

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1. GENERAL BACKGROUND OF NEPAL:

1.1 Locational Setting:

Nepal, a sovereign independent country, is situated on the southern slope of the Mid Himalayas. It is located in the South Asia between two big countries - India and China. It covers a land area of 147181 square kilometers and is situated in a rectangular shape with north - west to south - east orientation. It extends from 26° 22' and 30°27' north latitude and 80°4' and 88° 12' east longitude.

Ecologically the country is divided into three physiographic regions: (a) Mountain Region (b) Hilly Region and (c) Terai Region. The total land area of these three regions is 35, 42 and 23 percent respectively.

1.2 Administrative and Physical Division:

Nepal is divided administratively into five development regions, fourteen zones and seventy-five districts. The five development regions are; the Eastern Development Region, Central Development Region, Western Development Region, Mid Western Development Region and Far- Western Development Region.

1.3 Climate:

In Nepal the topography varies from the plains of Terai to the deep valleys and high mountains of the northern region. Therefore, many varieties of climate, ranging from subtropical through temperate to alpine, can be found in Nepal. Due to altitude and locational setting, intricate variations in climatic condition even occur within a short distance. The temperature thus differs from region to region. The temperature decreases sharply as elevation increases from south to north. The summer temperature ranges from more than 40 degree centigrade in Terai to 28 degree in central valleys. In winter, the average maximum temperature remains 7 degree in Terai while in Central

Valleys it drops to a minimum of below freezing point. However, the mean temperature for the whole country is 15.5 degree centigrade (CEDA, 1980:13).

Similarly, the rainfall distribution also varies according to topography. The volume of rainfall varies greatly from the Northern Mountain Region to the Southern Terai plain ranging from 250 to 5000 mm. annually. The Central Hill, mainly Mahabharat Range receives heaviest rainfall during the monsoon (June to Sept.). During this season 60 to 80 percent of annual rainfall falls in the country. The annual average rainfall for the country as a whole is 1500 mm.

1.4 Demographic Features:

The total population of Nepal is 18,462,081 in 1991. The male population is 49.87 percent and the female population is 51.13 percent. The population growth rate is 2.08 percent per annum. The ecological distribution of population shows that 7.8 percent population lived in mountains, 45.6 percent in hills and 46.6 percent in Terai.

Table 1:

Population Size and Growth Rates, Nepal, 1971-1991.

Year	Population	Intercensal Change in Population	Average annual Growth Rate (%)*
1971	11,555,983	+2,142,987	+2.07
1981	15,022,839	+3,466,856	+2.66
1991	18,491,097	+3,468,259	+2.10

*Geometric Growth Rate

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

The urban population is 9.6 percent of the total population in 1991. This figure was 6.4 percent in 1981 census. It seems that the population is increasing very fast in urban areas.

As regards the distribution of population by development regions, Central Development Region has the maximum proportion of population which is 33.4 percent of total population, followed by Eastern Development Region (24.05 percent), Western Development Region (20.39 percent), Mid Western Development Region (13.04 percent) and Far Western Development Region (9.08 percent). The population distribution of Nepal as regards the ecological and development regions in 1981 and 1991 is shown in Annex A Table 1.

Nepal is at an accelerating phase of the urban transition. The average growth rate of population in urban areas is much larger than the growth rate of rural population. As compared to the average annual growth rates of the total population, the growth rates in urban areas are more than double. Similarly, the urban growth rate over the years is seen to exceed the rural population growth rate. The population of Nepal, by urban-rural residence is shown in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2:

**Population Distribution by Urban- Rural Residence, 1971-1991
(Population in thousand)**

Year	Urban Population	Rural Population
1971	461.9	11,094.1
1981	956.7	14,066.1
1991	1,695.7	16,795.4

Source: Population Monograph of Nepal , CBS, 1995

The sex ratio of the population is 99.47 in 1991 census. It seems that females in Nepal in the census year slightly outnumbered males. It could be due to exodus of male population for work outside the country.

1.5 Caste / Ethnicity:

Nepal is a multi- racial and multilingual country. The 1991 population census of Nepal reported 60 different caste/ ethnic groups. The major ethnic groups are Brahmin, Chhetri, Newar, Magar, Tharu, Tamang, Yadav, Kami, Muslim, Rai, Gurung, Sherpa and so on. These groups together accounted for more than two- thirds (72.5 percent) of the country's inhabitants. These groups have different mother tongues but the national language is Nepali.

1.6 Education:

Majority of the population in Nepal are still illiterate. The literacy rate is only 23.3 percent in 1981. The literacy rate, in general, is higher in urban areas than in rural areas. The differences in the literacy rates of rural urban areas are striking in all the censuses since 1961. The urban literacy rate is nearly twice in 1991. Similarly, the literacy rate is higher for males than for females. The literacy rate for males is 54.5 percent, but it is only 25 percent for females in 1991. The male/ female differential in the literacy rate was 29.5 in 1991. The literacy rates for population 6 years of age and over from 1961 to 1991 are given in Table 1:3.

Table 1.3:**Literacy Rates for Population 6 years of Age and Over
1971-1991, Nepal**

Year	Urban Population	Rural Population
1971	48.3	12.5
1981	50.5	21.4
1991	66.9	36.6

Source: Population Monograph of Nepal, CBS, 1995

1.7 Economic Activity:

Nepal is predominantly an agrarian country. Agricultural products contribute more than 50 percent in GDP. In 1990/91, the contribution from agriculture to GDP was 56 percent (CBS, 1992). Agriculture accounts for about 75 percent of the total export and it absorbs more than 90 percent of the total labour force. However, due to the topographical constraints, only about 18 percent of land areas is brought under cultivation. The Terai area accounts for 57 percent of the total cultivated land.

The industrial sector is still at the initial stage. The employment in this sector is less than 2 percent of the total labour force. Most of the industries are cottage industries employing about one million people mainly in carpet and other agrobased processing units.

The 1991 census reported that among persons aged 10 and over a total of 7,339,586 persons (57.0 percent) are economically active in Nepal, among which 4,375, 583 are males and 2,964,003 females. Among the total population the economic activity rate for male population is 68.7, whereas this rate is only 45.5 for females. However, the proportion of economically active males has declined over the last two decades, from 82.9 in 1971 to 68.7 in 1991. At the same time the proportion of

economically active women has stabilized around 46 though it is taking an increasing trend for females. The economic activity rates for males and females for the censuses 1971-1991 is shown in Table1:4.

Table 1.4:

Economic Activity Rates (10 years and above) by Sex 1971-1991

Refined Economic Activity Rates*

Year	Male	Female	Both Sexes
1971	82.90	35.10	59.30
1981	83.15	46.21	65.13
1991	68.71	45.53	56.99

Source: Population Monograph of Nepal ; C.B.S., 1995

*Refined activity rate is the number of economically active per 100 persons of 10 years of age and above.

The economic activity rate in rural areas is higher than in urban areas for both males and females, since in rural areas the people (almost all the members of the household) are engaged in agriculture- and farm- fish- related work, whereas the people in urban areas involved in agriculture are less and only some members of the family are involved in that employment. The activity rates for rural and urban areas of Nepal and distribution of the employed population in different occupations are given in Table1:5.

Table 1.5:

**Economic Activity Rates for Rural/ Urban Area (10 Years of Age and Over),
1981-1991**

Area	1981			1991		
	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes
Rural	83.77	47.19	65.85	69.78	48.10	58.76
Urban	74.86	31.48	54.90	59.44	20.34	40.76

Source: Same as of Table 1.4.

The economic activity rate for the rural area in 1981 is 65.85, but this rate for the urban area is only 54.90. Similarly, in 1991 also for the rural area the economic activity rate is 58.76 and for the urban area the activity rate is only 40.76.

In Nepal, the occupation structure changes during the 10 years period, though it is in a slow process. Of the total population about 91.37 percent in 1981 and 81 percent in 1991 in Nepal is engaged in agriculture. Service sector registered the second highest percentage (6.18 percent) of workforce in 1991 and this percent is less than one in 1981. After the service sector people are employed in production and sales categories, the percentage of which is 4.23 in 1991 and 3.12 in 1981. Professional - technical occupational category ranked fifth engaging 1.78 percentage points during the 10 year period. The Table also shows that the percentage of female population to the total population for the years 1981 and 1991 is very low compared to male population. Besides, majority of economically active females are engaged in agriculture, forestry and farm- fish related jobs. Very negligible percentage of women were engaged in administration (See, Annex A, Table 2). Similarly, compared to other development regions female population engaged in paid jobs other than agriculture are found relatively high in Central Development Region.

2. GENERAL BACKGROUND OF KATHMANDU VALLEY:

1.2.1 Introduction and Locational Setting:

Kathmandu Valley is situated in the Central Development Region of Nepal. It consists of three districts and three big cities- Kathmandu, Lalitpur and Bhaktapur and several townships. Kathmandu is the capital of the country also. Kathmandu Valley is the largest commercial and trade center as well as the major tourist center in Nepal. The Valley with its three districts covers a land area of 899 sq. kilometer.

Kathmandu Valley is surrounded by Sindhupalchowk district in the north, Nuwakot and Dhading districts in the west, Makanpur district in the south and Kavrepalanchowk district in the east.

1.2.2 Origin and Development:

According to a legend Kathmandu Valley was a big lake. Manjushree, a visitor and pilgrim from China drained the water out of the lake by cutting the ridge at the Katwaldaha gorge, near Chovar and established a town halfway between the Swoyambhu hill and Guheswari to which were added two other towns at later dates.

Fertile soils of Kathmandu Valley for agriculture, strategic location as a trade center between India and Tibet and natural protection against any outside invasion, all combined together were the preconditions for Kathmandu Valley to develop into an urban settlement at an early period. The climate of Kathmandu Valley is Mediterranean type and it is crisscrossed by three rivers- Bagmati, Bishnumati and Hanumante. The rich soils of the valley with favourable climatic condition and water supply facilitated good agricultural production which attracted the people to migrate to the valley. The improved agricultural techniques supplied surplus food for city dwellers who in turn devoted their time towards the development of political system, religion, literature, arts and crafts. Therefore, the cities and towns of the Kathmandu Valley are rich in its culture. Besides, the cross road location for its trade between Tibet and India also played an important role in the valley as it is evident from Kautilya's writings that the

early economy of Kathmandu was based more upon trade and commerce than on agriculture (Department of Housing and Physical Planning, H.M.G.).

Although the definite dates of early settlements in Kathmandu Valley have not been determined yet, it is believed that early settlements in the valley were established between the tenth and the seventeenth centuries B. C. The Swayambhu stupa, a notable Buddhist temple which was originally built by disciples of Manjushree in the beginning of the settlement history of the valley stands even today on a hillock to the west of the city of Kathmandu as the valley's oldest cultural landmark (Thapa, 1990). Historians wrote that by the time of Gautam Buddha's birth in 563 B. C., the valley was well populated. (Nepal, 1960). Among the existing settlements at present, Deopatan and Chabahil, which are believed to have been established by the king Devapal and his wife Charumati, daughter of Emperor Ashok of India late in the second century, are regarded as the earliest settlements of the valley. At a later period, settlements were established in the present city core of Kathmandu on the upland between the Bagmati and Bishnumati rivers to the northeast of their confluence.

For a long period of time in the past, the Kathmandu Valley itself signified as the entire kingdom of Nepal although the actual political boundaries extended beyond it. The valley was governed by the kings of various dynasties. Often the valley itself was divided into small kingdoms, each being restricted to a city. At the time of the Malla period (thirteenth century to seventeenth century), the valley was divided into numerous small principalities. It was only after the Gorkha conquest of the Kathmandu Valley in 1768 by king Prithivi Narayan Shah, that Kathmandu has become the capital of one unified kingdom of Nepal.

At present, having a location of capital city Kathmandu, Kathmandu Valley is the political and economic hub of the country. Besides, having numerous governmental agencies, many business offices are located in the valley. Kathmandu Valley has thus, a large number of office workers employed in government and business offices. The Kathmandu city within the valley is the largest urban nucleus and the nerve center of the country. The valley consists of concentrations of national, zonal, district and local

government offices as well as offices of foreign and international organizations. It also encompasses a broad variety of institutions and services and acts as the nation's prominent center of culture, finance, business and commerce. The rich cultural heritage such as arts, temples, shrines and festivals acts as great attractions for tourism. Kirkpatrick who in 1792 was one of the first person from western countries to visit Kathmandu and wrote about it, also has referred the Kathmandu Valley as "the valley of Neupal" (Nepal).

1.2.3 Climate:

Regarding the topography of Kathmandu Valley, it lies in the Siwalik Range and Mid Mountains. The climate of the Valley is sub-tropical, temperate and cool temperate. The average maximum temperature is 24.36 c and the average minimum temperature is 11.26 c. The average annual rainfall is 1300.4 ml.

1.2.4 Demographic Features:

The Kathmandu Valley consists of three major urban places of the country, accounting for about 3.6 percent of the total population. Similarly, almost 40 percent of the total urban population were concentrated in these three cities. The total population of the three districts, Kathmandu, Lalitpur and Bhaktapur is 11,05,379. The annual average population growth rate for these three districts is 2.93 in 1991.

The density of population for 1981 census is highest in Bhaktapur (1213.6), Kathmandu (10079.2) and Lalitpur (578.7). These three districts of Kathmandu Valley retained their position as having the highest population density during 1991 also. But the slight change in ranking occurred as a result of the emergence of Kathmandu district as having the highest population density in 1991. The total households in 1991 is 17,4869 and average household size is 5.9.

The male/female sex ratio for Kathmandu Valley is 103 and the sex ratios for the Kathmandu, Lalitpur, and Bhaktapur districts are 108,103 and 100 in 1991 census. This shows that the proportion of males is slightly outnumbers females in Kathmandu

and Lalitpur districts and is equal in Bhaktapur district, whereas for the nation as a whole females slightly outnumber the male population.

1.2.5 Caste, Culture and Religion:

Since, the capital city is located in the valley and the other two main urban cities are also situated in the valley, many people from different parts of the country with different ethnic background are found in the valley. However, Newars are the dominant caste group found in the valley, since they are the indigenous inhabitants of the valley. Among the total population in the valley, 43.90 percent are Newars, 18.24 percent Chhetri, 15.78 percent Brahmin (Terai and Hill), 7.97 percent Tamang and 14.11 percent from different ethnic groups such as Rai, Limbu, Sherpa Gurung, Yadav, Magar, Damai, Kami, Jiral, Thakali, Danuar, Sarki, Bhote, Marwadi, Bengali, Sikh, Muslim, Jain, Dhobi, Majhi, Sunwar, Kumal Kayastha, Bania, Rajput, Tharu, and so on are resided (Population census, 1991 vol. 1., Part VII). It has been thus observed that majority of the people are from Newar ethnic groups. However, a large number of other people, specially Brahmins and Chhetries from eastern and western hills of the country have been migrating every year.

Since the majority of Newars are the indigenous inhabitants of the valley the traditional culture of Newars has dominated the valley. The main factor of the Newar's culture is that they believed in organization and lived in organization through the process of assimilation. But recently, Newar culture has been declining due to the entry of non-Newars in large numbers in the valley and also to the effect of modernization.

As regards the religion, majority of the people are Hindus. After Hinduism the next religion of the people are followers of Buddhism, Jainism, Islam, Christianity and so on.

1.2.6 Literacy Rate and Educational Attainment:

Among the districts of Nepal Kathmandu occupied the first position with respect to literacy rate in 1981 and 1991 census followed by Lalitpur and Bhaktapur. The average literacy rate for Nepal is 36.8 percent only. As regards educational attainment Kathmandu Valley has more access to education for males and females

compared to other places or urban areas of the country. The Ministry of Education and Culture reported that out of 18815 schools of the country 1052 schools are located in Kathmandu Valley. Similarly, the data shows that the status of school attendance persons is also high in the valley. Table 1.6 provides some glimpses about the level of education by current status of school attendance and level of education for Kathmandu Valley.

Table 1.6:
Population 6 to 25 Years of Age Below S. L.C. Level of Education for Kathmandu Valley, 1991.

Total Population (6-25 Yrs.of Age)	Total School Attending Pop.	Beginners	Primary	Secondary
339083 (100%)	224030 (66.06%)	20543 (6.05%)	128096 (37.77%)	75391 (22.23%)

Source: Census Report, Vol. 1, Part X, C.B.S. 1993.

S.L.C. Denotes to School Leaving Certificate

The population aged 15 and over in Kathmandu Valley is reported as 363363. Out of which, a total of 88642 have educational background of intermediate and above level of education. This means a total of 24.46 percent of that age group have tertiary educational background.

1.2.7 Economic Participation:

Most of the literate and well-educated people are concentrated in three cities of Kathmandu Valley. Similarly, many developmental works have been conducted in those cities and the growth of houses and buildings has created shortage of land for cultivation. Therefore, people are mostly engaged in organised sector's employment rather than agricultural works compared to other parts of the country. At the same time the economic participation rate of the people for the valley is lower compared to rural

areas of Nepal. But the economic participation rates for the three cities of the valley is high compared to other cities of the country except Pokhara.

The workforce participation of the people for the three districts of the valley is shown in Table 1.7.

Table 1.7:

Economically Active Population 10 Years of Age and Over for Kathmandu Valley, 1991

Total Pop.		Economically Active		Economically not Active		Not Stated	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Kath. Valley	851057	31.36	18.26	19.22	30.62	0.26	0.22
Lalitpur	196900	31.24	18.0	19.13	31.23	0.20	0.17
Bhaktapur	127579	31.69	22.98	17.94	27.00	0.18	0.17
Kathmandu	526578	31.17	13.80	20.59	33.65	0.42	0.32

Source: Population census, 1991- Vol. 1, Part XII, C.B. S., 1993.

The Table shows that the economically active population aged 10 years and above for Kathmandu Valley is 49.62 of which, 31.36 percent are males and 18.26 percent females. Similarly, economically not active population of same age is 49.84, - 19.22 percent males and 30.62 percent females. The percentage of those people who have not stated anything about employment is 0.48. It shows that a higher percentage of female population are economically not active compared to male population in Kathmandu Valley.

Among economically active population 63.45 percent are males and 36.64 percent females for Kathmandu Valley. In all the three districts the participation of women in farm/ fish related jobs is high and professional/ technical and administrative work is very low. Compared to Kathmandu and Lalitpur, participation of women in various jobs other than farm/ fish work is relatively low for Bhaktapur (Annex A Table).

1.3 Statement of the Problem:

Employment is a salient component of human development. The total income of the country depends on the volume of total employment. As women are a part of population their participation in economic activities is considered as important. Economically active male as well as female population is regarded as a true indicator of economic development of a country. The qualitative aspect of economically active population is more important than its quantitative aspect since true affluence should be measured by the quality of life of the people living in a country and working in organizations of all kinds (Nassef, 1974).

In the changing economy of today it has become increasingly necessary for women to take up suitable employment and earn a living. In developing countries a bulk of the families have an income which is far below that is compatible with minimum standards of living. On the other hand, with the spread of education these minimum standards are rising along with the costs and the field of what may be regarded as necessities of life is ever widening. It is difficult, therefore, for the woman to remain silent and apart, without making whatever contribution she can make to the family income and give better comforts to her family.

The very process of economic development generates sizable quantity of work opportunities for women outside the home in non- agricultural activities. Rapid economic development which necessitates better management of resources, technology and organization always generates ample employment opportunities. Female population accounting for fifty percent of the total population is capable of influencing modern economy because of its being an important source of labor supply to a rapidly growing economy. It is now therefore increasingly being realized that women must be integrated

into the mainstream of development process as equal partners with men (S. Uma Devi, 1994).

The changing social and economic conditions have compelled women to work outside and earn thereby. Their increased participation in economic sphere outside home has made them independent. Education is the main factor which has brought them from the subordinate position to an equal level with men. An educated woman is more likely to get a job than a less educated woman. The chances of an educated woman securing a well paid job are also brighter. It is usually assumed from a social viewpoint that one of the primary aims of encouraging women to get higher education is to equip them for a job, so that in time of need they can find employment for themselves (Ranade, 1970).

The image of women in society and their place in the economic activities is fast changing. These days women have actively contributed to the promotion of economic development in different capacities by working in different professions. Education and training have again increased their mobility and they can actively participate in all types of work and thus raise the living standard. The scenario of economic activity has apparently indicated the correlation between employment of women and their socio-economic status.

