN, 1999). A comprehensive study on the effects of macro-economic policies on micro level is still lacking in the country.

A case study conducted as part of this study found that the participation of a multinational company in the country has mixed results. Although the products are exported and helps the country in foreign exchange earnings at the macro level, its impact at the meso level is messy at the most. The company has not hired a single woman worker and workers are hired through an intermediary on temporary basis. The company maintains minimum of facilities for the workers. Their job is not secured and they have to bribe the intermediary to be engaged in work. The labourers are scared to talk about their work place and conditions. Even the Labor Inspector of the government keeps mum about the factory and expresses helplessness. In contrast, workers working in the national companies enjoys greater facilities, have job security and a substantial number of workers are women (see case study for more detail).

In recent years, government has been attempting to join WTO. The vulnerability of Nepalese economy vis-a-vis the Indian economy and WTO membership is quite comprehensive. Notwithstanding the likely benefits of joining the WTO, necessary infrastructure needed to gain from its membership remains at the minimum in Nepal. For example, Nepal has few industrial base and its human resource is highly unskilled, unproductive and mostly engaged in agriculture where under-employment is as high as 47 percent and unemployment as high as 14 percent. In such a situation, the impact of WTO membership with free flow of goods and services may further jeopardize the interest of weaker section driving away from subsistence agriculture, with increased cost of living.

Liberalization refers to the freeing of trade, investment and capital flows between countries. Globalization refers to both the integration of production facilities in different countries under the aegis or ownership of the multinational corporations and to the integration of product and financial markets facilitated by liberalization. Both of the measures are a product of the World Bank/IMF with the tacit support of the developed countries. These measures entail greater interdependence among countries resulting from a greater mobility of factors of production and of goods and services. The advancement in science and technology with freer flow of capital and technology across the border, falling tariff barriers, integrated financial markets, corporate activities of the multinational companies limits the capacity of developing countries that are resources-poor, poverty stricken and under-developed industrial and market base to pursue its own socio-economic

development policy (Dahal, 1997; Acharya and Karki, 1998; Chhetri and Sharma, 1999). Regional free trade arrangement under SAARC is also in the offing. However, no detail modalities have been finalized.

Under these policies, governments are expected to adopt policies which are deemed credible financial markets, international donors to gain their confidence. But policies which favourably impress the financial markets which are often based on western industrialized countries interests, are often far from the 'people friendly and 'employment friendly' policies that are required. For example, increases in taxation to finance rising standards of education and health care for the whole population and to finance welfare expenditures are generally frowned upon as is progressive taxation to redistribute income (South Centre, 1996).

What is needed, therefore, is not the blind pursuit of liberalization per se, or the sort of market friendly policies now so widely advocated, but domestic policies of the kind which promote growth in a way which generates a sustained improvement in the quality of life of the current as well as future generations.

Except for some macro-economic indicators discussed in the beginning section of this chapter, the effect of liberalization and reforms in macro economic policies have not been assessed at the macro level. The forthcoming 2001 census will perhaps be the first to provide disaggregated data on gender and employment structure of Nepalese population. A review of the structural programme in India has shown that there is a substantial addition to the volume of the unemployment in the first two years of structural programme (Bhattacharya and Mitra, 1993). Some more recent measures such as deregulation of chemical fertilizer and other state owned enterprises is having a mixed result.

Nepal has open border with India has been the major trading partner of the country. Macro economic reforms initiated in India have direct implications for Nepal. For example, following removal of subsidy in chemical fertilizer, Nepal also had to reduce subsidy on it. But the chemical fertilizer market in the country has become unreliable with low quality products. Farmers are averse to buy it. In the one hand government has made it a policy to increase agricultural productivity with

improved supply of inputs, on the other it has been attempting to mobilize market forces to cater the needs of the increased supply. Because of this, questions are being raised on the success of the APP which is taken as panacea for development for the next 20 year.

## CHAPTER - IV NON-CONVENTIONAL INDICATORS

This section reviews perceptions on gender roles and magnitude of violence against women. Because of specific location of the studies on violence, the data may not be representative of the dimension, and magnitude of violence in the country.

### 4.1 Perceptions of Gender Roles<sup>2</sup>

The cultural construct of Nepalese society that we are studying is shaped by the Hindu theology which advocated and promoted patriarchy and patrilineal attitudes that excludes women from a variety of functions. This has resulted into gender-stereotypes where women's role as unpaid productive and reproductive labor is assigned negligible power or control over economic resources. Table 5.1 provides empirical evidence to some of the perceptions on gender roles shaped by the cultural context. For example, in both the urban settings almost three-fourths of women thought it the prerogatives of the husband to decide most important decisions in the household. Similar perceptions prevail on wife working outside and main duties of the husband.