Participation of women in gainful employment has been increasing worldwide since the Second World War. However, the participation of women among nations has been uneven and its pace has varied according to changing cycles of the world economy. In developed and industrialized countries, the rise in women's formal labor participation has been recognized as one of the most profound social changes of the post war decades. In the developing countries also in the present context, the growth in women's paid labor force participation has been recognized as a major factor in transforming the socio-economic life of the people in general and of women in particular.

National variations in female labor supply, employment levels and employment patterns are influenced to a very great extent by the overall level of world and national development, by the sectoral composition of employment growth or the international division of labor, by commercial cycles in the global economy, and by other national and international demand-side factors (Stichter and Parpart ed.; 1990). Again level of employment is related with the level of employees' education, knowledge and skills, the capability, particularly on the knowledge/ skill front.

In Nepal, female population constitutes about 50 percent of the total population. However, the majority of them are still illiterate, which is a great barrier for improving the position of women in formal employment and health and in generally attaining equal status. The literacy rate for women was only 25 percent compared to 54 percent for men. There is a decreasing trend of females as the level of education goes up due to the lower percentage of enrolment and the higher dropouts of females. There is also a rural - urban gap in education. The male - female gap in attaining education in the urban area is narrow compared to that in the rural area. In 1991, for example, the girl students in grade 1- 5 consisted of only 10. 6 percent in the rural area compared to 16. 97 percent in the urban area. Likewise, at the secondary education level, females were only 3.97 percent in the rural area compared to 15. 02 percent in the urban area. The percentage of females in primary, lower secondary and secondary levels are 39, 35, and 32 respectively. The percentage of females in higher education is still lower and mostly concentrated in urban areas. The low level of education affected the participation of females in the job market. Besides, the other socio-cultural factors which hinder women from entering into non- traditional occupation are socialization of girls into traditional roles, resistance and disapproval from family and society, lack of alternative female role models, limited experience with tools and mechanical operations, lack of community support systems, restricted mobility and women's own attitudes and perceptions (ILO : 1993).

The status of women in Nepal is low. However, in rural areas, especially in hills, their contribution to household production and income was found to be at par with men, both in terms of labor input as well as in decision making roles (Acharya and

Bennett; 1981). The job opportunity outside home and agriculture is very limited due to different reasons and those limited job opportunities available to them are primarily of low status and poorly paid (Papola; 1982: 268).

The economically active female population was around only 40 percent in 1991. The daily chores of family life in rural Nepal involve women in labor-intensive farm work and time-consuming domestic work in collecting fuel and water and in preparing of food for household members and farm workers. However, those kinds of work were not included in the census definition of economic activity, so that more than 36 percent of the female population was reported as homemakers and inactive in economic terms.

Agriculture is the main source of employment for women in Nepal constituting 30.4 percent of the total agricultural labor force. Thus, the participation of women in non-agricultural sectors is low but has shown a substantial increase in 1991 compared to that in earlier censuses. The proportion of women in non-agricultural sector found to have increased from 1.8 percent in 1971 to 8.9 percent in 1991. In the non-agricultural sector, personnel and community services were found to be the leading sources of employment for women. Among all the occupational categories, the female proportion was the highest in the farm/ fish category, which is 45.1 percent in 1991. The next largest field of employment for them was in the work that did not require skilled laborers. The proportion of females among the technical and professional workers is 15.1 percent and administrative workers is even lower, which was 9.3 percent. Similarly, the proportion of women workers in industry is 23.0 percent in 1990/91. However, the number of female workers has increased more than six fold from 1977/1978 to 1990/1991. According to one survey almost 71 percent of women employees in the industries work because of poverty (Basnet, 1991).

According to Human Development Report 1998, human development rank for Nepal is 152, which is very low compared to other countries. Some of the important reasons for the low ranking of human development indicator is the effect of low enrolment of women in different levels of education, low participation in labor-force specially in gainful employment and less attention is paid to their health and nutrition.

Calculating the human development from the different groups of population holds a mirror of the society, revealing its strengths and weaknesses. Human development is not possible without gender equality. So long as women are excluded from development, the process of development will remain quite below the level of expectation since sustainable human development implies not gendering the development paradigm.

In order to achieve balanced development women must participate in the mainstream of developmental activities for improving their social, economic, political and legal status. The government should provide productive employment opportunities to them by increasing their efficiencies through inculcating appropriate knowledge and skills. It should create appropriate environment and infrastructures at all levels, so that women could play a decisive role in development activities.

Though women employment rate is increasing, the ratio of women compared to total employment in different occupations other than agriculture and farm/ fish work was found to be very low. Therefore, it should be encouraged at all the levels to improve the employment status of women. The Ninth Five Year plan had emphasized the alleviation of poverty and employment of women in different suitable occupations. For this it would be necessary to explore the existing situation and provide future guidelines. In this situation, the present study is relevant since the educational institutions are producing only qualified persons (including females) in different fields without any plan for absorption or its utilization in employment field. This may lead to compounding of problems and the wastage of education and training of women. In this regard the study tried to provide insights into women's participation in organized sectors and their problems and future prospects. The guiding focus of the present research therefore is the assessment of the key issues of human resource development in Nepal such as educational attainment of females in general and employment in organized sectors in particular. Besides, attempt has been made in this study to answer the following research questions:

-) Whether or not has the expansion of human resource development through formal education given to women has improved their access to participation in economic activities?
-) Whether or not have the women with higher education level got opportunity for better jobs?
-) Whether or not the involvement of women in paid jobs has changed their economic status?
-) Whether or not are women confined only to poorly paid , low skilled and low status jobs?
-) What is the nature of the employment pattern of women in organized sectors?
-) Are the occupations in which the women are employed related to their educational background ?
-) What are the opinions of women regarding their employment and the problems they face in accomplishing their jobs?

1.4 Justification of the Study:

By properly developing human resources, nations improve their ability to bring in and absorb technology, operate complex machines, consume wisely and save optimally, work diligently and govern efficiently. A complete and comprehensive manpower development program is necessary for overall development of a nation. Shortage of appropriately educated and trained manpower would hinder the progress in national development at all stages.

For a long time opportunities for women in work fields other than agriculture were restricted in Nepal. The organized sectors did not open their doors easily to

Nepalese women before the advent of democracy in 1951. But after the dawn of democracy, women started entering into various professions i.g. teaching, legal, medical, engineering, administration, etc. Today, many women in urban areas, especially in Kathmandu Valley are coming forward to shoulder the burden of work along with their fellow- men in every walk of life.

Women population in Nepal is slightly more than half of the total population. Therefore, it is very important to explore the contributions they make to development. On the other hand use of capital and technology stipulates the need for more knowledge and skills required in every aspect of development work. There is a close connection between human resource management and the transition of economy from a predominantly agricultural economy to a predominantly industrial one (Economics and Development Resource Center; 1991).

The experience of the developing countries showed that one of the far-reaching forces for social and economic change in their societies (over the last three decades) has been women's participation in paid employment. It has been argued that the exploration of the changing pattern of women's paid employment is most fruitfully to be approached through making explicit the duality of the occupational structure (and indeed, of the division of labor in general). The structural properties of social systems are simultaneously through the medium and outcome of social acts (1981). The occupational structure is at the same time a 'social product' as it sets limits on and creates opportunities for the people (women in the present context) with jobs who are producing it. In order to explain this process rather than simply to describe the outcome, a distinctive strategy is required for detailed research.

Gender issues have evoked considerable concern the world over since the seventies. This has resulted in expensive research on the problems of women in different strata. Those researches in turn have generated immense awareness of the need for improving the status of women. The keyhole peeps that women studies have provided have unlocked the doors behind which women remained invisible. The extensive research on women's studies also provided more clues to policy makers and administrators at the national and international levels (Gopalan, 1995) .

One of the strategies which emphasize the development of the socio-economic life of the people is to raise the economic and social status of women, which is possible by exploring their roles, status in economic development. There is also a need to integrate employment and manpower planning and to increasingly view human resource development from an employment perspective of the women.

In order to improve the educational level of the females and to formulate the human resource policy and to forge economic development it is important to identify the present status of the human resources. In this connection it would be essential to understand women's educational background, work status and their problems in economic participation.

There is thus a need for research which highlights the status of female educational attainment and their ratio and structure in formal employment.

Studies carried out for groups of countries or for any individual country and over time consistently show that social returns to investment in education, for example are high and often times higher than returns to physical capital (Schultz; 1961; Densison; 1967; Krueger; 1968; Nadiri; 1972). Since the welfare aspect of human resource development (including female's) was accorded greater attention in the early 1970's, education together with other factors was seen primarily not as capital investment but as basic needs. But afterwards investment in education was also regarded as capital investment, since education increases capabilities of a person. Similarly, besides being as approach to enhancing productivity and earning power in the long run, meeting these needs became an integral component of short-run poverty alleviation strategies. These strategies were also viewed as complementary to increasing employment via- labor-intensive technologies and reducing inequalities in income and wealth (ADB; 1991). In this context, for formulating human resource policy and economic development extensive research should be carried out, and the study has traced out the recent trends in participation of females at different levels of education and their participation in economic activities especially in organized sectors.

Some of the issues especially where much more analytical work needs to be carried out are: if employment planning is to be made operational then it is imperative that the focus has to be shifted to short- and medium term employment planning. For this, there is an urgent need to develop a pragmatic and realistic framework for measuring and monitoring changes in the employment situation including women's. There is also a need to have an accurate estimate of labor force supply in the medium and long-term basis for employment planning. One particular problem, mainly for the South Asian countries is the measurement and growth of the female labor. For this the existing sources of data (i.e. labor- force surveys) come up with very unsatisfactory estimates of female labor -force participation rates. With increasing education amongst females their demand for employment especially in the formal sectors of the economy will increase. There is a considerable need to be able to correctly assess this change for realistic employment planning. The study has explored educated women's role in economic development and also indicated what more is needed for women's maximum participation in economic development by employing themselves in organized sectors in Nepal.

The objectives of the study are simple and modest. It merely seeks to identify the educational attainment by females at different levels and their employment structure, problems in employment in different important organized sectors like government, teaching, INGO's / NGO's and private.

The Eighth Five Year Plan of Nepal stated that necessary arrangements will be made for the agencies concerned to collect and update information and statistical details related to manpower and employment. But there is no systematic study conducted so far to explore women's employment structure in organized sectors of Kathmandu Valley. Since women population covers half of the total population, suitable women in suitable jobs promote balanced development in the country.

A review of the distribution of manpower consistent with the goals of the economy would be necessary for making progress in the desired direction. Any

definition of development must assume that there are certain universal values. One of these values is that all individuals have an equal right to make their own decisions and to develop their individual potentials, irrespective of their race, religion or sex. A distribution of benefits from which half the population is excluded cannot be egalitarian (Helen Ware, 1981).

For the great majority of women in the third world countries, poverty is a more important issue than women's rights. This is why it is so important to change emphasis to change from women's rights and women's status to women's participation both in creating development and sharing its benefits. The research has explored this issue about Nepal and Kathmandu Valley.

Since no worthwhile study has been undertaken in an intellectual vacuum at a micro level, an attempt is made to look into the past efforts in this direction, to benefit from their experience by taking cognizance of their pitfalls. The intellectual sojourn into the realm of fellow researchers in Nepal and outside reveals that prior research on women employment has made advances on the conceptual and methodological plan and enlightens about the sensitive areas for enhancing the generality of the results. Though the past research in the area cleared a lot of deadwood, there are still areas requiring conceptual clarity and areas untouched so far in the area.

1.5 Objectives of the Study:

The main objective of the research is to assess the key issues of human resource development with relation to female's educational background and their employment pattern in organized sectors.

The specific objectives are:

- (i) to find out the educational attainment by females.
- (ii) to assess female manpower distribution by sector.
- (iii) to identify the important posts occupied by females in different jobs and their attainment of in- service training and relevancy of their training and skills to their jobs.
- (iv) to find out the socio- economic status of employed women.
- (v) to explore major problems of women employees.
- (vi) to provide recommendations for improving women's employment.

1.6 Delimitation of the Study:

Based on the objectives of the research study the research study is delimited to the employed women working in the organized sectors of Kathmandu Valley. The study is further restricted to women workers in the governmental, teaching, INGOs/NGOs and private sectors. Though the employment of women in industrial sector is very important, this sector is not included in the study, since very few educated women were found working in that sector and unavailability of large scale industries in Kathmandu Valley. In industrial sector, majority of women were working in cotton textile and carpet making factories in low cadre (Singh, Maskey et'al, 1994). Similarly, the study is also confined to the women employees from the level of non-gazetted I and similar position of upper higher levels.

1.7 Methodology:

The study was based both on primary as well as secondary sources of information. For secondary data/ information was collected from libraries, Census Reports, books, research reports and other reports, booklets and bulletins published by National Planning Commission, Ministry of Education, Ministry of General Administration, Tribhuvan University and other concerned institutions. The secondary information was also collected for the regions other than Kathmandu Valley.

For the primary data regarding the pattern and structure of employed women, interviews/ questionnaires were used to collect from concerned office management, the

head or concerned personnel or administrative officers. The other primary information was collected through field visits and questionnaires from women employees in government, teaching, INGOs/NGOs and private organized sectors and employers, policy makers and experts concerned.

Semi-structured questionnaires were administered for female employees in above- mentioned organized sectors as well as employers, policy makers and concerned experts available in Kathmandu Valley at the time of survey.

Kathmandu Valley was selected for the study area due to its accessibility, population structure, concentration of various organized sectors and unique socio-economic characteristics. The capital of the country as well as the three important towns of the country are located in the valley. Most of the educated women are confined in the Valley. The literacy rate is highest in Kathmandu Valley compared to other parts of the country. Among the school attendees about 47 percent in primary level and 45 percent in secondary level were girls, in 1991. Many important government ministries and departments, educational institutions, INGOs/NGOs and private organizations are located in the Valley. Similarly, women having different occupational backgrounds representing different ethnic groups and different parts of the country were found in the valley.

17.1 Sample:

For the purpose of collecting primary information the ideal method of sample survey was adopted, which covered various organized employment sectors of the valley. The women employees were grouped into three levels as non- gazetted I class, gazetted III and II and gazetted I class in government organizations and similar positions at par with GO in other sectors.

The samples were collected from different organized sectors such as government, educational institutions, INGOs/ NGOs and private organizations. While selecting the different branches or departments of the selected organizations priority

was given to the different activities of the organizations and the involvement of women employees concerned.

In the government sector, the ministries of Agriculture, General Administration, Law, Finance, Education, Culture and Archeology, Women and Social Welfare, Forestry, Water Resources, Health, Labor and Foreign Affairs and the important departments under above-mentioned ministries were included for the field survey.

Similarly, in the educational sector, campuses under the Institute of Engineering, Institute of Medicine, Institute of Science and Technology, Faculty of Social Sciences, Faculty of Management, Faculty of Education, Faculty of Law, central office, Research Centers of Tribhuvan University and training institutions as Administrative Staff College, Women's Training Center have been incorporated. Tribhuvan University's various disciplines like social sciences, management, education, law, engineering, medicine, science and technology were included.

Among the INGO / NGO various INGOs/ NGOs working in various aspects such as UMN, CARE International in Nepal, HELVETAS, ICIMOD, IUCN, Save the Children, UHN, SNV, SAV/N, CEPBREAD, Asmita, CRT, PPDP, CWD, LALS, RECPEC, CREPHA, SEARCH, LACC, ATC, CAR have been incorporated.

Similarly, from the private sector, financial institutions like Nepal Bank, Kathmandu Bank, air lines like Air France, Lufthansa, Thai International Airways, travel agencies like Kumari tours and Travels, Lalima Travels, hotels like Hotel Soaltee Oberai, Hotel Narayani, Hotel Summit were included.

Another part of the survey was conducted for employers, policy makers and concerned experts. Thus, semi-structured questionnaires were administered to the various employers of different organized sectors, policy makers as Ministers, Member of Parliament from Upper House and Lower House, Ex- Priministers, Vice- Chairman and Member of National Planning Commission, Vice-Chancellor and Rector, Campus Chiefs, Directors of Research Centers and Department Heads of Tribhuvan University, Governor of Nepal Rastra Bank, Secretaries, Ex-Secretaries and Directors of

government organizations, and concerned experts including gender experts, researchers and renowned professors. Sample of questionnaires is given in Annex D.

1.7.2 Sample Size:

The total sample size from women employees was 449. The sample taken from different organized sectors was as follows:

Organized Sector	Questionnaire Administered	Questionnaire Collected
Government	170	154
Teaching Institutions	200	173
INGOs/ NGOs	70	68
Private	60	54
Total	500	449

Likewise, the questionnaire administered and sample collected from employers, policy makers and experts was broken down as below:

	Questionnaire Administered	Questionnaire Collected
Employers	32	31
Policy Makers	14	14
Experts	14	12
Total	60	57

1.7.3 Sampling Method:

For the purpose of selecting the population, stratified random and purposive sampling method was used in the study. The questionnaires were distributed to all the levels of women working in the selected organizations and collected through personal contact. In some cases, where questionnaires could not be collected from official personnel and from personal contact, telephone interview was conducted and the

questionnaires filled up. While administering the questionnaire attention was given specially to include the top level women employees in all the sectors.

Similarly, while administering the questionnaire to the employers, policy makers and experts purposive sampling was used so as to cover employers of various employment sectors and different policy makers and experts from selected sectors as available in Kathmandu at the time of survey.

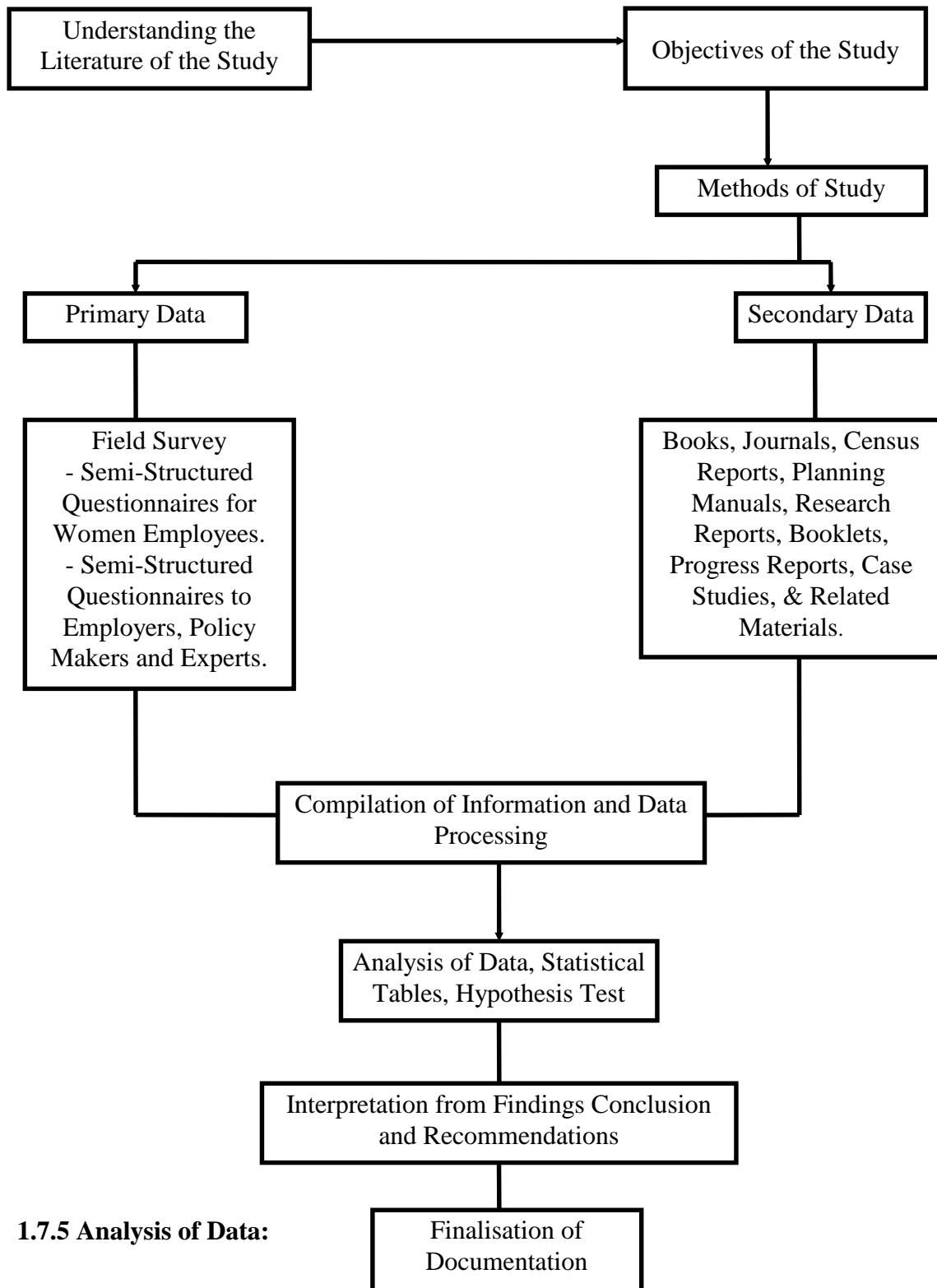
1.7.4 Hypothesis:

The null hypothesis tested in the study were as follows:

1. There is no association between educational qualification and level of employment
2. There is no association between educational qualification and level of income.
3. There is no correlation between level of employment and level of income.
4. Employment level is independent of training.
5. There is no significant association between reason for working for different levels of women employees.
6. There is no association between the number of service years and promotion times.
7. The opinions of different levels of women employees in ranking the preference for government measures to improve women's employment are independent.
8. There is no significant association between employers, policy makers and experts regarding suitable jobs for women.
9. There is no significant association between employers, policy makers and experts regarding women's performance in jobs.
10. The opinions of employers, policy makers and experts in ranking preference for additional facilities for women are independent.
11. The opinions of employers, policy makers and experts in ranking different desirable measures by government to improve women's employment in general are independent.