Table 4.1: Wives' perceptions towards gender roles and duties

		Terai	Hill	Odds
Attitude towards gender roles/duties		(1)	(2)	Ratio (3)=1/2
Husband should decide most important decisions	Percent Yes	71.7	77.8	0.72
	Yes/No	2.54	3.5	
Husband's main responsibility is to his wife	Percent Yes	44.7	29.5	1.93***
	Yes/No	0.81	0.42	
Infant's mothers should not work outside	Percent Yes	55.3	62.8	0.73
	Yes/No	1.235	1.7	
Division of labor is not exchangeable between sexes	Percent Yes	40.1	36.5	1.17
	Yes/No	0.67	0.57	

P -value \*\*\* 0.001

Source: B. B. Niraula and Dovan Lawoti, 1998.

### 4.2 Attitude towards Husband Wife Relations

Table 4.2 shows wives responses on number of conditions under which a husband and wife is justified to leave their partners. In a society where reproduction is viewed as one of the

<sup>2</sup> This Section is partially adopted from Niraula & Lawoti, 1997.

major objectives of marital contract, the views on conditions under which the husband/wife can leave their respective partners is shaped by the ideology of patriarchy and patrilinearity. Women are tied for life by their marriage bonds, their power to accept or reject such partnerships is evidently is the index of degree of freedom they exercise in the management of their own lives and thus their status (Acharya, 1996).

Table 4.2: Wives' response to conditions under which husband is justified to leave his wife

A. Wife is justified to Leave if :		Terai (1)	Hill (2)	Odds Ratio (3)=1/2
husband cannot produce children	Percent Yes Yes/No	2.0 0.02	13.9 0.16	0.13***
husband misbehaves with natal kin	Percent Yes Yes/No	2.0 0.02	7.6 0.08	0.24**
husband unable to give financial aid	Percent Yes Yes/No	18.4 0.23	17.0 0.21	1.10
husband cruel to children	Percent Yes Yes/No	7.6 0.08	12.8 0.15	0.56*
Husband beats you	Percent Yes Yes/No	26.0 0.35	28.1 0.39	0.90
Husband is addicted to drugs	Percent Yes Yes/No	9.5 0.11	14.9 0.18	0.60*
Husband is involved in extra marital affair	Percent Yes Yes/No	37.8 0.61	37.8 0.61	1.0
<b>B. Husband is justified to leave his wife if</b>				
wife cannot produce children	Percent Yes Yes/No	2.0 0.020	16.7 0.200	0.101***
wife misbehaves with in-laws	Percent Yes Yes/No	3.0 0.031	10.4 0.116	0.262***
wife unable to give financial aid	Percent Yes Yes/No	11.8 0.145	15.6 0.185	0.784
wife cruel to children	Percent Yes Yes/No	5.6 0.059	12.2 0.138	0.428**
wife is addicted to drugs	Percent Yes Yes/No	21.4 0.272	23.6 0.303	0.897
wife is involved in extra marital affair	Percent Yes Yes/No	83.9 5.204	67.0 2.032	2.562***

P -values \* .05, \*\* .005, \*\*\* .001  
Source: B. B. Niraula and Dovan Lawoti, 1998.

First panels of both A and B in Table 8 show that women in the hills have more stronger feeling towards the reproductive capacity of either partner than is the case for the terai women. More women in the hills reported that both the husband and wife will be justified to leave their partner if s/he is unable to produce a child. We argue that this view of marital relation is governed by the Hindu view of life and Hindu laws which allows polygyny. The same holds true for

misbehaving husband/wife with either of the relatives: be it natal kins or in-laws. In both the settings, extra-marital involvement is not tolerated for both husbands and wives. But the level of the tolerance is much milder for the husbands than is the case for women. The analysis in this table provides further support that the hill women adhere much more strictly to traditional norms regarding husband-wife relationships than is the case for the terai women.

### 4.3 Women's Access to control over Resources

Women's access to and control over resources are important for their autonomy. In a society like ours, where men are projected as the sole 'bread-earner' of the household, the extent to which women have access to and control of important resources and the extent to which they depend on men for self support and support for their children/dependents and the degree to which women attest to these attitudes can be considered as a measure of women's economic autonomy. We present women's response to these questions in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Women's responses to household income, ownership of resources and attitude towards self-support

Items		Terai	Hill	Odds Ratio
1. Have a say in how household income is spent	Per cent Yes	78.9	80.6	
	Yes/No	240/22	232/19	0.89
2. Ownership of landed Property	Per cent Yes	32.9	28.5	
	Yes/No	100/202	82/204	1.23
3. Ownership of other personal Valuable property	Per cent Yes	57.0	26.0	
	Yes/No	129/175	53/215	5.5***
4. Able to Support self and dependents without husband	Per cent Yes	44.7	36.1	
	Yes/No	136/168	104/184	1.43*
5. Free to buy a Sari worth Rs. 300	Per cent Yes	68.8	70.5	
	Yes/No	209/95	203/85	0.92
6. Free to buy Jewelry worth Rs. 1000	Per cent Yes	53.9	30.2	
	Yes/No	164/140	71/217	3.58***

P -values \* .05, \*\* .005, \*\*\* .001

Source: B. B. Niraula and Dovan Lawoti, 1998.