Figure 1.1:

Flow Chart of Study Design Showing the Steps of the Study Process



The data analysis was done by using simple statistical tables and empirical analysis. The obtained information on the human resource development in Nepal and on women employment in organized sectors of Kathmandu Valley under study was compiled and analyzed by simple statistical tables and cross classification to reveal relationships among each responding group of the employment i. e. top, middle and lower with regard to education and level of employment, training and levels of employment, income and level of employment, education and occupational group, service years and promotion times, and so on. These associations have been computed by correlation using χ^2 test and phi-correlation coefficient. Similarly, compiled opinion questionnaires from different level of women employees and employers, policy makers and experts were tabulated for comparative purposes. The response to each choice in every question was weighted by the value of rank assigned to it by the respondents and arithmetic mean was calculated to find the overall rank for each choice for the employers, policy makers and experts. The Spearman Rho's rank correlation was calculated to find the degree of agreement among the responding groups from the women employees and employers, policy makers and experts.

1.8 Organization of the Study:

The study has been divided into eight chapters as follows:

The first chapter deals with the general introduction and background of Nepal and Kathmandu Valley focusing the demographic characteristics and socio-economic characteristics, statement of the problem, justification for the study, objectives of the study, delimitation of the study, methodology employed in the study and organization of the study.

The second chapter reviewed related literature in the area of women employment i.e. importance of women employment, relationship between education and job of women, trends in women employment and the problems of women employees and their job satisfaction.

The third chapter constituted the concept of human resource development, history of education and development of education system in Nepal, structure of education system, educational attainment by female population, their enrolment ratios

in primary, lower secondary, secondary and higher education by analyzing census data and data from concerned institutions.

The fourth chapter deals with the employment pattern in different organized sectors in the national context. This chapter also highlighted the constraints for education for females and different policies and programs of Government for developing education and women's participation in economic activity included in Development Plans of Nepal.

The fifth chapter presented and analyzed the female employment structure mainly in four important organized sectors of the Kathmandu Valley i. e. different ministries and departments of government, different institutes/ faculties and offices including research center of Tribhuvan University, Administrative Staff College and Women's Training Center of educational institutions, INGO's and NGO's and private organizations by using primary data. The chapter also analyzed and described the socio-economic factors such as age at marriage, ethnic group, family structure, economic status, educational attainment, in- service training and so on of the employed women. Likewise the problems of women and their preferences for additional facilities and government measures to improve women's employment also are highlighted in the chapter.

The sixth chapter dealt with the opinions of employers, policy makers and experts regarding women' employment in organized sectors.

Chapter Seven covered the empirical analysis of women employee's views and employers, policy makers and experts' perceptions regarding women's employment in organized sectors.

Finally, chapter eight highlighted the main findings of the study, and the recommendations and policy implications for improving female's educational status and women's employment in organized sectors of Nepal.

CHAPTER II

EVIEW OF LITERATURE

There are different factors which determine development process. Among other determinants of development process, the quality and quantity of labour force is an important factor. The rate of economic growth is determined by the 'mix' of application of human skills and technology to the formation of capital in the exploitation of natural resources (UNESCO, 1982).

Female population covers about half of the total population in the world. Therefore, if development is meant to widen opportunities for every person, then continuing exclusion of women from many opportunities of life totally warps the process of development. Women are essential agents of economic change. As the Human Development Report points out: "investing in women's capabilities and empowering them to exercise their choices is not only valuable in itself but is also the surest way to contribute to economic growth and overall development" (Human Development Report: 1995). The role of women in economic development directly relates to women's participation in education and employment. There are many theories regarding women's role in economic development.

The Classical Approach says that women's participation in paid jobs rests heavily on the effect of income and prices and on the behavior of women.

The Neo-Classical explanations consider the role of women as that of adjusting to the market forces. However, they do not pass any value judgment about the position of women, they rest content with providing an explanation in technical terms without questioning the existing system which puts women in a disadvantaged position.

The institutionalists start women from the side of the family and they look at the connection between women's non-market and market work. According to them higher entry of women in the job market is associated with growing availability of

women's work. Women have no choice, it is the market which decides what job they would do. However, the dichotomy between home and market work of women should not be carried too far since home is as much conditioned by the market and by social factors. The main view of the institutionalists is that the role of women is confined to certain sectors of economy. It is the market which imposes such a role on them so they can be paid lower wages. Thus, institutional economists show that sex inequality takes the form of 'job discrimination' and not 'wage discrimination' i.e. sex discrimination manifests not as unequal pay for equal work but rather as unequal job assignments.

Angels had developed the Marxist approach in his work "Origin of Family, Private Property and the State". The Marxist approach from the very beginning has been historical and hence women's labour force participation is also seen by them in a historical perspective. They place greater emphasis on the change in the nature of the family. As for example, during the nineteenth century, a working girl contributed to the family's income. But gradually over a time, single working girls started keeping their wages for themselves. Thus, the old familial values were replaced by new individualistic ones.

The viewers of Radical approach consider that family survives because it serves the interests of the capitalists and show that sex inequality outside home is based on sex- inequality at home. For them, the more important thing is the overthrow of patriarchal family structure. According to Radicals, an increasing number of women go for paid work, to satisfy the needs of patriarchal capitalism which is industrial centered. The value of women's labour at home decreased for capitalism as well as for husbands. Similarly, the growth of capitalism required an expanding labour force which could be only maintained by bringing women out of their house for wage labour (S. Uma Devi, 1994).

Thus in analyzing the various theoretical approaches it has been discovered that central to the role of women is the effect of the market. The Neo-classicals see women's behaviour and role as one of the adjusting to market forces, while the institutionalists consider that the women has hardly any choice because it is the

market which decides what work a woman would do and thereby pays her a low wage by segregating in the labour market. Marxists and radicals point out that the historical growth of capitalism has successively found different ways of exploiting women both in the family and in the market. Thus, there is a " reciprocal relationship " between economic development and the development of the household.

The studies on the female employment reveals that the extent to which women's participation in gainful employment varies from one country to another and from one region to another and one stage of economic development to another. However, the importance of women employment in gainful employment has been accepted everywhere and it is also realized that there is interrelationship between education and job. There are also gender differences in society and work places which creates many problems to women in job and society. Many writers and researchers have explored the ramifications of these subjects. Some of the books, research studies, case studies, articles on the subject, which are accessible, have been classified and reviewed under the following heads:

1. Importance of women employment.
2. Relationship between education and job of women.
3. Trends in women employment.
4. Problems of women in job and job satisfaction.
5. Nepalese context.

2.1. Importance of women employment:

Prior to the mid 1970s, the economic activities of women were rarely the subject of research or of development efforts. Only after 1970 the researchers documented the importance of women's work to family survival and by 1980, both government and international agencies had begun to incorporate women's issues to their development programs (Overhalt, et. al ,1985).

Ester Boserup reveals that economic and social development unavoidably entails the disintegration of the division of labour among the two sexes that has been traditionally established in the village. With modernization of agriculture and with migration to the towns, a new sex pattern of productive work must emerge, for better or for worse. In the course of this transition women will be deprived of their productive functions, and the whole process of growth will thereby get retarded.

According to Boserup regarding women's role in employment, in some jobs women are more efficient than men. For instance, it is generally agreed that women are superior teachers and teaching will attract many able women but few able men (Boserup, 1970).

M. Thea Sinclair is of the view that the significance of women's unwaged labour continues to have a crucial effect on their identity as waged workers, in spite of their integral role within the paid labour force. Comparative analysis of the conditions under which women work and the ways in which their work is defined is necessary both for explaining inequality and for shedding light on the ways in which women's inferior position in the workforce is reinforced or challenged (Sinclair, 1985).

According to a study conducted by the Development Studies Center of Australian National University, women of South East and East Asia have been migrating to the cities in quite large numbers. The rise in the proportion of the urban women, who are in the workforce, suggests that migrants from rural areas continue to play the important economic role they did before moving, and that urban born women, whose rates of economic activity were always lower, are being released from a confined role in reproducing and nurturing the workforce to a much more active participation in the process of economic development (The Australian National University, 1984).

Indiradevi observed that of the twelve different roles of women financial task emerged as most dominant against household tasks among the role performance. Employment of women will accelerate the process of synchronization. In roles, it may take the form of converting majority of males' roles centered around financial tasks into joint ones and if possible, to establish their dominance in certain areas and in altering the autonomous pattern in feminine tasks centered around into some degree of jointness (Indiradevi, 1987).

Vinita Srivastava reveals that economic need has been repeatedly cited as one of the most important factors impelling women to the labour force. Similarly, the employment of married women seems to influence the pattern of worksharing within the home. The employment status of women also seems to be the major factor accounting for the lower fertility of employed married women as compared to the unemployed married women. The findings of her research study thus tells us of the demands that work makes on them as participants in the occupational and familial systems (Srivastava,1978).

According to C. A. Hate, there are many factors which are responsible for the change in status of women. Socio-economic status is one of them (Hate, 1969).

According to a study undertaken by Sri Ram Center of Industrial relations, India in 1972, middle class working women's main reason for entering into paid job is to reduce the economic burden of the families. The women work in order to get advantages such as to provide good education and quality food for their family members, specially children, and to save some money for future economic security (Sri Ram Center, 1972).

Basudev Sahoo finds out that women constitute almost half of the total population of India. But their role in the socio- economic reconstruction of the country is not as it ought to be. Till independence, education of the women was at a very despicable state. Only after independence, women's education has made rapid strides. Women have taken to higher education, liberal arts as well as technical and professional. Consequently they are now found doing various types of work in various organizations. With rising prices making maintenance of family a hard task, housewives too have started supplementing their family incomes as part time economically productive workers. Yet women-folk in many areas have still lagged far behind their male counterparts. There are sociological and psychological factors inhibiting the desirable progress in women employment (Sahoo, 1990).

Alakh N. Sharma and Seema Singh revealed that in India, where women have been provided equal social, political and economic rights by the constitution, they still suffer from acute social, economic and cultural exploitation. Of all types of exploitation, economic exploitation of women is the most complex and deplorable (Sharma and Singh, 1992).

Lakdawala observed that any unemployment is a social waste but an educated unemployed represents a multiple waste, as it involves a waste of resources used in education and implies a negative rate of return to investment therein. Generally, it has been argued that the returns of primary education are very high, the returns to high school education are fairly high, but the returns to tertiary education are fairly low (Lakdawala, 1978).

Elizabeth Cody Stanton explains that economic independence for women is must The writer quoted in Sage Year book Publication as "when women can support themselves, have their entry to all the trades and professions, with a house of their own over their heads and a bank account, they will own their bodies and be dictators in social realms" (Stanton, 1990).

Kala Rani is of the view that traditionally women's occupational status has always been closely associated with the home and family. In recent times educational, political economic and social changes have necessitated change in women' status and role. At present there is no such job which they cannot aspire after. More and more educated women are taking up new occupational roles (Rani, 1976).

S. Uma Devi stated that economic development has been found to be exploitative of not only the poor but also of women and nature. The origin of feminist movement and ecological movement can be traced to the realization of this grim fact. Women's studies have reached a stage where theoretically it has become very challenging, but from her research it was found that in practice also after

industrial revolution, the feminist economies are opening up new vistas (Uma Devi,1994).

Rande and Ramachandran mentioned that the place of women in the economic life of a country is undergoing farreaching changes everywhere. In Indian context, it is necessary to make a distinction between rural and urban attitudes to employment of women as also attitudes of organized and unorganized employers towards such employment.

These days more and more countries are beginning to appreciate that they need women as well as men for the purposes of national development and increasing standard of living (ILO: Women Workers in a Changing World, 1963, p.7, quoted by the authors,1970). By conducting two surveys in Delhi and Bombay the researchers found out that women should work if it was necessitated by economic conditions of the family, since out of 404 women, nearly 74 percent felt they were at work or they considered working necessary for economic reasons. Another major finding of their surveys is that among the educated working women, there are more women in teaching than in any other profession.and with the employment in organized sectors, the socio-economic structure of women in two metropolitan centers has changed (Ranade and Ramachandran,1970).

Women have been long associated with development activities and economic occupations but their contributions to well-being and progress of the family, community and nation have been underplayed due to various reasons. With the spread of education and the growing awareness as well as willingness, even enthusiasm to take a increasingly active part in development efforts have only recently begun to be recorded, documented and disseminated. The increasingly significant role of women's association, forums, agencies and government departments in the development of women has been responsible to a large extent for the rapidly changing women's scene in recent decades (Sapru,1989).

Agrawal is of the view that today the imperative need is to provide equality of status, roles and position to women. Improvement in the quality of the output of working is one way of enhancing women's contribution to socio-economic development. He concludes that the more important aspect is that of drawing women into productive work since there is non- utilization of the potential of women in service sectors and professions of different kinds (Agrawal,1984).

A similar view was stated by Gulati. According to Gulati, women must engage themselves in productive work because" work outside home confers on them prestige and status as compared to a housewife" (Gulati,1975).

Sarala Gopalan is of the view that the advancement of any group of people in a society, necessarily has to be through a process of empowerment which would facilitate participation in decision-making at all levels on equal terms with their counterparts. Women particularly, have to be empowered to become equal partners in the household as much as in the society. The access to empowerment seems largely through the economic route (Sarala Gopalan,1995). Women's economic productivity is a critical factor, as the dependence of the family on their contribution to the household resources increases with the poverty status of the family since women's earnings increase the aggregate income levels of the poor households and women contribute a much larger share of their earnings to basic family maintenance. Consequently, "increase in women's income translates more directly into better child health and nutrition status" (World Bank,1989).

According to Dandekar, it is being increasingly argued that for the emancipation of Indian women, and their full integration in economic development, they should be encouraged to participate in economic development, remunerative activities besides household work (Dandekar, 1982).

Radha Devi et. al., explained that the burden of household duties may not always contribute to withdrawal from "work" participation of women. According to their findings what really matters in the context of increased work participation of women is employment opportunities and not relief from household activities as such (Radha Devi, Ravindran, 1985).

Chaudhary finds out that the increasing work participation of women has not been able to improve their lot and their share of developmental gains has remained much below what their contribution could justify. He further revealed that the technology displacement of women labour on the one hand and lower wages rate to them on ground of productivity on the other should be prevented through proper training to equip them to efficiently deal with developed techniques of production. There should be a proper estimate of the contribution of women work force to economic development in the domestic sphere as well as in the peasant farming in

order to give them a larger degree of economic security and sense of self-respect in male-dominated society. It is also emphasized that wage rate is not only a demand and supply function but also depends to a large extent on the amount of pressure that the workers can force on the employers (Chaudhary, 1987).

2. 2 Relationship between Education and Job of Women:

Regarding the relationship between education and job, Guy Standing revealed that the economic participation of women is closely associated with the transformation of the an agrarian society into an industrial society. Their participation in the modern sector is usually related to education levels and training in vocational skills. The rise in female education led to an increasing female labor force participation in paid jobs. However, it is realized that the association between education and economic participation is liable to be strongly influenced by the level and structure of aggregate demand for labour. The relation may be positive at both high and low levels but negative at some intermediate levels of education. Under condition of low aggregate demand for labour and high level of unemployment, employers are most likely to indulge in rigid screening practices, largely restricting selection to the more educated job seekers (Standing, 1978).

A labour force survey made by E. F. Pang also revealed positive relationship between education and labour- force participation. He found out that the employed women aged 15 to 24 have control over marital status, family income and various other personal and household characteristics in Singapore (Pang, 1974).

A labor force study in Singapore by Chia Siow Yue also revealed that education was positively related to the labour participation by women and men. According to his study labour force participation rate of both males and females rises with the level of education. Wages and salaries in Singapore are highly correlated with educational attainment, and there is high earning gap between persons of different levels of educational attainment. According to him highly educated persons have access to much more rewarding jobs than poorly educated persons (Yue, 1987).

Young Cho finds out that in the Republic of Korea and Hong Kong, women with secondary education were found most active among women with different levels of educational attainment, although in general women with some educational background also showed an increase in labour force participation. However, Cho found out that higher education is not necessarily a requirement for women to be actively involved in the economy during the early industrialization process. On the contrary, it was found that Korean women with higher education are less active and socially irresponsible (Cho, 1987).

Klein and Ginsberb observed that one of the main factors for changing the social position of women is education. Education and industrialization of the economy have gone hand in hand. To sustain the tempo of industrialization, a large number of women begun to enter the school. Once educated, their road to the world of employment was smooth and straight. More and more women now have the opportunity to persue higher education and more of them exercise this option. Various American studies have shown that there is a definite correlation between the educational level of women and their employment, that the more education a woman has, the more likely she is to be in the labour force (Klien, 1968; Ginsberb, 1967).

Mark Blaug has mentioned three possible relationships between education and job: (a) There is a minimum educational qualification for each occupation, below which the task in question cannot be carried out at all but above which additional qualifications have no economic value; (b) the output of workers in particular occupations increases with their educational qualification, very gradually at first, then at a sharply increasing rate beyond a certain threshold level, after which it levels off again and (c) Productivity of workers in particular occupations increases monotonically with their educational qualifications, first at an increasing rate and then at a decreasing rate but it never levels off. These versions may be true regarding women's employment also (Blaug, 1970).

Tanguthai states that the rapidly rising educational qualification of females in Thailand and the Philippines is a positive sign towards their economic participation. In

the modern sectors of employment the employers rely on educational success as a convenient device for screening job applicants (Yonguthai,1987).

In a study by Elizaga in Argentina and Chile, it was observed that there is a positive relationship between levels of education and female participation (Alizaga, 1974;527). Similarly, another study by N.Youssef in urban area of Chilli indicates that only females with higher and university education have a labour force participation rate higher than that of illiterate woman. Those with some primary education had a lower rate and the lowest rate of all was with secondary education (Youssef, 1973).

In some studies in urban areas of Venezuela, Ecuador and Costa Rica Petch (1976) observed positive relationship between education and job for married females beyond a certain "threshold" level of education. A number of other studies have found non- linear relationship rationalized in one way or another. The most common type of non- linearity has been u- shaped (Standing, 1978:150). Similar results were found in an analysis of census data (1970) in Papua New Guina by G. Sheehan where u-shaped pattern was observed and the higher level of education variables were positive in regression analysis (Sheehan,1976:14). Similarly, a study of labour force participation in Khartoum, Sudan based on a household survey conducted in 1974 revealed that females with secondary education had a considerably higher participation rate than those with little or no education. Similarly, in a study for a Srilankan women in the age group 20-39, Standing and Sheehan found a u-shaped relationship between education and employment in both urban and rural areas (Standing and Sheehan, 1967).

According to M. Nagi in Egypt, 1960 census data showed that the ability to read and write greatly increased the chances of females finding work outside the house. In contrast to the illiterate population, where only about 5 percent of the females were employed, nearly 10 percent of the literate females were employed (Nagi,1971).

P. Ramachandran has found that a high proportion of females of Bombay, who were not seeking employment, were college-educated and they came from families where the head was fairly young and held a good job bringing in a relatively high income (Ramachandran,1964).