Table 4.3 shows that women contribute to important household decisions, (i.e., how the household income be spent) in both the urban settings. Women in the hills reportedly have higher say in the decision than is case for the terai women but the difference is not statistically significant. In both the settings, almost one-third of women have ownership of landed property, a major source of income and wealth and socio-economic status. However, personal property and valuables are much higher for women in the Terai. With the personal property to which women have both ownership and control, women can exercise and manipulate situations to their advantage. This is reflected in item 4 of Table 6. More women in the terai said that they would be able to support self and their dependents without their husbands and the difference between the settings is statistically significant. In both the settings, almost 70 per cent of women are autonomous to buy a sari worth Rupees 300 and there is no significant setting differences. However, as one moves to more valued item such as jewelry worth Rupees 1000, there are larger differences, Women in the terai are much more likely to be autonomous to buy jewelry of their choice compared to their counterparts in the hills.

#### **4.4 Trafficking of Women/Children and Prostitution**

Trafficking and prostitution in Nepal has historical roots, originating from religious beliefs and traditions to luxury. Trafficking of women and children is a major concern in Nepal. Although exact estimates are lacking, it is estimated that about 200,000 women and children have been trafficked to India. And are forced into prostitution in red light districts in different metropolis, cities and towns in that country (CWIN, 1998; Asmita, 1998). Of the total trafficked, at least 20 percent are estimated to be children who have been sold when they were less than forty years old. Some of the children who are trafficked and sold into brothels are as young as 10 years old (CWIN, 1998). It is estimated that between 5,000 to 7,000 girls between the ages of 10-20 years are trafficked every year (Forum for Women, Law and Development, 1999). Some other estimate this number as high as 20,000 (Hameed et al. 1997 cited in Asmita, 1998). CWIN. Trafficked women almost universally enter the flesh trade and become commercial sex workers has been well established by various studies in the country (ABC, 1996; 1998; CWIN, 1996, 1998; Ghimire, 1996, 1997, ILRR, nd. Pradhan, 1992; Asmita, 1998, Rajbhandari, 1996). These numbers highlight the various dimension and gravity of trafficking in the country.



National data on girls trafficking and commercial sex workers are hard to find. A study conducted by New Era (1998), which has comprehensive coverage than any other studies to-date, has come out with the following findings.

- ◆ The scale and magnitude of the commercial sex work and trafficking in Nepal seem to larger than it is usually believed. Information collected by the survey from 180 sites in 40 districts in the country revealed that 90 percent of interviewees knew about some commercial sex work (CSW) in their area indicating widespread coverage of the trade in te country.
- ◆ Trafficking of women and girls seems to be increasing except among the Badis.

#### **Factors leading Trafficking and Commercial sex Work**

- ◆ The social psyche and socio-economic structure provide the major scope for widespread sex work and trafficking in Nepal. Although a majority of CSW respondents identified poverty and need for money as the primary cause ---- what comes out as the underlying factor pushing girls into this activity is the way the girls are raised. The socialization process and the economic structures, which emphasizes marriage as the only means to livelihood and social status for girls, provide little protection and access to economic resources. The women are always made helpless and unprotected without a man. This leads them into various relationships with men who exploit them unscrupulously.
- ◆ Modern consumerism and drug abuse among youngsters has lured young women of even middle class families in this trade. In the absence of alternative employment and in a culture that downgrades physical labour, this is a easy way out to earn pocket money.
- ◆ Violence against girls and women on a large scale has pushed women into the sex trade. Violence from community members adds fuel to the already volatile situation.

Source: The Situation analysis of Sex Work and Trafficking iNepal With reference to Children, New Era, 1998.

In addition to poverty and low status of women, other causes of women/girls trafficking are tradition and culture, open border, lack of political commitment, lack of effective enforcement of existing laws, inadequacy of existing laws, and a lucrative business. Reported cases of trafficking suggest that often the offenders are escorted free because of intricate networking with officials and politicians.