T. N. Madan expressed the view that the prevalent view as pointed by educated people including many social scientists is that the key to an improvement in the status and the position of a woman at home is her access to independent income. This view seems quite true since economic problems of the middle class are often found to be the cause for the employment of women. In a middle class family, often a wife's income is necessary to maintain the family 's standard of living. It has become customary for younger middle class females to work before marriage (A. D. Ross, 1973). This may mean that females in these situations are assuming a traditional male roles. By using their college education and training girls are obtaining paid jobs and they are playing a brother role by financing their siblings in some cases. Several girls are wholly supporting themselves as well as contributing to the family income also .Thus, a new trend in division of labour of women has come about which improves the status of women (Madan,1976).

As stated by Bhatta and Sharma there is a broader agreement on the view that education is a key factor in the political, economic and social development of a society. In this connection Kurt Waldheim, the Secretary general of United Nations in 1975 said that we must think positively about how the position of women in their own societies and in international affairs could not only be improved, but their large potential contribution be better utilized for the benefit of all (Bhatta and Sharma,1992).

Raj Mohinisethi concludes by conducting research in India and Turkey that education, occupation and income are becoming important individual attributes in the attainment and inducement of change. In both India and Turkey, the relationship between education and modernity becomes statistically significant when the educational level is divided into two broad categories, lower and higher education (Sethi, 1976).

Sahoo explained that the position of women in the labour market is governed by their state of education along with other factors like social taboos, cultural practices and employers' attitudes. It has been increasingly felt that education acts as a powerful

catalyst in socio-economic transformation and therefore education of women occupies a pivotal position in the scheme of socio-economic reconstruction (Sahoo, 1990).

P. C. Dey is of the view that it is now a well held view that if women are trained like men from their childhood and left to themselves the liberty of choosing them they will hardly remain engaged in activities they now pursue. With proper education there cannot be any reason as to why they will not be able to perform most of the activities now exclusively meant for the menfolk. There cannot be any reason as to why women will not be able to contribute to the human knowledge given proper education, training, and scope. So, we can easily reach the conclusion that the deformities usually referred to as constraints of the employment of women do not hold water (Day,1990).

Ramachandran on the basis of a survey in Bombay, India found that a higher proportion of women who were from households where the head of the family was in lower categories of jobs and where the percapita income was low were in labour force. In contrast, a high proportion of women who were not seeking jobs were collegiate and were from the households where the head of the family was in a higher category jobs. He further emphasized that the work participation rate of educated women, who attained matriculation and above education is low and if the overall trend towards falling work participation rate of women continues, the work participation rate of educated women, low as it is, might reduce further (Ramachandran,1964).

2.3 Trends in Women Employment:

Regarding the trends in women employment in Africa, Latin America, Caribbean, Asia and the Pacific women's situation is influenced by the level and growth of economic output. Total production and government policies determine the income available and its use for consumption and investment and ultimately economic welfare. A study conducted by UNFPA in 1990 also quoted that both women's and men's economic activity rates are highest for people aged 25-44 years of age (UNFPA,1990) .

Martha A. Reavley traces out that the labour force participation rate for Canadian women has increased steadily and by 1989 approximately 60 percent of adult

women were working in the labour force. The labour force is now 40 percent females and women account for more than 70 percent of all part-time workers. But occupational segregation by sex and the traditional division of labour between sexes still exists and women are still not paid as much as men (Reavley,1993).

The differences were found in women's labour force participation in Brazil with education, marital status, age and urban and rural residence by M. D. R. Evans and Helcio U. Saraiva (Evans and Saraiva, 1993).

Anjali Singh reveals that in Varanasi city, India, maximum number of higher professional holder women were working as teachers. After the teaching job women were employed as doctors and clerks. She concluded that women from post graduate and higher professional group are having a common trend towards self employment (Singh, 1991).

Napasri Kraisonswasdi found out that the women executives in Thai society came from families where their parents were engaged in occupations of high prestige. She also reveals that a majority of the women executives were either having (or wished to have) equalitarian way of life or playing a dominant role in their families (Kraisonswasdi, 1989).

On the basis of factual as well as attitudinal data, Dr.Vinita Srivastava makes some observations about the type of occupations the women of Chandigarh, India like. Though women with high educational background choose white-collar jobs, the prestige classification of the job is also an important determinant of their decision to accept a job. Mostly the women seem to opt for occupations which are consistent in their status with the occupations of their husbands or family members (Srivastava,1978).

According to D' Souza, the rate of women workers varies with the level of socio-economic development and the percentage of people engaged in tertiary occupations. Comparatively the rate of women workers is much higher in less

developed areas where more people are engaged in primary and secondary occupations and it is lower in more prosperous regions where a large proportion of people are working in tertiary occupations. The basis of his argument is that the family is a status unit and the status of all the dependent members is determined by the occupational status of the head of the family (D'souza, 1961).

Wellar has also observed somewhat similar changes in female labour-force as a result of industrialization on the basis of the historical analysis of the trends in Puerto Rico. According to him participation of females in certain types of gainful employment outside the home does increase with economic development, but often this increase does not compensate for decline of employment in more traditional industries. Thus, the long-run effect of industrialization may be to raise the overall rate of female labour-force participation, but the short run effect may be to lower it (Weller,1968).

According to a research conducted by the Institute for employment Research, University of Warwick in 1980, the composition of the labour force has undergone considerable change in the last decade in the U. K., and projections suggest that if present trends continue, women will comprise almost half the labour force in the 1990s. There has been a recent dramatic increase in the number of women setting up their own business (Mcloughlin, 1985). Although the majority of these are self-employed and are without employers they are more likely to represent additions to the highly vulnerable flexible workforce than in industry ("Women and Paid Work.",1980). Similarly, women have made substantial inroads into management and the professions(the Economist, 23Aug, 1986), but they are more prevalent at the lower levels, and among the flexible part-time niches of these occupations (Crompton and Sanderson, 1986).

K. D. Gaur found out that employment of women in different regions in India both in public and private sectors is taking an increasing trend. They are employed in public as well as private sectors in various institutions. In northern region women

employment shows increasing trends in both private and public sectors during a period of one year. In the western region more than in the southern region, women got more employment opportunities in the public sector and less employment opportunities in the private sector (Gaur,1990).

Padmini Sen Gupta has observed that " the middle class women of India, who are coming out more and more, have been classed as no less capable than their counterparts in more developed countries. They are employed in many jobs which may be termed as 'masculine' without any discredit to themselves" (Gupta, 1960).

Vina Mazumdar reveals that the declining trend in the number of working women is in contradiction to the popular belief that women's employment in white-collared jobs is increasing rapidly. She points out that " the urban poor are the same as those in rural areas- lying at the bottom of social structure and suffering from cumulative inequalities". The groups that are selectively observed in stable employment are those with educational background and those who possess the skills that are necessary for the modern sector employment since, women generally lack both of them, they are pushed into the informal sector of urban subsistence economy. However, the Employment and Training Department's data revealed that except in the categories of teachers, clerical and related workers, the changes have been only marginal with a decline in the private sector and a slow increase in the public sector (Mazumdar,1975).

Vimal Ranadive observed that in the organized industry as a whole in India, there is an increasing trend in women workers. On the other hand, new industries like telecommunications electronics, light electrical and pharmaceuticals have found women more productive than men in certain jobs (Ranadive,1976).

Ashok Mitra stated that as regards the employment pattern of women in India, there are two trends: One is rapid decline in the traditional occupations including cultivation, agricultural labour, and other occupations in the primary sector, small scale industry, trade and commerce and the other is promising increase in modern industries and organized institutions (Mittra, 1979).

In a study conducted by the Indian Council of Social Science in 1975, it was found that highly educated women in urban areas are influenced in a particular way by currents of modernization and change. Development in India, as in other countries, has increased job opportunities for educated women while resulting in a general decrease in overall employment, since the urban middle class woman, who has been exposed to higher education may or may not work outside home. The women and their families are confronted with choices and decisions about the appropriateness of their expanded set roles.

G. Saibabee expressed the view that the public sector employment is more remunerative and attractive. Therefore it is in this sector that educated women seek employment. Similarly, in some categories of occupations which need skill also women are trying to compete with men workers (Social Welfare, 1977).

Ram Prakash revealed that with the general rise in educational facilities a large number of women are coming into the employment market. The main occupations in which women with training and education are seeking jobs are in teaching, nursing, stenography, clerical work etc. However, these occupations are traditionally feminine in nature. Thus women's employment pattern in India seems unprogressive (Social Welfare, 1969).

As Human Development Report described, "between 1979 and 1988 women's employment grew nearly 5 percent a year, much faster than men's, and in 1990, women accounted for about 45 percent of total employment.

Equal opportunities laws and an official position reflected in motto, "women are in all realms, women cross all bounds"- have helped equalize the occupational distribution of Chinese men and women. In some industries, such as textiles, finance, tailoring and commerce, women make up 80 percent of the workforce. But women still constitute less than a fifth of the engineers and hold only a third of the technical and scientific jobs. Only one out of ten advanced level researchers in science and

technology is a woman. Male managers still far outnumber female managers. And despite equal laws, women earn only about three-quarters of what men earn.

Similarly it also mentioned that all regions of the world record a higher rate of unemployment among women than men. The proportion of women in administrative and managerial work has doubled in industrial countries, from 14 percent in 1970 to 28 percent in 1994. In Australia, Canada, Hungary, Ireland and Norway, the proportion of women in such work more than tripled between 1970 and 1990. Among developing countries, the participation of women in administration and management increased fastest in East Asia. women 's share of administrative and managerial jobs more than doubled in Brunei, Darussalam, the Republic of Korea, Singapore and Thailand.

The best record in women's participation in professional and technical jobs is in the Nordic countries, where women's share is 62 percent. In Canada and the United States, women hold more than half of such jobs, and in Poland 60 percent. Among developing countries, Botswana, the Philippines and Uruguay show similar percentages. However, it must be borne in mind that the data are of uneven quality and countries differ in how they categorize professional, technical and related workers.

The participation of women in two different streams - as professionals, technicians, administrators and managers and clerical and sales workers has increased during the past two decades. But the ratio between the two streams has not changed much in the developing world. The increasing proportion of women employed in managerial and administrative positions is encouraging, but the traditional pattern of women's employment remains the same. Overall, the ratio of employment in these sectors in developing countries showed little change in 1970- 1990.

In most of the Arab States and in South Asia, and even in some industrial countries, such as Japan, Luxemburg and Spain, the proportion of women in administrative and managerial work is less than 10 percent (UNDP, 1995).

Sharma and Sharma (edt) book entitled " Women and Professions" indicated that for a long time opportunities for women in fields other than teaching were restricted. The legal and political professions did not open their doors easily to women in India. Only after the dawn of independence, women have entered in various professions e. g. medical, engineering, journalism, administration, etc. Today, thousands of women are coming forward to bear the burden of work along with their fellow-men in every walk of life (Women and Educational Development Series- 9, 1995).

Some research articles published by Macmillan Education Ltd. in England showed that there is a huge gap between formal equal policies and the reality of women's labour market position. Focusing on key employment areas from education and social services to Television and Finance, the contributors of the book (edt. Angela Coyle and Jane Skinner) tried to determine what have been the real barriers to women's advancement and how equal opportunities can be best achieved (University of Warwick, 1988).

Kumkum in her research finds that until recent years increase in the number of women entering the service, women officers in the Indian Administrative Service were a handful of pioneers, completing for the service in what was mainly considered a male monopoly, a sphere where the traditional view was that its nature of duties and functions lay inherently outside the capability of women. The situation today has changed considerably, mainly due to increase in the number of women in the service. Today, women officers are so definitely interwoven in the fabric of Indian Administrative Service that a study made today of women in the services will not be a study of exceptional few in men's world, but of a class of women executives that is a distinct and substantial category of its own (Kumkum 1986).

In a research report in England published by Macmillian Press Ltd.in 1988, some trends found regarding the women employment are (i) a rise in married women's participation in paid work (ii) a reduction in the differential in participation in paid work between mothers and other women, (iii) an increase in early retirement towards the end of the period and so on.

P. K Saksena in his research article "Inter- Regional Disparities in Female Work Participation Rate in India" mentioned that female work participation rate in India and its various states' territories is very low. Out of three variables viz. per capita consumer expenditure, structure of employment, per-capita consumer expenditure did not exhibit any relationship with female work participation rate both for rural and

urban areas. Similarly, female work participation rate showed a weak positive relationship with the structure of employment both in rural and urban areas. He finds that out of four social and cultural variables, viz. size of household, sex ratio, birth rate, the size of household showed less significant negative relationship with urban female work participation rate. It was also mentioned that sex ratio revealed a highly significant positive relationship with female work participation rate both in rural and urban areas, and it can safely be concluded that higher the sex ratio, higher will be the female work participation and vice versa.

Jagdish Prasad finds out that in Bihar, India the female participation rate in labour force is quite low and in urban areas it is much lower than in rural areas. But the females can contribute very significantly to the economic development if they are provided with job opportunities. Further, the females are in employment mainly in very low skill and low earning occupation demanding strenuous drudge work in low skill and low technology sectors of productivity. It thus suggests that all efforts should be made to stabilize the present proportions of employment and create new employment opportunities for women (Jagdish Prasad, 1987).

Report of the National Planning Commission on Labour, India, 1969 amply demonstrated the need for measures to be taken to expand opportunities for women, by stimulating the growth of industries and occupations in which women usually have a substantial share of employment and other skills for which they may be prepared.

Bose concluded that female labour participation is influenced by the caste factor in many cases. But it is not always the sole governing factor of female employment outside home. In Indian society, there is a question of status and prestige and the females are not prepared to take an occupation which is not commensurate with the status of the family. But in case of poverty, this situation does not apply and women may be prepared to work even by breaking the barriers of prestige and caste (Bose,1985).

Sinha is of the view that female participation shows a u-shaped curve in the developing countries which declines in the early stages of industrialization but increases later as the economy evolves a more diversified structure of employment. However, most developing countries are 'traditional' societies, wherein work availability is only one of the factors influencing female participation rates (Sinha, 1965).

Kamla Nath observed that the work participation rate of urban women is significantly lower than that of rural women and of literate women. Moreover, if dependency ratio increases, female participation rates fall, giving an inverse relationship between the two which leads to under-employment amongst working women. However, the work participation of women in the educational sector after education beyond the matriculation stage prevailed (Kamla Nath, 1970).

In another work, Kamla Nath focused attention of the economic development sector on women participation in economic activity and concluded that in Indian case female participation rate falls with economic development although this fact is not always true. Further, female work participation rate shows a marked decline with rise in the income level of the family. Decreasing female work participation rate by accelerating the rise in dependency ratio has a tendency to decrease per capita income (Kamla Nath, 1986)

According to Patel and Dholakia, socio-cultural factors have a significant bearing on the levels of female participation rate. The authors also examine the effect of certain development variables like income, marital status, child rearing and caste on female participation rates and conclude that the female participation rate tends to have a U-shape curve with respect to income and that married females tend to have a higher participation rate than those unmarried and not having children (Patel and Dholakia, 1978).

Wohan and Venatadassappa also support the above stated views while explaining the differences in female participation rate through the variables as age, marital status, place of residence, education and other factors such as the number of children, husband's income, social attitudes, etc (Wahan and Vanatadassappa, 1978)

Rao is of the view that there is a need to relate labour participation rates, income levels and literacy rates to have a clearer idea of the groups with high female labour participation rate. The auther indicates that the economic necessity to participate

in work is much higher among rural females than among urban females, particularly among the scheduled castes (Rao, 1978) .

Alam in his study of Assam women observed that the nature and extent of female work participation as in many other places are determined by some structural and demographic features and also by some institutional factors like family customs and traditions, habits, existence of group instincts, etc. Besides, physical health, social, religious and legal constraints, in addition to the level of education, income and occupation of the family are other important determinants of female work participation rate. (Alam,1987).

Nearly a similar view was expressed by Gulati. She in her study, examined whether at a less aggregate level of inter-state comparison within India, it is possible to see some relationship between economic and demographic factors such as per-capita income, cropping pattern, literacy levels, male work participation rates, proportion of scheduled castes and tribes in the population and the sex ratio and female work participation (Gulati, 1975).

According to Ahmed the trends in women's employment in white-collar occupation in India are as follows:

- i. Women tend to cluster in a few occupations like teaching, nursing, clerical and related jobs.
- ii. Women are clustered either in low status occupations or in the lowest rungs of the prestigious professions. Their proportion in the higher professions, namely medicine, and other male dominated professions is very low.
- iii. There is a decline in the representation of women in certain occupations - rather in almost all occupations. This decline may either be in their proportion to men or in absolute numbers as well.
- iv. The proportion of highly educated and professionally trained unemployed women is fairly substantial. Educated women remain unemployed due to domestic responsibilities and preference for not seeking employment when it is not necessary (Ahmad, 1979).

2.4 Problems of Women in Job and Studies on Job Satisfaction:

From the very beginning, the job of women has been classified as home maker. they have to perform all the household duties including rearing and caring of children. Besides, household jobs they are contributing in agriculture and farming related work. Only after the second world war women have been participating in different paid jobs. But still they have to perform the duties of the household and side by side do outside job. In many countries, still there is gendered in job classification and they are considered as inferior to men in many jobs. Thus there are many problems of women employed in paid jobs. Some of the problems observed by different researchers have been noted.

Saul D. Feldman substantiates a number of patterns of sex-based inequality. Female dominated fields, mostly in humanities, not only offers less power, prestige, they also offer less in terms of self image. Even within the same fields, men and women differ in their relationships with professors and fellow students.

Women labour force participants are subject to sex specific factors impeding their careers. Caplow noted five such factors: 1. Women generally have discontinuous occupational careers, interrupted by marriage, childbirth, childcare problems, etc.. 2. Women are generally secondary wage earners, supplementing rather than generating family income. This has led to the view that women should therefore, be paid less than men. 3. Women tend to be less spatially mobile. Women are thus more limited in accepting employment or moving than are men. 4. The reserve labour force of women is greater than the reserve labour force of men. Since some qualified women are more likely to be out of work because of the discontinuity of their career lines, employers have less difficulty in hiring women. The supply may be greater than demand, resulting increased competition for jobs. 5. Women are controlled by sex specific employment laws. Although these laws may exist under the guise of protecting women, Caplow mentions that they are also used to reduce the effectiveness of women as competitors for men's jobs (Feldman, 1974).

Michael reveals that the issue at stake for working women is to conciliate their family roles with their new occupational roles and this problem still exists in developed countries also. In the United States and Russia, although the employed women have maintained their high positions in certain professional occupations, the problems of caring for children and house-work have not been entirely solved and there has been no radical change in female occupational status in the last twenty years (Michael (ed.), 1971).

A study in English school by Sandra Acker suggests that career plans are provisional and changeable, especially, although not exclusively for women. Most teachers believed men had a career advantage in primary school teaching, but there was little sense of outrage about it. Women teachers, specially those with children, juggled their commitments, since they get less domestic support from their husband (Acker, 1992).

As described by Charol Shakeshaft, Hansot and Tyack (1981) discuss three explanatory models from the literature and provide support for two frameworks. The first focuses on the individual woman as possessing internal barriers that keep her from advancing; socialization and sex stereotyping are seen as the guiding forces behind all her behavior. The second describes an organizational structure that shapes the behavior of its members. " The chief source of male hegemony lies not in the psychological makeup of individuals.... but in the structure and operation of organizations. Women behave in self-limiting ways not because they were socialized as females but because they are locked into low-power, low-visibility, dead-end jobs". Similarly, Women in the general labour-force earn less than men. Women have tended to sacrifice financially for their families, thus cutting short educational opportunities (Shakeshaft,1987).

The World's Women: Trends and Statistics, 1970-1990, states that almost every where, the workplace is segregated by sex. Women fill well over half of the clerical and service jobs in the developed regions and Latin America and the

Caribbean, and more than a third in Africa and Asia and the Pacific. Within an occupational group women are almost always in the less prestigious jobs. Similarly, everywhere women are paid less than men. In addition, men are more likely to have regular full time work and receive greater seniority and benefits (UNFPA, 1990).

Long, Allison, and McGinnis found out from a research in the University of USA, that rates are lower for women than for men for promotion to associate professor and for promotion to full professor. For promotion to associate professor, about one-half of the sex differences in expected probabilities of promotion during years 4 through 7 is explained by sex differences in the mean values of independent variables. In addition, the time structure for advancement favors men: Holding the levels of independent variables constant, men have higher probabilities of promotion for years 3 through 7. The reasonable explanation for this according to the researchers was that women are expected to meet higher standards for promotion. Everything else being equal, women are promoted to associate professor more slowly than men.

For promotion to full professor, about one-half of the differences in expected probabilities of promotion are due to differences in the mean values of independent variables. Remaining differences are due to differential effects of the prestige of the current department and the number articles in rank. Being in a more prestigious department has a significantly more negative effect on promotion for women than for men, i. e., the price for being at a more prestigious department in terms of rate of promotion is greater for women than men (American Sociological Review, 1993).

C. Swarajyalaxmi indicated that working women have their own problems, which are of a unique nature. There are various problems such as socio-economic, political, legal, psychological, ethical, etc. encountered by women workers in the industrial sector in Andhra Pradesh of India (Swarajyalaxmi, 1992).

Bidyadhar Mishra reveals that apart from biological and physical difficulties for women in India in taking up different kinds of jobs, there are various social and economic difficulties such as:

1. The family structure and social customs and attitudes restrict freedom and mobility of women to seek and avail jobs in different places and different spheres of activities. Family living is given greater priority than being employed in jobs and seeking a career.
2. Lack of educational and training facilities and social attitude for education of girls and women do not equip women to take up different jobs and their job opportunities are thus restricted.

3. The prevailing law and order situation and economic conditions of living restrict greatly the mobility of women for seeking and availing employment opportunities in different places.
4. Women are also given inferior status and rating in comparison to male workers in the employment market. Traditionally women have been paid lower wages than men even in similar jobs, and their efficiency in jobs is under-estimated.
5. Women have no independent status in society to choose or plan a career, for them (Mishra,1990).

Gieta Van Der Pompe and Peter De Heus in a study amongst 155 male and female managers in the Netherlands found that there is no sex difference in work stress, work support or health. The only sex differences that did appear were that women experienced a greater amount of life support than men, and that the relationship between work stress and work support and between life support and job satisfaction were stronger for women than men (Pompe and Heus,1993).

Elizabeth Anne De Sal Vo Rankin indicated that the employed women have to face stresses such as lack of time, child related problems, and maternal guilt. But on the other hand they get personal benefits and financial rewards and improved family life (Rankin, 1993).

In a study conducted by the National Research Council it was found that at present, women make up nearly half the U.S. work-force and the dominant family pattern is for both parents to work outside the home, even when their children are very young. This change has meant critically needed income for many families, wider employment choices for women, and an expanded labour supply. However, working women are no longer available to give their full attention to the care of children and elderly relatives (National Research Council, 1991).

Jane White expressed the view that gender difference in employment takes place even in developed countries and that women hold less than 5 percent of the top managerial positions (White,1992).

June O' Neill points out that due to the dual responsibilities of women at home and out-side, they have had less incentive and opportunity to invest their time and money in developing market skills that enhance earnings. In addition, when women become employed they continue to have household responsibilities that are likely to restrict their choices of jobs and impose other constraints that reduce market productivity at lower earnings (An annual Review,1985)

Maggie Coats stated that in the U.S.A., while in employment, women are offered fewer training opportunities than men and those that are available are at a lower level. Initially, women may be trained to perform specific tasks and may receive in-service training to perform new tasks or operate new equipment, but they are less likely to be selected for further training or for advancement. Employers are generally more reluctant to invest in the training of women employees in case they decide to give up work for family reasons and training investment is wasted. The optimum age for promotion and training to upgrade skills is for people in their twenties and thirties. These are the years when women are most likely to be out of workforce if they take a career break. Women who return to work after raising a family are thought to be not interested in advancement and therefore, are not offered training opportunities. Some may have lost the confidence to put themselves forward for promotion (Coats,1994).

Chitrapu Swarajyalaxmi described that in India other things being equal, there is still discrimination in employment. Women are not accepted in higher posts unless they are at least 20 percent superior to men in qualifications and experience. Therefore, women are not recruited to the posts for they are considered incompetent. Women recruited for the posts of stenographers or special assistants or supervisors at lower levels in organizations are of varied types. However, least women are recruited for posts at higher levels carrying greater responsibilities (Chitrapu, 1992).

Studies on Job Satisfaction of Women :

The individual is satisfied when he or she perceives that his/her performance is substantially rewarded. Job satisfaction is a part of motivation, which is very necessary among each employee - male as well as female.

Jenkins Sharon Rae stated that based on previous findings by D. G. Winter (1988) relating to the need for power to make choice and for attainment of power - relevant careers (teaching, including college; psychotherapy, journalism, and business management) were successfully replicated among 118 female college seniors, 69 of whom returned mailed questionnaires 14 years later. High in power women reported both more power - relevant job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, in power predicted career progression only for women in power-relevant careers. Those women holding relational power jobs and those in structural power roles who reported higher overall job satisfaction increased in power over 14 years. Power - motivated women in different structural power roles reported contrasting satisfaction and career progression (Rae, 1994).

According to a study conducted by Gadel it was revealed that the part-time female workers performed their jobs as satisfactorily as younger full-time workers with higher job satisfaction. The workers had relatively lower turnover than the middle aged part-time workers (Gadel, 1953).

Natraj and Hafeez in their studies found that besides education and salary, age of a woman also was significantly related to job satisfaction (Natraj and Hafeez, 1965).

Wild and Dawson examined the influence of certain biographical variables like age, marital status and length of service on the relationship between specific attitudes and overall job satisfaction on a sample of 2, 543 female manual workers engaged in ten plants in the United Kingdom. The results indicated that age and marital status had significant effects on the relationship of specific job attitudes to overall job satisfaction. In particular the relationship of the attitudes towards pay, supervision, physical working

conditions, mental vs. physical work and social (peer) relations with job satisfaction appeared to be influenced by these two variables. Length of service also appeared to be a significant variable (Wild and Dawson, 1972).

Age and experience of the employees in relation to job satisfaction have been investigated in a number of studies. The findings revealed that job satisfaction decreases with increase in age (U.S. Department of Labour, 1949).

2.5 Nepalese Context:

Prior to democracy, the economic activity of women in Nepal was confined only in agriculture and household subsistence work. The change in women's role from the traditional housewives to one looking for education and employment other than agriculture labour force is quite a new phenomenon in Nepal. Employment opportunities for women in public offices and teaching profession started only after 1955. Similarly, the economic participation of women in paid jobs has been one of the unexplored areas of women's studies. Only recently, some researchers have conducted researches in this field.

A study by Meena Acharya deals with the social status of women in Nepal. The study covers almost every aspect of women's life. It starts with general demographic characteristics which covers life span, proportion of women, caste composition, rate of population growth, mortality and fertility rate of women. It also deals with the social indicators such as: marital status, educational status and political participation. The study basically concentrates on women's participation in economic activities. She concluded that Nepalese women are primarily engaged in household activities because of illiteracy and very few of them are found to be involved in outside economic activities (Acharya, 1980).

Neeru Shrestha in her "An Analysis of Women's Employment in Financial Institutions" deals with the current position and problems of women in financial institutions of Nepal. The research study is a new attempt on the field which describes

socio-economic part of the women employment and also covers gender issue (Shrestha, 1982).

In another research study Shrestha found that the employment structure in the industrial sector reveals that the women are mostly employed in woolen and textile industry. The employment of women in industries other than woolen and textile industries is minimal. Of the total 11.84 percent of women employment in all industries, about half are engaged in textile and woolen industries. The employment of women in plastic, poultry, packing and soap industries, distillery, and metal, electrical, engineering and mechanical industries is very few. Similarly, the employment of women in technical and highly skilled jobs seems to be very limited (Shrestha, 1983).

Puskar Reejal tried to find out information on the extent of coverage done by Nepal's national plan and programme for women's economic participation. He also tried to show the impact of post-development efforts on sexual equality and the prevailing social and economic characteristics of women as a group for future plans and planning process. He identified the constraints in bringing about any significant change in women's position in Nepalese society. General economic stagnation severely restricted opportunities for occupational mobility for population as a whole. High fertility rate resulted in perpetuation of sex-related differentiation and retarded women's social and spatial mobility. Low prestige attached to female wage labour and the imperative to keep assets in the possession of the coparcenary of a joint Hindu family tends to consolidate the superior position of males (Reejal, 1981).

Madhavi Singh and Indu Maskey's study deals with the enhancing female employment in some manufacturing industries. The researchers point out that women's participation in market-oriented jobs is very low. There are also various constraints women employees have to face. The main constraints of female participation in industries is their low skill due to lack of education and training. Women are mostly confined to industries like spinning, thread winding, and weaving which is of low skill specific nature. They found that the working conditions, where

women works was not good there are also lack of fringe benefits to women employees, sex discrimination in salary/wage is prevalent (Singh and Maskey, 1994).

Sriram Pande and Puspa Shrestha found that women's participation in the formal sector is much lower than that of men because of their lower educational attainments and the slow rise in literacy rate among women. Their position in the formal sector workforce is even worse outside the Kathmandu valley. Women's position is undermined due to their narrow base vis- a - vis men in both education and employment and the decision making positions are controlled and dominated by men (New Era,1994).

Similarly, a study by Puspa Shrestha reveals that females' economic participation, specially in white-collar jobs is positively associated with their level of education and their husband's level of educational attainment (Shrestha, 1995).

Nadine Beauthac reveals that the concept of education in Nepal had never been thought out in relation to the needs of the population for which it was intended. When education for women began in 1950, young women were gradually admitted into an existing system designed for boys, usually Brahmin or Chhetry boys. Education signified the intellectual idea of learning to read and write and not the idea of the training which should be received by every child as a preparation for life (Beauthac, 1971).

Narendra Kayastha described that Nepal has been spending 10 percent of the total budgetary expenditure on education, leading to significant growth in the supply of educated manpower and yet the contribution of education to economic growth has not been significant. There is therefore, a need for restructuring the academic programme and curriculum, so that the quality of education could be improved (Kayastha, 1991).

Arzu Deuba in her research "The Status and Situation of Women in Management of Nepal" found that Nepalese women managers are very different from their fellow sisters in a number of aspects. They come from more privileged backgrounds and have the support of their parents and spouses in becoming

professional women. They are self-confident, well-educated and trained. They are highly motivated to work for personnel development, social status, and more importantly to contribute to the development of the society. They are skilled in interpersonal relations, have leadership qualities and are hard working, sincere and dedicated and have learnt to balance their gender roles. They are economically independent and in decision-making positions in the workplace seems to positively affect their status in side the home as well. However, they face obstacles and problems in their personal and working life due to unfavorable societal attitudes and the underestimation of their abilities and skills within the organization. Women's double role i. e. productive and reproductive puts them at a disadvantage in meeting deadlines and time pressures which causes them maximum stress. Similarly, inadequate facilities at work also hamper their growth within the organization (Deuba,1996).

Narayan Manandhar describes that the situation of women in management in Nepal is much worse than in developed countries. The main problems identified with women in management are stereotyping of women workers; which includes sexualization of occupation because of their biological needs or company policies and practices designed particularly to suit the males, and the stress factor that is due to their dual role of taking care of the home and the job (Manandhar, 1996).

Bharat P. Pokherel in his article expressed the view that female's and male's unemployment rates were found to exert significant discouraging effect on female participation rate. There is a positive effect of no schooling on females participation rate. Percentage of population in urban areas and the rate of population growth were found to affect the participation rate negatively. But contrary to the expectation, the relative supply of women had a significant positive effect on female's participation rate (The Economic Journal, 1991).

Mangala Shrestha and Neelam K. Sharma in a research study of Tribhuvan University found that among the total teachers of Tribhuvan University the proportion of female teachers was 20.8 percent. The male/ female ratio of teacher was 3.8:1 and the male/ female ratio of administrative staff was 4.2:1. However, the

percentage increment of female teaching staff between the years 1981-1992 was encouraging, which is 62.9 percent. Similarly, the female staffs reported their major problems in the job were slow promotion, lack of training facilities and low pay scale (Shrestha and Sharma, 1994).

A study conducted by Nepal Administrative Staff College shows that there are only 1.89 percent women gazetted officers in the administrative cadre in Civil Service. Such a minority of women in the administrative cadre could do nothing for the real benefit of Nepalese women.

There is only one woman in the gazetted special class. Similarly, there are seven, twenty four and thirty-seven officers in the gazetted first, second and third class posts of administrative service respectively. However, data shows that there are many women gazetted officers in technical fields, their percentage being 7.10.

It was concluded that women's participation in the officers level job of the civil service is not increasing as compared to the rise in female participation in higher education. It shows that unless different measures are not taken to increase the number of women in the gazetted civil service, the male domination in the administration will continue for decades (Nepal Administrative Staff College, 1990).

Shtree Shakti in a study conducted in fifteen sites of Nepal finds that as a result of national infrastructural development, institutional interventions and planned future policies, there are changing trends in women's status. Some of these seem positive, others regressive. There are certain factors influencing these trends, but there is not always clear evidence from the data as to which of the factors are most influential in causing the trends.

One feature that does, however, clearly influence all aspects of women's lives-economic, social, emotional, religious is that they are living in a patriarchal society. This provides all of the social groups studied, whether they are more or less dichotomous in gender. Law, religion, land rights, social customs are all traditionally

patriarchal. These elements are currently controlled for and by the men of the country who have not yet realized that it could be in their interest to share responsibility.

The study also shows that agriculture is still becoming progressively feminized though it is the major source of income followed by small business/ trade, service and wage labour. Women's contribution is higher in both time input and overall household income. In the urban sector, 76 percent of the family farm income was produced by women and 24 percent by men. However, in the local market economy, the percentages are reversed, with women producing 24 percent and men 76 percent and in the short-term employment sector, the production quotient for women drops to 12 percent only. Similarly, women's wage earning in both rural and urban areas forms an important supplement to household income. Women in urban sites accounted for 29.6 percent of the total employment. The sectors in which a high percentage of women were engaged in urban sites are cottage industries including carpet weaving. A second major source of employment for women is the home based wool spinning and carding, petty trade, vendor shops and domestic services. However, discriminatory practices are still widely prevalent in terms of social equity, i. e. equal pay for equal work in those professions (Shtree Shakti, 1995).

Meena Acharya in a report produced for UNFPA reveals that the slow industrial transformation which is pushing women into the manufacturing sector has both positive and negative implications for women. In the process, women have gained mobility and access to income, but only within the limits set by the dominant patriarchal culture and the feudal value system which denigrates physical labor and people associated with it. At the same time, women are being eased out of managerial and proprietorial positions associated with household and cottage level industries and are being converted into industrial wage labor dependent on exports. Moreover, with urbanization, women's reported economic activity rate is also declining. This may be a result of bias or loss of job opportunities as work place shifts from farmhouses to factories. It could also be a bias as middle class women who work at home consider themselves as not working.

The report also provides access to knowledge, increased possibilities of interaction with world outside the domestic/ local scene and improved opportunities for better paid employment, an increase in educational status may be taken as an indicator of improving social status. Proper education itself empowers women for it makes them aware of entrenched social discrimination and provides them with the strength to fight it. The government's current strategy is to mainstream women in all development plans and programs. However, government policies, programs and projects, generally lack gender sensitivity. On the contrary, they view women as marginal groups to be treated under welfare programs. The understanding and commitment required implementing the strategy of mainstreaming women calls for a completely new vision and outlook on gender issues. As far as women's access to modern avenues of education, skill development and knowledge is concerned, Nepalese women in general lag far behind men (Acharya, 1997).

Summary of the Literature Studies and Concluding Remarks:

The size and composition of the working population, men as well as women broadly reflect the prevailing socio-economic conditions of the country concerned. At present, participation of women in economic activity has been given importance by every country. The economic activity rate of men and women in a country shows: firstly how far a country has developed from the informal subsistence level of development, secondly, it clarifies the definition of employment, and thirdly, it estimates the degree of women's economic activity. Thus a high activity rate of population in a country indicates three things: (a) majority of able bodied women of working age participate in productive activity; (b) scope of definition regarding employment is wide and (c) country's formal sector of employment is large. Therefore it is clear that women employment in the formal sector is necessary to have a high activity rate of population, since women population covers a bulk of total population.

It is apparent from the above literature that there is a need to promote participation of women into different sectors of employment. In recent years the topic of women employment has come into prominence as a result of changes, which have taken place in the scope and character of the economic life of the society. As a result more and more countries are becoming to appreciate that they need women as well as

men for the purpose of national development and increasing per capita income. The importance of women for taking up paid employment and the need for equality for rights and opportunities is apparent in every sphere of life like getting education, decision making centers around some arguments as mentioned below:

- i. That women's economic subjugation or dependence leads to exploitation and is a denial of social justice and human rights. Among other factors for empowering women, economic factor seems to be a prime factor and it is a must for every country that its women population should also participate in labour force in order to increase production.
- ii. That women participation in formal employment is necessary in order to achieve development of a society as has been endorsed by United Nations also.
- iii. That there is a positive relationship between women's education and employment in white collar jobs.
- iv. That more and more women are coming these days in different sectors of employment. But still women especially in developing countries like India and Nepal, were confined to traditional jobs. Majority of women, who were in paid jobs, was found in low paid and low prestigious jobs. The proportion of women in formal sector employment and male dominated employment sectors, such as medicine, engineering, law, management and so on, is still low due to low educational background of women and social and cultural bondage.
- v. That women have to play the dual role inside and outside home, as a result they have to face double burden. Women have been segregated in the work place, and in jobs. In many cases, there was a differential in wage rate between men and women also.

It may be concluded that classifying women as economically active or inactive has been a problem particularly in the developing countries, since mostly in those countries women are engaged in domestic work and therefore, they often tend to be classified as economically inactive. However, at present, after the Second World

War, the employment of women in paid jobs in many countries, even in developing countries is taking an increasing trend. But many researchers often find that they are employed in low paid, low prestigious jobs compared to men. Similarly, while employing women, employers often gendered the job. Women are also segregated in the workplace and in jobs. The employed women have to face many problems in work place and in the home also since they have to fulfill the dual responsibility of household jobs, caring and rearing the children and outside home also. The female employment rate for developed countries seems high than developing countries. It is due to the higher education rate of females and encouragement from government side and low household burden due to modern appliances and wide vision. Similarly, the distribution of females among different occupations differs in different countries depending upon the structure of economy, educational levels, attitudes of women to jobs of various kinds and other social factors. With changes in the structure of economy, educational levels and social attitudes, there is a change in the occupational structure of workers, males as well as females. Likewise, the various social and economic factors like caste, income, family occupation location (rural/urban), etc. influence the female participation rates specially in developing countries. However, many researchers have proved that there is a positive relationship between female education and paid job. The educated females are encouraged to seek jobs and are found to be employed at many jobs. Besides, educated women get prestigious jobs and thus can maintain the status of their family. Similarly, the encouraging programs and policies of the government concerned regarding women employment in white-collar jobs have a positive effect on higher participation by them in paid jobs.

In the Nepalese context, there are limited studies on women employment. Most of the studies did not touch the core of reality, since those studies were conducted only on a macro level. Most of the studies were based on secondary data, which do not provide any insightful picture of employment in urban areas like Kathmandu Valley. There is in a sense no particular study regarding relationship between human resource development and employment in organized sectors.

In the present developmental context in Nepal, rapid changes are taking place on the economic sphere, which in turn changes the social, cultural and political aspect of life. Therefore, even if some micro studies on women and economic development were existing, initiating a new study in this area would be desirable as such an attempt is bound to throw up several new facts in any empirical exercise having a bearing on policy issues.

CHAPTER III

THE CONCEPT OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT AND THE STATUS OF FEMALE EDUCATION IN NEPAL.

3.1 Human Resource Development: A Conceptual Frame Work:

Human resource development is the process of increasing the knowledge, the skills, and the capabilities of all the people in a society. In economic terms, it has been described as the accumulation of human capital and its effective investment in the development of an economy (Harbison and Myers: 1974).

The concern of human resource development is a recent phenomenon. However, classical economists like Adam Smith and Alfred Marshal also had mentioned about the importance of human resource development. Adam Smith stressed the importance of education at various points in his 'Wealth of Nations'. He mentioned "the acquired useful abilities of all the inhabitants or members of society" as the fixed capital in his work 'Fixed Capital'.