Trafficking and CSW pervades all caste-ethnic groups in the country. Table 5.4 gives details on the caste-ethnicity of trafficked women and children and their final destinations. This Table shows that lower women and children from the lower caste groups are much more trafficked

and are involved in sex trade than any caste-ethnic groups in the country. They constituted 27 percent of general sex workers but 29 percent of those trafficked to India and 23 percent of those who "voluntarily" went to India. High caste Brahmin/chhetri women and children come second, with 24 percent of general sex workers, 26 percent who "volunteered to go to India and 17.4 percent who were trafficked to India. Of the total trafficked to India, Tamang/Lama constitute (14.4%), Gurung/Magar (12.8%), Rai/Limbu (8.1%) and Tharu/Chepang/Dhimal/Sattar (5.8%).

Table 4.4: Commercial Sex Workers in Nepal by caste-ethnicity and Place of Final Destination

Caste/ethnicity	Commercial Sex Workers and their Destination				
	CSWs in General	Voluntarily go to other places within Nepal	Voluntarily go to India	Trafficked within Nepal	Trafficked to Nepal
Deuki/Nayak/Negi	0.7	1.2	1.9	0.0	0.0
Badi	3.3	3.3	1.9	0.0	1.4
Brahmin/chhetri/Giri/Puri/Shribatsav	23.6	25.4	25.7	24.3	17.4
Gurung/Magar	12.3	13.7	16.8	21.6	12.8
Tamang/Lama	8.7	9.0	7.7	18.9	14.4
Rai/Limbu	8.0	9.6	6.5	10.8	8.1
Newar/Thakali/Sherpa	4.5	3.4	1.4	0.0	0.9
Damai/Kami/Sarki/gaine/Sunar and other low castes	26.9	23.0	22.9	16.2	29.0
Kurmi/Dusadh?kiori/Kumal/Majhi/Mukhiya	0.8	0.8	0.5	0.0	0.2
Musahar, Dum, Dhand/Dhusad	1.5	1.2	1.9	2.7	1.6
Yadav/teli Gupta/Baniya/Mahato, Nuniya/Rauniyar/Mandal	2.0	2.6	3.9	0.0	1.9
Tharu/Chepang/Dhimal/Satar/Jhangar/Dhangar	4.8	4.0	4.3	2.7	5.8
Others	2.7	1.9	3.4	0.0	2.6
Do not Know	0.2	0.7	1.2	2.7	3.9
Total	100.0 (1671)	100.0 (1078)	100.0 (584)	100.0 (37)	100.0 (431)

This information was collected from the Dalal (broker/middle men/women) and may be biased

Source: A situation analysis of sex work and trafficking in Nepal with reference to Children. New Era. 1998, Table A. 5.2, p. 138.

Adolescent girls constitute a significant proportion of women trafficked and involved in commercial sex work. The study conducted by New Era (1998) reveals that more than one-fifth (21.5%) of Nepali women /girls who were working as commercial sex workers in India were aged 12-15 years when they came to India. More than one-third (25.4%) were aged 16-25 when they came to India and involved as sex workers.

#### 4.4 Violence against Women and Children

Like child labour and sex work, violence is a common feature in Nepalese society. The role of patriarchy and the ideology of Hinduism provide a conducive environment for women's subordination. Poverty, ignorance, illiteracy, and isolation are other traps that help to sustain women's subordination to men. One of the several manifestations of women's subordination is violence against women. Women and children are victims of several types of violence: domestic, rape, polygamy, and customary violence such as practices of Badi and Deuki system in the country.

There are few studies in Nepal conducted on violence against women and children. A pioneering study (Saathi/Asia Foundation, 1997) despite its several limitations provides first hand data on various dimensions of violence in Nepalese society.

Some of the findings of the study are:

<b>Box 2: Prevalence of VAW &amp; G in Nepal</b>	
<b><u>Psychological</u></b>	
61 percent	reported knowing about mental torture
32 percent	reported emotional torture
31 percent	reported sexual harassment in public places
17 percent	reported sexual harassment in the work place
<b><u>Physical violence</u></b>	
82 percent	reported beating
66 percent	reported assault
30 percent	rape
28 percent	forced prostitution
21 percent	untouchability
13 percent	reported abortion
13 percent	reported case of child abuse
<b><u>Traditional Violence</u></b>	
64 percent	reported polygamy
60 percent	reported Deuki/Badi custom
44 percent	reported accusation of witchcraft
41 percent	reported child marriage
37 percent	dowry related violence
31 percent	reported bonded labour
22 percent	reported jari custom
Source: A Situational analysis of Violence Against Women and Girls in Nepal. Prepared by Saathi in collaboration with the Asia Foundation, Kathmandu, 1997	