Alfred Marshal also emphasized the importance of education "as a national investment" and in his view investment in human beings is the most valuable of all other capitals. The modern economist Theodore W. Schultz in his book Investment in Human capital "expressed the view that in the absence of human capital only heavy, manual work and poverty will persist except for those who have income from property. According to him," the failure to treat human resources intelligently and

explicitly as a form of capital, as a produced means of production, as the product of investment, has forced the retention of the classical notion of labour as a capacity to do manual work requiring little knowledge and skill, a capacity with which, according to this notion, labourers are endowed about equally. This notion of labour was wrong in the past and it is also patently wrong now." Counting individuals who can and want to work and treating such count as a measure of the quantity rate of an economic growth is no more meaningful than it would be to count the number of all manners of machines to determine their economic importance either as a stock of capital or a flow of productive services". The principal approaches of human resources development as mentioned by Professor Schultz and other economists are (i) determination of the relationship between expenditures on education and growth in income or in physical capital formation over a period of time in one country, (ii) the residual approach in determining the contribution of education to gross national product (GNP), (iii) calculation of the rate of return from expenditures on education, and (iv) making inter- country correlation of school enrolment ratios and GNP (Investment in Human Beings, supplement to the Journal of Political Economy, Vol. 70, no. 5, part 2, Oct., 1962, quoted in Herbison and Myers, 1974).

There is a Chinese proverb which also shows the importance of education as;

"If you are planning for a year- sow rice
For ten years - plant trees
For a hundred years- educate people"

Professor Pigou, in his work 'Socialism vs. Capitalism', wrote that for the economist, the most important investment of all is the investment in the intelligence and character of the people.

In spite of the importance attached to investment in man and efforts by a number of economists to bring it within the realm of economic theory, most economic development planners usually give only peripheral consideration to the analysis of human resources. The economists recognize that some investments in education are 'economic ' since they directly promote economic growth, they contend that other

expenditures for education and human resource development are primarily" social investments" and should be determined residually.

After many debates regarding the benefits from education economists have subdivided the benefits of education into (1) education for consumption; (2) education for long-period future consumption; (3) education as an intermediate commodity and (4) 'capital' in education.

It was also accepted by the economists that education affects economic development both directly through increasing productivity, increasing employment, composition of labour force, division and mobility of labour, etc., indirectly through savings, and limitation of the size of the family, by inculcating the right kinds of attitudes and skills and by removing some of the obstacles to social change and progress.

Blaug Mark in his work " The Correlation Between Education and Earnings What Does it Signify ?" expressed a view that better educated persons receive higher personal earnings.

Lorraine Corner in his book "Human Resource Development for Developing Countries: A Survey of the Major Theoretical Issues" quoted that 'Paul Streen as having described investment in human resources as "thrice blessed" because, in addition to being a valued consumption good, human resources development both raises productivity and lower reproductivity: a vigorously, healthy, skilled labour force is more productive while educated, healthy families tend to have fewer children. He mentioned that human resource development offers a number of attractions as a key element in overall development strategy. It has often been cited as an appropriate strategy to improve income distribution between different classes of people and equally between both sexes.

At present there is considerable unanimity of opinion on the desirability of human resource development from both political and humanitarian perspectives. The fundamental task of development policy and planning in developing countries

involves the determination of priorities for the allocation of limited resources in the face of immense and pressingly immediate needs. Conventional economic theory identified three major categories of productive resources- land, labour and capital. Later, the economists recognized that human resource is the key factor of the capital. They identified that among the three factors human, physical and financial, human resource factor is, the most strategic and critical. The economists explained that a country may possess abundant and inexhaustible natural and physical resources and the necessary machinery and capital equipment, but without human beings who can mobilize, organize and harness nature's bountiful resources for production of goods and services, the country cannot make rapid strides towards economic and social advancement. Thus, there, is a growing realization that a rapid rate of 'human capital formation' is as important a precondition of economic growth as the rapid rate of " physical capital formation'. The growing awareness of the need for and urgency of building 'human capital' for the attainment of accelerated and self-sustained economic growth could be ascribed to several factors:

First, the conviction is gaining ground that economic growth in the advanced countries appears to be attributable, more to human skills than to capital. Second, investment in human resources has resulted directly led to contributing to economic development and growth through the promotion of knowledge and application of science and technology to production process, through innovations and research, training the workers in different technical skills needed for modern production and building up the right type of attitudes, values and interests conducive to higher output. Third, human resource development is not only an essential pre-condition of economic growth, it is among its major objectives as well. Fourth, the rapid and spectacular post-war recovery of countries that suffered the destruction of physical capital, could be ascribed, by and large, to the nation's resources in technical and skilled manpower, that helped rebuild the entire productive system damaged by the war. But for the availability of human capital, the process of recovery would have stalled. Finally, in most of the developing countries there are possibilities of raising the general living standards of the population substantially through fuller and rational use of the surplus manpower particularly in rural areas and through the development of physical and

mental potentials of the population, primarily through education, training and development of right values and attitudes. Thus, providing 'education' and 'training' to the population is important producing goods, running industries developing manufacturing skills, and promoting various public utility services. The generating and distributing 'knowledge' and 'skills' is vital for making important contributions to economic growth and development. In this way, human capital can be broadly defined as the 'sum total of the knowledge, skills and aptitudes of the people, inhabiting the country'. In a broader sense, it includes the initiative resourcefulness, capacity for sustained work, right values, interests and attitudes and other human qualities conducive to higher output and accelerated economic growth.

3.1.1 Techniques and Approaches of Human Resource Development Planning:

There are a number of approaches which have been recently evolved and the number of interesting studies and surveys conducted which provide some rational basis to gauge whether and to what extent the investment in human resources seems to have contributed to accelerating economic growth and development of the countries.

1. The Residual Factor Approach:

In this approach the analysis of the increase in production output is done over a period of time. The production output is to be related with the input factors in measurable terms. The residual is conceived to be atleast in part, the result of advances in education. The residual factor approach emphasises on education, research, training, the economics of scale and other factors affecting human productivity. This approach has been adopted by several economists like Professor Edward F. Denison, in his works "The Sources of Economic Growth" in the United States and the Alternative Before US, "Measuring the Contribution of Education to Economic Growth", and by the OECD study group on 'The Residual Factor and Economic Growth' (OECD,1964), and by Professor R. Salow in his stimulating article "Technical Change and the Aggregate Production Function" (Solow,1957). However, due to some limitations, partly conceptual and partly methodological, the 'residual factor' has not received universal acceptance.

2. Investment- Income Approach:

The Investment-Income Approach attempts to analyze and examine the relationship between investments in human resources, particularly education, and the gross national product or physical capital formation. This approach has been adopted in a number of surveys and studies undertaken by Theodore w. Schultz, S. Strumilin, Amagi, Fritz Machlup, H. Correa, Grey G. Backer and Jacob Mincer. According to Professor Schultz, the rate of contribution made by education to the increase of national income in the United States was estimated to be about 33 percent. These calculations were based on the differences in the level of income and the differences in costs of education. A slightly different approach was adopted by Dr. Strumilin, a member of the Academy of Sciences, USSR. His assumptions was that those who are engaged in work requiring a higher level of technological talent need a higher level of education and are paid higher wages. Professor Schultz had also showed the relationship between the expenditures on education and consumer's income on the one hand and between the expenditure on education and the gross formation of physical capital on the other, in the United States during the period 1900 to 1956 in his study. His study showed that 'educational capital' has grown many times faster than the 'non-human capital'.

3. 'Rate of Return' Approach:

Some empirical studies have been undertaken in recent years by different writers to estimate the 'rate of return' on investments in human resources, particularly in 'education' and 'on-the-job' training. With this approach, the method that has been adopted in estimating the rate of return on investment in education is to aggregate the salaries or wages earned over the working life of various occupations, discounted for interest and to compare this total with the cost of education for those occupations adding to the best extent possible, both the compound interest and 'opportunity costs'. However, this approach has some limitations, it may or may not have equal validity for the economically underdeveloped economies or countries. This approach is also

based on a number of assumptions like the person's income during his life-time, the earnings of different occupations, and about the future wage rates and levels of employment.

4. Inter-Country Comparisons and Analogies Approach:

The inter-country comparisons and analogies approach is introduced by Professor Jan Tinbergen and Dr. H. Correa in their study "Quantitative Adaptation of Education on Economic Growth". Their approach is based on inter-country comparisons and analogies approach. The researchers developed a simple input- output model of education and its relationship with production. The model attempts to establish the link between economic development and the educational system of a nation and aims to describe the demand flows for the various types of qualified manpower, to be expected from the organizers of production of education. The model is based on some important assumptions as (i) education must precede other factors in the production process due to the long lead time involved; (ii) there is a fixed relationship between the number of persons with specific education levels (secondary and higher) and the volume of production in the economy; (iii) there is full employment of the graduates of the educational system; (iv) the teacher-student ratios are fixed over time and; (v) there is substitutability of labour at particular levels of education.

Although, this model provides an extremely useful and convenient tool for estimating the educational requirements of economic growth, it has been criticized by Gottfried Bombach, Thomas Balogh and A. K. Sen for its several shortcomings and limitations (OECD,1964).

5. ' Composite Index' and GNP ' Approach':

Professor Fredrick Harbison and Charles A. Myers have in their work, "Education Manpower and Economic Growth - Strategies of Human Resources Development", attempted to study whether there are significant statistical relationships among the various human resources indicators, distinguishing between what might be desirable and what are available and pointing out the advantages and limitations of each type of human resources indicator and the

measures of economic growth. According to Professor Harbison and Myers the principal indicators related to human resources development are:

-) Number of teachers (first and second levels) per 10,000 population
-) Engineers and scientists per 10,000 population
-) Physicians and dentists per 10,000 population
-) The adjustment school enrolment ratios for the first and second- levels combined
-) Pupils enrolled for second-level (secondary) education as a percentage of the estimated
-) Population aged 15-19 inclusive, adjusted for the length of schooling
-) Enrolment for third level (higher) education as a percentage of age group 20-24

The stock of human resources or human capital of the country can be measured by the last four indicators. The stock of human capital indicates the level of human resources development, which has been achieved by a country and the rate of human capital formation indicates its rate of improvement. According to them, the country can be grouped with different levels of human resources development, namely, 'underdeveloped', 'partially developed', 'semi-advanced' and 'advanced'.

Herbison and Myers study shows a high positive correlation between the composite index of human resource development and GNP per capita, in United States dollars for the seventy-five countries. The study also reveals significant correlation between a number of other indicators of human resource development and those which measure economic development (Mehta,1976).

However, it is very difficult to measure or calculate the rate of financial return on an educational project due to difficulty of ascertaining consumption and investment factors. Efforts to give greater emphasis to human resources in economic theory and the attempts to measure the contribution of education to economic growth are constructive.

But the concept that human resource development either can or should be analyzed solely in economic terms is not possible (Herbison and Myers,1974).

The goals of modern societies, are political, cultural, and social as well as economic. Human resource development is a necessary condition for achieving all of them. A country needs educated political leaders, lawyers and judges, trained engineers, doctors, managers, artists, writers, craftsmen and journalists for overall development. If a country is unable to develop its human resources, it cannot develop much else in other fields also, whether it be a modern political and social structure, a sense of national unity, or higher standards of material welfare." Countries are underdeveloped because most of their people are underdeveloped, having had no opportunity of expanding their potential capacities in the service of society (Adame Curle,1962).

Progress is basically the result of human effort. It mobilizes capital, exploits natural resources, creates markets and carries on trade. Thus, in a very real sense the wealth of a nation and its potential for social, economic, and political growth stem from the power to develop and effectively utilize the innate capacities of its people males and females. In this sense, the human resource development, may be a more reliable indicator of modernization or development than other measures (Herbison and Myers, 1974).

There is an interrelationship between human resource development - employment and manpower planning. As the Asian Employment Program (ARTEP) mentioned that a number of country experiences suggest that while the objective of human resource development has certainly moved to the centerstage of development priorities in almost all countries, in actual practice sufficient importance is still not attached to the attainment of the specific objectives of employment generation and manpower development. It is at present, realized by many countries that there is a need to integrate employment and manpower planning and to emphasize human resource development from an employment perspective (ARTEP report on Resource Planning, 1987).

Regarding the economic criteria for education and development of "Human Capital" Schultz mentioned in his book "Reflections on Investment in Man" that "the puzzle confronting economists that the rate of growth in the output that was being observed has been much larger than the rate of increase in the principal resources that were being measured".

However, this view has some limitations. A number of studies in this field pointed out that improvement in the quality of labour is one of the major sources of economic growth. The main idea reflected from the studies indicates that investments in "human capital" could be treated, with minor modifications in conventional theories of investment, in the same manner as investments in physical capital.

Reviews of the statistical association between educational investments and growth rates provided sharp presumptive evidence that the educational achievements of a nation's workforce was a significant factor in improving the " quality" of labour force as a " factor of production".

3.1.2 Benefits of Human Resource Development:

According to John Vaizey, there are three direct and fundamental contributions of education to economic development. First, new techniques can be embodied in physical capital, which in turn determines the rate of economic growth (Vaizy, 1967). Second, the more rapidly new skills can be given to members of the work force, the more easily they become able to make use of production techniques, and the more likely they are to initiate changes in methods of production and methods of organization. A third but less tangible aspect of education's role inheres in the "underlying complex of relationships and attitudes which link consumers and workers and management" (Berg; 1969).

As regards the impact of education on employment, Mark Blaug reviews the assumptions commonly held by many decision-makers about the positive relationship between education and employment and finds that in most countries the assumptions are based more on myth than on the fact. Investment in education does not create

permanent jobs in the society, except for teachers. With some exceptions in countries that have widespread manpower deficiencies, the expansion of educational system does not work effectively to eliminate poverty. Blaug also suggests that, in fact, the policy of not expanding education, and assuming that the fixed capital would be used for the direct creation of jobs, may at times be a more effective way of reducing poverty. And even when there are manpower shortages, closer examination often shows that the traditional economic solution of increasing the supply of educated people to drive down the wage rates has not been, and will not be, an effective solution to the problem. He also found that earning differentials associated with higher levels of education are excessive. According to him, experimentation with new educational approaches is the only way to reduce the wasteful mismatch between education and employment.

Martin Carnoy suggests that unemployment of educated people has not been caused by the educational system, but rather by an economic system in which employer's benefit from high levels of unemployment since wages are thereby decreased. More education will not create jobs, outside of the educational sector. One way to reduce pressure in schooling is to reduce unemployment at all levels of the labour force, since, less unemployment leads to less demand to continue schooling, and the income foregone by staying out of the work force increases. Furthermore, schooling has discouraged students from entrepreneurial efforts: the more educated the school leavers, the more concerned they are with job security. Finally, because of the growing gap between the numbers of school leavers and the job opportunities for a given educational level, the income and status benefits of education have fallen. In this regard, Clignet concludes that, far from promoting equal employment opportunities, the educational system tends to reproduce the inequalities found in society (Simmons: 1980).

Human resource development also offers a number of attractions as a key element in overall development strategy. It has been considered as an appropriate strategy to improve income distribution. At the same time it was also recognized that human resources shared many of the attributes of capital goods, a concept that led to the development of human capital theory. The economists described human capital

theory as the process of changing the "quality" or productive power of human labour, which in turn is affected primarily by formal education, on-the-job training, health and migration, and this led to have effect on employment. Factors such as labour force participation rates and the age-sex composition of labour force affect human capital formation. This approach was developed by the school of neo-classical economic thought that sought the foundations of all social phenomena in individual behavior. Later on the human capital theory was transferred from the microeconomics of individual behavior to the macroeconomics of public policy-making. The macro origin of the human capital concept towards growth accounting theory implied that investment in human capital resulted in increased productivity and more economic growth. There are some aspects of the theory, which seem as obstacles. As pointed out by Blaug, it is very difficult to estimate the true social rate of return to educational investments and without this it is doubtful whether rate of return studies can provide an adequate basis for making future allocation related decisions. Similarly, the muted role of the price system in the public sector, which is the main source of the problem, means that alternative methodologies for determining allocate efficiency are also weak.

However, at the national level, the primary justification for educational investment according to the human capital theory is that higher education increases productivity and that education in general raises productivity is virtually self-evident. Many researches have intended to concentrate on the association between education and productivity as measured by earnings in the formal sector.

Regarding women and education, every girl should have the opportunity to express her individuality and aspirations by taking up whatever career her aptitude and interests lead her to, besides that of looking after home. The education enhances this desire in her, not only to run her home efficiently, but also to look to other ways of expressing herself and of keeping an independent outlook which often shows itself by her taking up a job and getting a measure of economic independence (Sharma and Sharma (edt.), 1995).

3.2 Status of Female Education in Nepal

3.2.1 Educational Development in Nepal:

Historical Background:

In Nepal, the history of educational development was as old as the country itself. The ancient forms of education in Nepal were associated with the two major religions - Hinduism and Buddhism. The first institutions were established for the training of priests and other personnel to propagate those religions. According to the Chinese and Tibetan documents Nepalese scholars were skilled in astronomy, geography, literature and Sanskrit in those days. There was also a system of skill oriented education for religious purposes and to maintain the livelihood of people. Education in those days was limited only to the certain group of privilege people. There was no system of modern or formal education for ordinary people at that time. Access of education to all the people was available only many years later. The ruling Ranas introduced the western type of education into Nepal for the first time in 1853 for educating the children of their families only. The Ranas were thoroughly opposed to the education of the general masses. This policy continued during their period of rule from 1846 to 1950. Until 1900, institutionalized education was limited to a few Sanskrit Pathshalas in Kathmandu, attended only by Brahmin boys from Kathmandu and the Western Hills.

In 1901 the first step was taken by the Nepal government to organize schools and institute the teaching of Nepali, in the hills and terai as well as in the Kathmandu valley. An estimated 100 schools were set up employing Brahmin Pundits and Kayastha teachers.

In 1932 the primary as well as high school education system after the Western pattern, was in vogue along with the indigenous system of education. By the end of World War II, there were about 30 schools in the Kathmandu Valley and about 100 schools outside the valley. Demands of the people during those years were to study Nepali culture and language as a part of Nepal's nationalistic awakening.

The formal school - Darbar School was set up in Kathmandu in 1853 along the lines followed in British- India, since the Ranas were in close association with the British in India and the education system there. Its main purpose was to educate the sons of the nobility. Access of education to all was available only many years later. During 104 years of their rule, the Ranas remained opposed to any form of public education for the people. They and other members of the ruling elite provided formal instruction for their children as preparation for their eventual assumption of government posts.

Tri- Chandra college was the first college established in Nepal in 1945 by the Rana prime minister Juddha Shamsheer to allow the small group of Brahmin and Chhetri administrators around the Ranas to keep their children in the valley, away from the nationalistic influences (Gaige, 1970: 333).

Among the first to emphasize Nepali as the medium of instruction were the members of a group called Nepali Shiksha Parisad (Nepali Education Council) in 1950. In 1951, after the Rana government fell, some new schools were established throughout the country, mainly by the communities and individuals on a private basis. The schools were financed largely by fees and donations. The more efforts to establish new schools continued in response to a large social demand for education by the people. According to social demand girls also started joining the schools. His Majesty' Government of Nepal supported these efforts by providing these schools with annual grants according to student members. As a result of those efforts, the number of primary and secondary schools were increased. In higher education more and more colleges were established. The adult literacy rate which was only 1 percent (estimated) in 1951, rose to 12 percent in 1972. This rate has been increasing every year thereafter. However, during the time the country faced a shortage of trained teachers. The curricula at different levels of education were rigid, old fashioned and very often not relevant to the country's needs. There was also a high incidence of drop-outs from the schools. Teachers were not paid adequately and the classes in the schools were not held regularly. A detailed education plan was felt necessary for the socio-economic development of the country. There was also a low increment rate in female enrolment

in different levels of education due to different socio-economic conditions of the country.

Realizing that the education system had to serve the wider interests of the community as well as become a force for socio-economic development, the government in 1970, drew up a National Education System Plan. This plan was supposed to establish for the first time a uniform system of education all over the whole country. The plan was being implemented with certain changes, on a phased basis. The general aims are to integrate different groups in the country into one all-embracing nation, to expand educational opportunity, and to supply trained manpower for national development. The educational plan had several noteworthy features. First, it is long - range in outlook. The educational programs are determined by the long-term development needs of the country. Second, the plan and program are integrated into the total national programs of education and training. The programs of education are based on the basic demands of the country, and institutional development is related to the manpower needs of the country. The plan also proposed a systematic education system with some flexibility for timely adjustment and adoption as the need arises. The Ministry of Education and Culture outlines the broad goals of the plan as follows:

"The plan is primarily aimed at counteracting the elitist bias of the inherited system of education by linking it more effectively to productive enterprises and egalitarian principles. It, in brief, is committed to tackling irrelevant and disorganized varieties of education that still exist in the country. The plan calls for unifying education into one productive system that serves the country's needs and aspirations. The concept of education regards education as an investment in human resources for the development of the country".

3.2.2. The Educational Structure in Nepal:

The educational structure in Nepal consists of three levels in school and three levels plus in higher education. The primary education consists of grades I-V, lower secondary grades VI- VIII and secondary grades IX - X. Similarly, the higher education is distributed in four cycles- proficiency certificate or 10+ 2 higher secondary,

bachelor's degree, master's degree and research or Ph.D. The government enacted the council for Higher Secondary Education Act in 1989 for establishment of higher secondary schools. The National Education Commission (NEC, 1992), also recommended starting of higher secondary schools. Accordingly, the government has introduced a new structure in the higher secondary education level of two years' duration after the 10th grade in school. Thus in 1992 the higher secondary classes were started in 37 secondary schools spread over different parts of the country. As NEC recommended, the proficiency certificate level of the higher education system would be gradually absorbed into the higher secondary education level over a period of time and as of now the existing campuses are conducting the proficiency certificate level courses as usual.

Before primary education, there also exists the pre-primary education system in many urban areas, which are mostly run by private agents or bodies.

The primary education consists of the first five years of schooling. It concentrates on basic literacy and arithmetic. The following subjects are taught in the primary schools: Nepali, Mathematics, English, Social and Environmental Education (Health Education), Social Studies, Physical Education, Creative and Expressive Art, Environmental Science and Health Education and one Optional subject (Language/ Others), etc.

The lower secondary education consists of grades 6,7 and 8. Lower secondary education like primary education, is standardized throughout the country, providing a common basic education for the 6th, 7th, and 8th. grades. The subjects taught in general lower secondary schools and lower secondary Sanskrit schools are: Nepali, Mathematics, English, Social Science Science, Health and Physical Education, Sanskrit, Population and Environmental Education, Art and Pre-Vocational Education, Sanskrit Grammar and Translation, Sanskrit Language, Veda or Ethics, Karmakanda or Astronomy and so on.

The secondary education consists of 9th. and 10th. grades. From the 9th. grade, pupils have the choice of entering either a general, vocational or Sanskrit school. An outline of the secondary school curriculum is as given below: Nepali, Mathematics, English, Social Science, Science and Environmental Education, Health and Physical Education or Computer Science or Population Education, one Optional Subject in general school and Classical Sanskrit and Compulsory Sanskrit in Sanskrit School (Ministry of Education, 1996). The main goals of secondary education are (1)" to create useful citizens by laying special stress on vocational training and (2)" to produce disciplined ideal citizens through teaching about loyalty to the country, the crown and the god" (MOE, 1988).

School level education is provided mainly by the public schools aided by the government. However, in urban areas there is emerging the private sector in school education.

The government is committed to the policy of making basic and primary education available to all children (boys as well as girls) in the age group 6-10 years by the year 2000. Similarly, the government has decided to implement gradually the policy of making free tuition fees free up to secondary education level in public schools. Accordingly, tuition fees were waived for grade VI in the public schools in 1991/92 and for grade VII in 1993/94. The government provided budget for waiving tuition fees for grade VII in 1994/95.

In the fiscal year 1994/95 the government allocation (regular and development together) for the education sector amounted to Rs. 5,684,374,000. This constituted 13.32 percent of the total government budget for that year (Ministry of Education, 1995). However, the public expenditure for education as percentage of GDP is lower in Nepal as compared with the average for other Asian countries, which was 4.4 percent in 1989, and in Nepalese context it was only 2.2 percent in 1991/92 (National Planning Commission; 1995; UNESCO, Statistical Year Book; 1989).

Higher Education:

Besides higher secondary schools, higher education in Nepal is provided mainly by three Universities- Tribhuvan University, Mahendra Sanskrit University, and Kathmandu University. However, the main provider for higher education is the Tribhuvan University and the private campuses affiliated with it. Tribhuvan University was established in 1914.

It produces both technical and general manpower required for the country. It also produces all the three levels of manpower - lower, medium and higher levels. The campuses under Tribhuvan University and the private campuses affiliated with it have spread over all parts of the country, providing higher education in different fields such as humanities and social sciences, management and commerce, law, education, engineering, forestry, agriculture and animal science, science and technology, medicine and so on.

Following the introduction of the Higher Secondary Education in Nepal in 1992, Tribhuvan University is planning to phase out the Proficiency Certificate Program from its campuses. Accordingly, it has recently implemented three years Bachelor courses

To provide research facilities and to promote research, Tribhuvan University has four Research Centers under it. The name of these Research Centers are: Center for Nepal and Asian Studies (CNAS), Center for Economic Development and Administration (CEDA), Research Center for Educational Innovation and Development (CERID) and Research Center for Applied Science and Technology (RECAST).

Mahendra Sanskrit University which accounts for a small proportion of total higher education only offers courses through eight campuses for Uttar Madhyama (Intermediate), Shastri (Bachelors) and Acharya (Masters) levels and provides facilities for degree and non- degree research work on Sanskrit. In addition, Mahendra Sanskrit University runs two Sanskrit Secondary Schools in consonance with its university system. The university also organizes training programs on Vedic and Buddhist teaching and Yoga.

The Kathmandu University was chartered by an Act of Parliament in 1991. Previously (from 1985) Valley Campus with the academic affiliation with T. U. was offering an intermediate of science course.

The Kathmandu University runs a Certificate level science and Bachelor level technical courses and also conducts pre- MBA and MBA courses (as of 1994). The academic programs run by Kathmandu University are: The School of Science, The School of Management, The School of Engineering, The School of Arts and The School of Education.

Besides the above-mentioned institutions of higher education, Technical and Vocational Training (CTEVT) is also getting involved in providing technical courses through different technical schools and vocational training centers in the country.

3.2.3 Educational Attainment by Females in Nepal:

Emphasis on various arguments justifying the value and necessity of education from the point of view of an individual as well as the society has varied according to the historical needs of any society in different stages of its evolution. In the present context education is regarded necessary for males as well as females in all conditions and in every society. One of the expectations from the use of education is that it will bring about reduction in inequalities in the society assuming that education leads to equalization of status between individuals - higher to unequal socio-economic strata of society. It was on this argument that the universal declaration of Human Rights included education as one of the basic rights of every person. The constitution of the UNESCO directs its efforts to achieve the ideal of equality of educational opportunities without regard to race, sex or any other distinctions, economic as well as social.

The history of the movement for improving women's status all over the world shows emphasis on education as the most powerful instrument for changing women's position in the society. Increase of educational facilities and opportunities, and the removal of traditional bars on entry of women to particular branches and levels of education came to be supported by the educationalists and women's emancipation

group from the 19th century onwards (Singal, 1995). Since then it was realized that females also could participate in formal education as that of males. In Nepal, before 1950, the formal education for the girls are not possible due to government policy and social condition of that time. Only after the advent of democracy in Nepal the formal education in the schools for the girls also started gradually. Looking back on the history of female education, Padma Shumsher was the first Rana Prime minister, who opened the door to education for females. But its emphasis became prominent after Nepal Education Planning Commission (NEPC). NEPC highlighted the necessity of "education for girls on a par with boys" in the First Educational Plan for the country (CERID, 1998, p.59). Currently, in Nepal, various projects and programs designed to identify effective and convenient ways to providing education for females are in operation. Still, women's participation in the formal educational sector is less striking due to many reasons. The main hindrances to less improvement in female's education are poverty, marriage at early age, child birth at early age, females' greater involvement in domestic activities, social and cultural disincentive, lack of relevance of contents and methods used in educational programs, little knowledge about the benefit of education and not so encouraging government policy to involve girls in different levels of education(CERID,1994). According to Nepal Living Standard Survey, the literacy rate of the population 6 years and above in Nepal is 38 percent and there are marked gender disparities in literacy rates, since 52 percent of males are literate as compared to 24 percent of females. Compared to the other parts of the country the gender gap in literacy rates is smallest in Kathmandu Valley (88.56 percent for males and 65.25 percent for females) (CBS,1996).

Illiteracy "remains the greatest barrier to any improvement in the position of women in employment, health, the exercise of legal and constitutional right and in generally attaining equality of status (Government of India, 1974).

The participation of women in different levels of education in Nepal is gradually improving. This fact was proved by the data from the different censuses. The percentage distribution of the total and female population by level of education for different census years is given below in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1:

**Percentage Distribution of the Total & Female
Population 6/10 Years and Above by Level of Education for Different Census
Years 1971-1991**

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT	1971	1981	1991
NO SCHOOLING:			
Total	4.42	5.50	8.98
Female	1.00	2.70	5.95
PRIMARY:			
Total	5.79	11.33	16.15
Female	1.86	6.80	11.19
SECONDARY:			
Total	3.10	4.80	8.88
Female	0.90	1.92	4.97
SLC*& INTERMEDIATE:			
Total	0.34	1.23	2.88
Female	0.11	0.45	1.31
GRADUATE& POST GRADUATE*:			
Total	0.24	0.39	0.64
Female	0.05	0.13	0.23

Source: Population Monograph of Nepal; 1987 & 1995 (CBS, National Planning Commission)

*SLC denotes School Leaving Certificate, Post Graduates denotes Masters and Equivalent.

There has been considerable improvement in different levels of educational attainment by females during 1971-1991. The proportions of females with different levels of educational background are higher in 1991 compared to those in preceding

censuses. The percentage of female population aged 6 years and above, who had completed primary education in 1971 was 1.80, whereas this percentage was 6.80 in 1981 and 11.19 in 1991. Likewise the proportion of females, who had completed secondary education was 0.91 in 1971, 1.92 in 1981 and 4.97 in 1991. Similarly, the females, who completed S.L.C. and intermediate level of education in 1971, 1981, and 1991 were 0.11, 0.45 and 1.31 percent respectively. Likewise, the females who completed graduate and post-graduate levels of education in 1971 were only 0.05 percent and it rose to 0.23 percent in 1991.

It was found in every census that there is a difference between female- male ratio in educational attainment. The female-male ratio by educational attainment, 6 years of age and above for Nepal in 1971-1991 census is given in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2:

Female-Male Ratio by Educational Attainment

6 Years of Age and Above for Nepal

1971-1991

Females per 100 Males

Levels of Education	1971	1981	1991
Illiterate	122.4	127.1	166.7
Literate	16.2	33.8	46.3
No Schooling	-	32.2	50.0
Primary	10.4	41.5	53.5
Lower Secondary	-	27.9	-
SLC	11.7	22.2	31.2
Intermediate	-	21.5	26.4
Graduate	10.2	18.7	22.2
Post Graduate	-	17.6	23.7

Source: Population Monograph of Nepal; CBS, National Planning Commission, 1995

The Table shows that as the level of education increases, the ratio of females to males declines progressively. At the post-graduate level, the female-male differentials is very high that is one-to -four.

Increasing growth in different levels of education during the decades has been observed from the data. The trends in enrolment growth for total population during censuses between 1971- 1991 are given in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3:

**Growth Rate of Total and Female Enrolments at Various Levels of Education
(in Percentage, 1971-1991)**

	1971	1981	1991
PRIMARY:			
Total	19.8	6.94	3.6
Female	20.4	13.8	5.1
SECONDARY:			
Total	14.08	4.46	6.34
Female	15.66	7.75	9.97
SLC & INTERMEDIATE:			
Total	2.33	13.27	8.88
Female	8.20	15.12	11.27
GRADUATE & POST GRADUATE:			
Total	11.61	4.97	5.07
Female	17.46	10.02	5.87
NO SCHOOLING:			
Total	4.03	2.21	5.02
Female	1.80	10.64	8.02

Source: Population Monograph of Nepal, CBS, 1995

The literacy rate and educational attainment of female population differs from one Development Region to another in of Nepal (Annex A, Table 4).

The male-female difference in literacy rate is lowest (27.2 percent) for Central Development Region and highest (38.5 percent) for Far- western Development Region in 1991. Like-wise, this difference is 27.6 percent for Western Development Region, 29.9 percent for Eastern Development Region and 31.3 percent for the Mid-Western Development Region.

There is also a vast difference in the literacy rate and educational attainment among the females of the rural and the urban areas of Nepal (Annex A, Table 5).

The male-female differential in literacy rate is smaller in urban areas than in rural areas of Nepal. The male-female differential in literacy rate for urban areas is 28.8 percent, whereas this differential is 33.0 percent for rural areas.

The percentage of educated female population for rural and urban areas of Nepal from 1981- 1991 by level of education is shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4:

**Percentage of Female Population
Aged 6 Years and Above by Level of Education for
Rural and Urban Nepal, 1981-1991**

Educational Attainment	1981		1991	
	<u>Rural</u>	<u>Urban</u>	<u>Rural</u>	<u>Urban</u>
NO SCHOOLING:				
Total	5.30	8.37	8.74	11.27
Female	2.53	6.04	5.57	9.80
PRIMARY:				
Total	10.88	17.83	15.88	10.61
Female	6.23	15.50	18.74	16.97
SECONDARY:				
Total	4.15	14.24	7.93	17.97
Female	1.34	10.72	3.97	15.02
SLC & INTERMEDIATE:				
Total	0.85	6.75	1.96	11.62
Female	0.20	4.36	0.60	8.41
GRADUATE & POST GRADUATE:				
Total	0.19	3.29	0.26	4.28
Female	0.03	1.54	0.04	2.13
LEVEL NOT STATED:				
Total	-	-	1.73	2.49
Female	-	-	1.00	1.99

Source: Population Monograph of Nepal, CBS, 1995; Table 25, 26.

The percentage of female population attending each level of education in school as well as higher education is comparatively higher in urban areas of Nepal than in rural areas. This is because of the fact that in urban areas parents are more conscious about the need for educating their children - son as well as daughter, while in rural areas the parents are not so conscious about education. The rural people have to depend upon self-subsistence farming and girls from the early childhood have to engage in household work and agricultural work in the farms to help their parents. Similarly, in rural areas the number of schools and other facilities for the people is less. the girls get married in early age even before puberty in rural areas. The 1991 census data indicated that the mean age at marriage for girls in rural areas is 17.9, whereas this figure is slightly high (19.6) for urban areas (CBS, 1995).

Among other urban parts of Nepal Kathmandu Valley comes in the first place regarding females participation in education. The percentage of the females in different levels of school education is shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5:

**Percentage Distribution of Females in Different Levels of School Education in
Kathmandu Valley
1991-1995**

Level of Education	1991		1992		1993		1994		1995	
	Total	% of Girls	Total	% of Girls	Total	% of Girls	Total	% of Girls	Total	% of Girls
Primary	192224	45	201708	46	041726	47	217844	47	229931	47
Lower Secondary	41452	41	46742	42	76301	43	80453	42	79103	44
Secondary	51985	40	56523	41	36755	41	39308	41	39636	44.29

Source: Educational Statistics of Nepal -At a Glance (1994), and Educational Statistics of Nepal, 1995, Ministry of Education and Culture.

Figure 3.1:

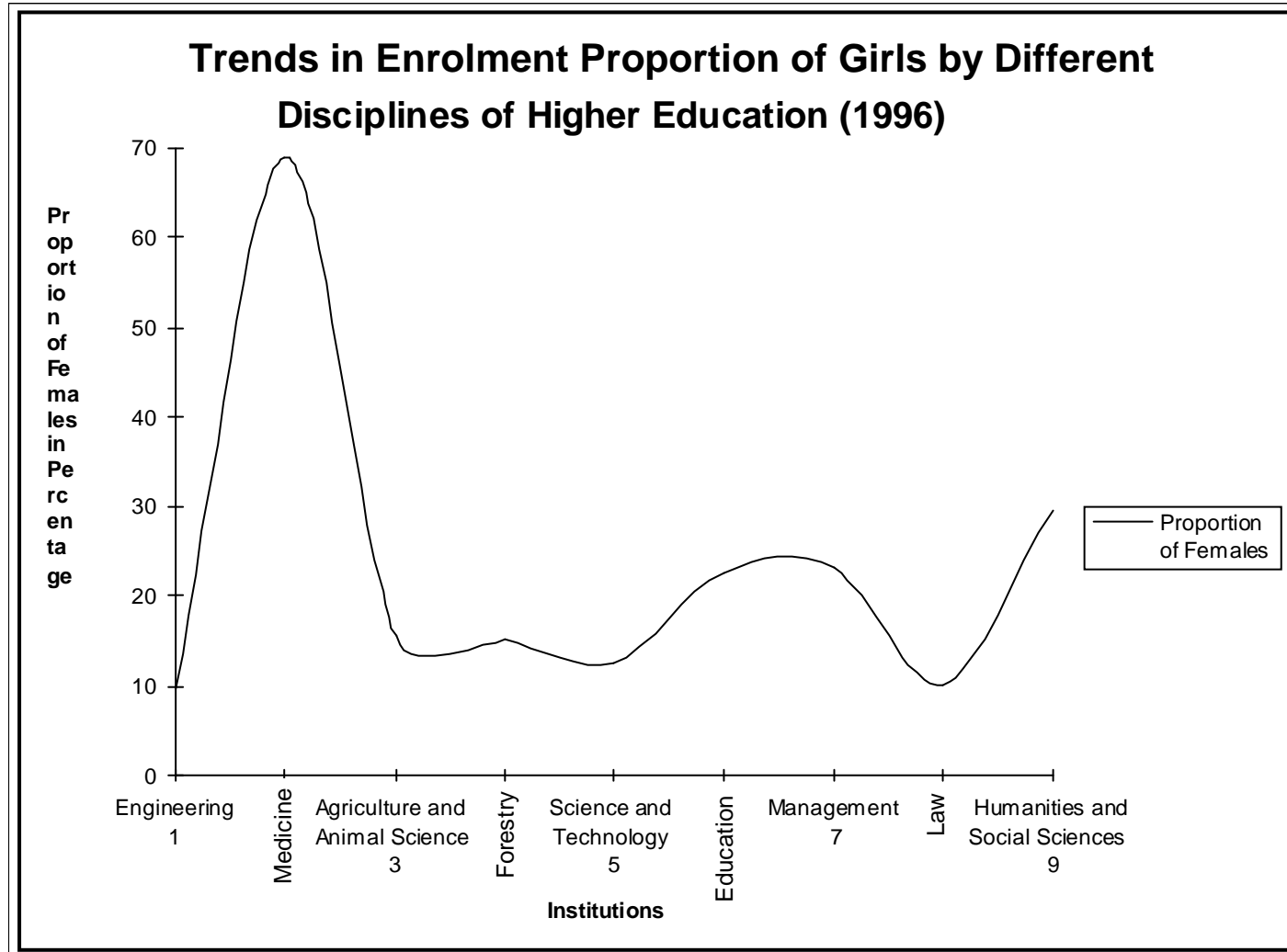


Figure 3.2:

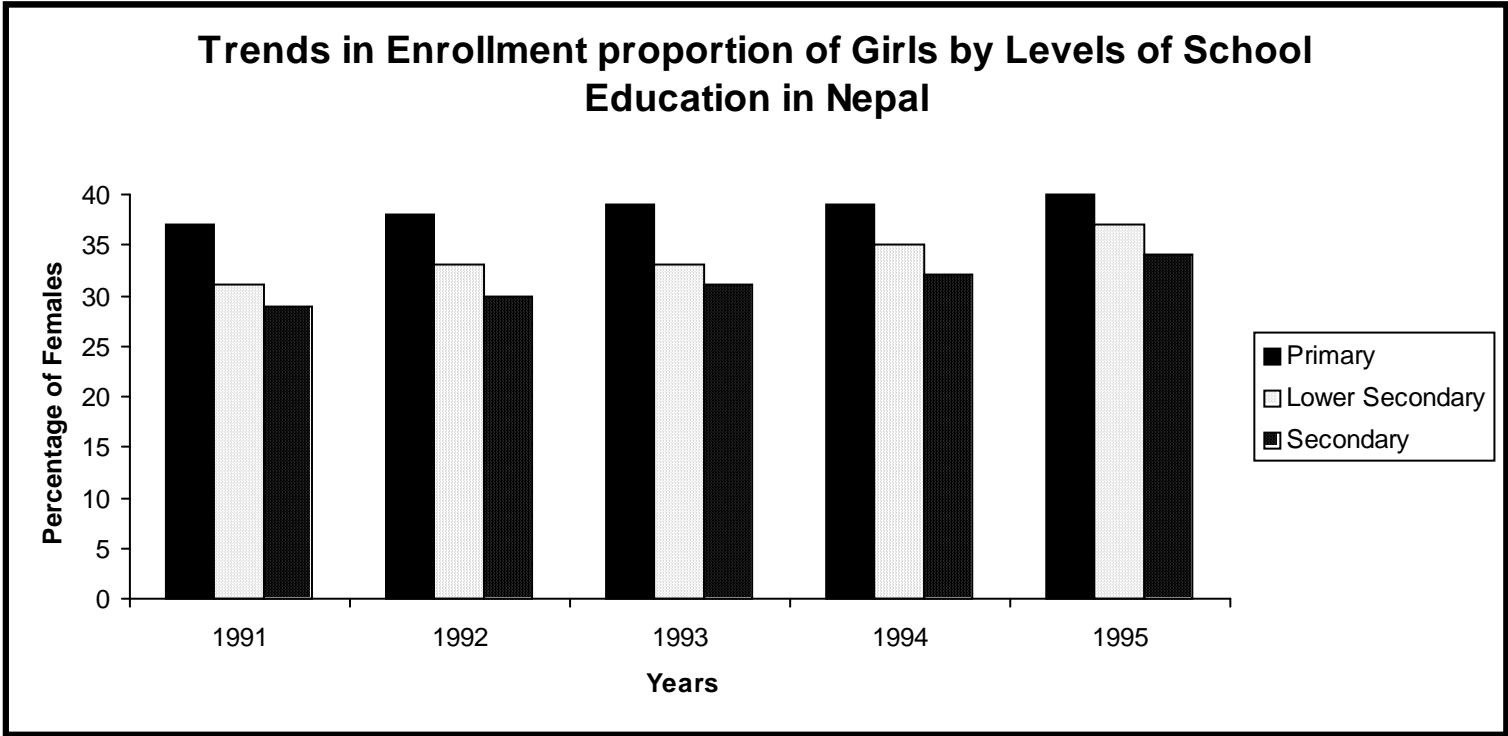
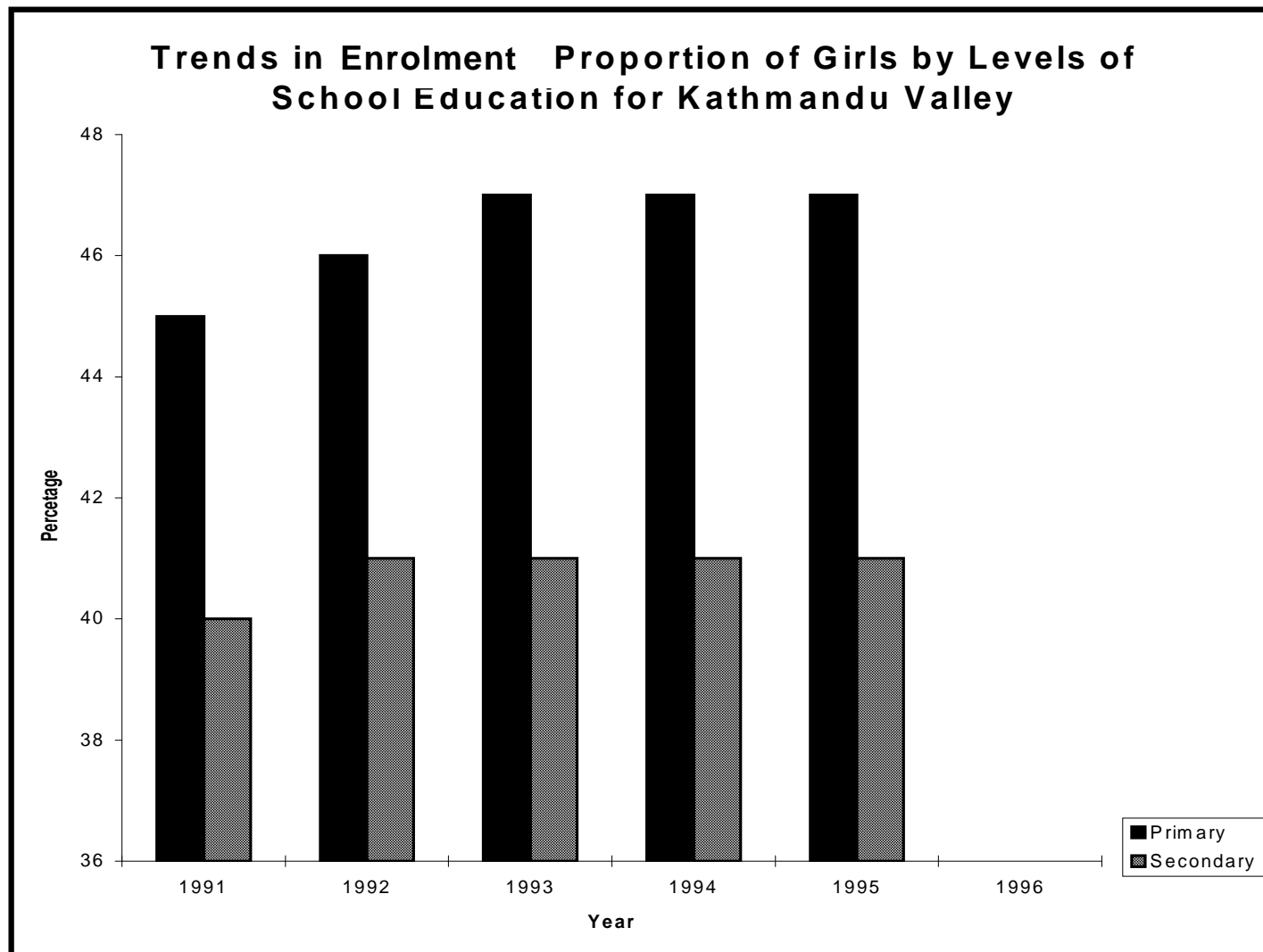


Figure 3.3:



For the Kathmandu Valley, the enrolment percentage of girls in different levels of education is not much less than in other parts of the country. Among the total enrolment figure more than 40 percent were girls in every educational level from primary to secondary levels. The percentage of girls in primary and lower secondary levels has increased from 1991 to 1995. But as the level of education increases the participation of girls is low. The percentage of girls at the primary level in 1991 was 45, whereas the percentage rose to 47 in 1993, 1994 and 1995. But at the lower secondary and secondary levels the participation of the girls in 1991 is 41 and 40 and these percentages were only 44 and 44.29 in 1995. The overall enrolment percentage of girls including primary, lower secondary and secondary was 46.26 in 1995.

Data on school attendance provides a more complete picture both on behalf of the providers as well seekers. The data on current status of school attendance for population 6-25 years of age up to SLC level was collected from the census of 1991 in Nepal. Such data is useful in knowing the percentage of people of 6-25 years of age attending or had already attended schools at different levels (CBS, 1995). The school attendance status of 6-25 years of age female population is shown in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6:
Proportion of 6-25 Years Age Population by Current Status of School Attendance and Level of Education, 1991

	Attending School (in %)				Attending School Earlier (in %)				Not Stated (in %)
	Total	Beginners	Primary	Secondary	Total	Beginners	Primary	Secondary	
Both Sexes	30.58	3.73	19.38	7.47	8.61	1.41	3.68	3.52	7.44
Female	21.85	3.04	14.29	4.52	6.20	1.34	2.65	2.21	6.05

Source; Population Monograph of Nepal, CBS, 1995.

The Table 3.6 presents that the population attending and have already attended (both sexes) in the school up to 10th grade are 30.58 and 8.61 percent. This percent for females are 21.85 and 6.20. Among the currently attending females in school, 3.04 percent are in primary level (grades I-V) and 4.52 percent in secondary level (grade VII-

X). Similarly, the percentage of females, who had attended earlier in primary and secondary levels are 2.65 and 2.21 respectively. It is found that the female attendance rate in all the levels of school education is low as compared to males.

Enrolment of Girls in Different Levels of School Education in Nepal:

One of the indicators of girls' participation in school education was the gross enrolment rate. The gross enrolment rates of the school- going age children and of the girls in primary, lower secondary and secondary schools for the five years (1991- 1995) are presented in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7:

Gross Enrolment Rates of Total and Girl Students by Level

Year	Primary		Lower Secondary		Secondary	
	Total	Female	Total	Female	Total	Female
1991	106	83	40	27	32	20
1992	107	84	44	31	34	21
1993	107	85	44	31	32	20
1994	112	NA	45	NA	30	NA
1995	114	94	48	36	32	22

Source: Educational Statistics of Nepal 1993: An Overview (in Nepali), Statistics and Computer Section, MOE, Educational Statistics of Nepal 1994, 1995.

The gross enrolment rate for total school- going children (population) at the primary level exceed 100 percent, whereas the same rate for females was below 100 percent and near to 100 percent. But the gross enrolment rates for lower secondary and secondary levels of schooling were relatively low (below 50 percent).

The trends in gross enrolment rates indicates that female enrolment rates have been steadily increasing for all the three levels of school education since those rates for primary,

lower secondary and secondary levels rose from 83, 27 and 20 in 1991 and to 94, 36 and 22 in 1995.

Enrolment of Girls in Different Levels of School Education in Nepal:

The annual female enrolment growth rate in different levels of education from the year 1991-1995 is given in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8:

**Annual Female Enrolment Growth Rate
in Different Levels of Education for Nepal,
1991-1995 (in%)**

Level of Education	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Primary	2.77	2.70	2.63	0.00	2.5
Lower Secondary	3.33	6.45	3.03	2.94	2.8
Secondary	3.57	3.44	3.33	3.22	9.3

Source: Educational Statistics of Nepal At a Glance (1990-1994), Educational Statistics, 1995; Ministry of Education.

Growth is calculated as $r = (P_1 / P_0) - 1$

Base year
Where $r = \frac{\text{-----}}{\text{Previous year}} - 1$

The annual female enrolment growth rate in different levels of education for Kathmandu Valley is shown in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9:

Annual Female Enrolment Growth Rate

**in Different Levels of Education for
Kathmandu Valley, 1991-1995 (in%)**

Level of Education	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
Primary	-2	2.22	2.17	0.00	0.72
Lower Secondary	2.5	2.43	3.38	-2.32	4.76
Secondary	0.00	2.5	0.00	0.00	7.9

Source: Educational Statistics At a Glance 1994, Educational Statistics, 1995; Ministry of Education and Culture.

The female enrolment growth rate for Kathmandu Valley in primary level in the year 1991 is negative, but in 1992 and 1993 the growth rate is 2.22 percent and 2.17 percent respectively, and in 1994 and 1995 the growth rate again falls down to zero. Regarding the female enrolment growth rate in lower secondary level it increased from 1991 to 1993 and falls down to -2.32 percent in 1994 and again goes up to 4.76 percent in 1995. Regarding the secondary education growth rates of female enrolment it was found that for the years 1991, 1993 and 1994 the growth rate was zero percent. But the growth rate increased by 2.5 percent in 1992 and 7.9 percent in 1995. It was found that the growth rates fluctuated in different levels of education in different years from 1991 to 1995.

3.2.4 Enrolment in Higher Education:

Higher education for girls /women started very late in Nepal. It was only in 1952 that a girl's college was established. Enrolments in different disciplines of higher education (total and females) are given below:

Table 3. 10:

**Distribution of Higher Education Enrolments
by Major Disciplines, 1995**

Institute/ Faculty	Lower/Others		Certificate		Bachelor		Master		Total	
	Total	% Female	Total	% Female	Total	% Female	Total	% Female	Total	% Female

1. Engineering	-	-	1553	12.16	421	4.03	-	-	1974	10.43
2. Medicine	-	-	687	83.7	300	19.33	56	8.93	1047	61.31
3. Agriculture & Animal Sciences	-	-	139	19.42	381	9.71	-	-	520	15.38
4. Forestry	-	-	283	12.37	121	14.87	-	-	404	13.11
5. Science/ Technology	-	-	7152	12.69	2765	14.32	1465	19.24	11380	13.93
6. Education	-	-	5507	25.38	5314	15.48	802	11.47	11623	19.90
7. Management	-	-	16051	25.61	9073	22.39	3854	17.48	28978	23.52
8. Law	-	-	1853	9.55	2973	10.19	-	-	4826	9.94
9. Humanities & Social Sciences	2022	59.34	23782	32.4	8728	29.99	3878	24.70	38410	36.60
Total	2022	59.34	57007	26.53	30076	20.95	10055	20.00	99162	21.83

Source: Planning Division, Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu University.

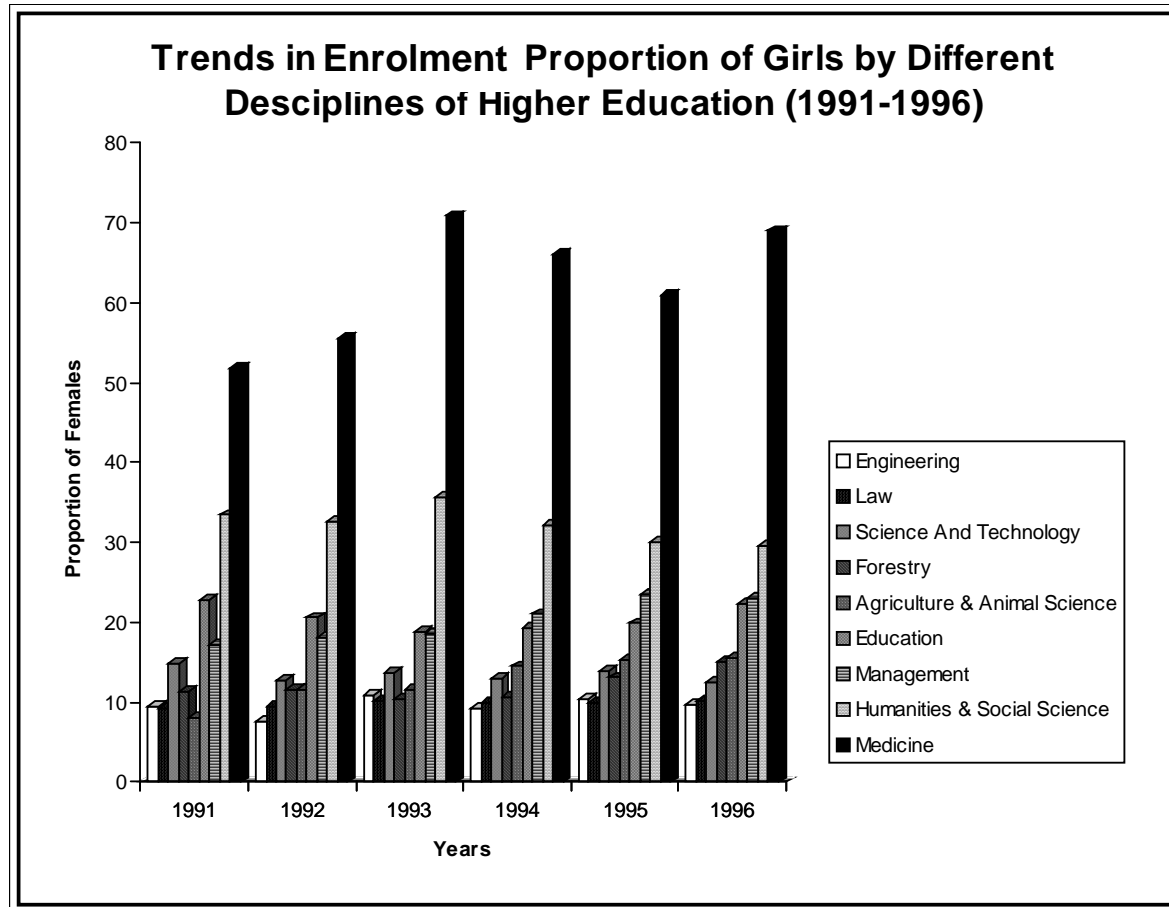
Note: Others include language courses.

Female students in higher education are mark out to 23.92 percent of total higher education enrolments (new enrolments and carry over) in 1995. This is a fairly high participation rate on the part of females. This is due to the fact that girls and their parents at present consider higher education as a gateway to career opportunities as well as social recognition.

The total female enrolment (new and carry over) in the year 1995 in Certificate, Bachelor, and Master's levels are 26.53 percent, 20.95 percent, and 23.92 percent respectively. The maximum participation of the females is in medicine courses followed by humanities and social sciences, management, and commerce and education courses. Their enrolment in different levels of medicine, humanities and social sciences, management, Science and technology and education courses are 61.31, 36.60, 20.00, 19.90 and 13.93 percentages respectively. However, in those institutes and faculties also female participation or enrolment is low as the level of education increases. For example, in master's level medicine course the female's enrolment is only 8.93 percent. Their enrolment in master level in humanities and social sciences, management, education and science and technology faculties are 24.70, 17.48, 11.47 and 19.24 percent. The participation of females in faculty of law, institute of engineering, institute of forestry, institute of agriculture and animal sciences are only 9.94 percent, 10.43 percent, 13.93

percent and 15.38 percent. These percentages are low compared to males. This showed that girls have to come forward to take to have active participation in other areas of technical education except medical courses.

Figure 3.4:



The male/female ratio in enrolment of higher education by major disciplines is presented in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11:

Male/Female Ratio in Enrolment of Higher Education by Major Disciplines, 1995

Institute/Faculty	Lower	Certificate	Bachelor	Master	Total
Engineering	-	7.2:1	23.8:1	-	8.6:1
Medicine	-	0.2:1	4.2:1	10.2:1	0.6:1
Agriculture & Animal Science	-	4.2:1	9.3:1	-	5.5:1
Forestry	-	7.1:1	5.7:1	-	6.6:1
Science & Technology	-	6.9:1	5.9:1	4.2:1	6.2:1
Education	-	2.9:1	5.4:1	7.7:1	4.0:1
Management	-	2.9:1	3.5:1	4.7:1	3.2:1
Law	-	9.5:1	8.8:1	-	9.0:1
Humanities & Social Sciences	0.7:1	2.1:1	3.3:1	3.0:1	2.3:1
Total(Aggregate)	0.7:1	2.8:1	3.8:1	4.0:1	3.2:1

Source: Planning Division, Tribhuvan University.

The aggregate male/female ratio in higher education is 3.2:1. As the level of education goes up the male/ female ratio increases, since, it is 2.2:1 in certificate level, whereas this ratio is 4:1 in master level. Among different disciplines the male/female ratio is high in law and engineering and low in humanities and social sciences and management. In medicine the male/ female ratio is even 0.6, that means female enrolment is higher than male enrolment.

Table 3.12:

Distribution of Total and Female Enrolment in Higher Education by Major Disciplines Nepal 1991- 1995 (in %).

Institute/ Faculty	1991		1992		1993		1994		1995	
	Total	% Female	Total	% Female	Total	% Female	Total	% Female	Total	% Female
Engineering	2072	9.46	2080	7.69	2029	10.84	1864	9.16	1974	10.43
Medicine	1777	51.83	1499	55.50	1098	70.85	1148	66.11	1059	61.00
Agriculture & Animal Science	721	8.18	674	11.57	675	11.55	565	14.51	520	15.38
Forestry	454	11.45	563	11.54	541	10.35	483	10.56	404	13.12
Science/ Technology	10548	14.84	12272	12.74	14109	13.61	11035	13.03	11387	13.94
Education	9114	22.86	9204	20.59	12152	18.90	12098	19.34	11623	19.90
Management	29314	17.26	26384	18.05	27054	18.69	29491	21.08	28978	23.52
Law	7991	9.18	7461	9.53	6117	10.18	6380	10.01	4826	9.95
Humanities & Social Sciences	46487	33.45	43703	32.60	38243	35.67	34616	32.24	38895	29.98
Total	110239	23.78	103840	23.42	102018	24.18	97860	23.38	99255	23.97

Source: Planning Division, Tribhuvan University & Kathmandu University.

In general the structure of higher education enrolments in different institutes and faculties have remained much the same in 1991 and 1995. The predominance of enrolments of girls in Medicine, Humanities and Social Sciences and in Management has been maintained for a few years. The proportion of enrolments in these institutes /disciplines has been increased over 1991 -1995. It is due to the fact that there are a number of campuses in humanities and social sciences and management disciplines and at the same time increasing all over the country. Similarly, the importance of education in Management (Commerce/ Business) has increased much in recent years with the growing demand for qualified manpower in finance, sales and management. There is also a high percentage of females in institute of medicine from the year 1991- 1995, since females are attracted towards nursing and related jobs. The enrolment in other technical institutes and law faculty is low compared to males. For example the percentage of female enrolment in engineering was only 9.46 in 1991, 7.69 in 1992, 10.84 in 1993, 9.16 in 1994 and 10.43 in 1995. Similarly the female enrolment percentages from 1991 to 1995 in agriculture and animal sciences are 8.18, 11.57, 11.55, 14.51 and 15.38 respectively. The percentages of female enrolments in institute of science and technology

are 14.84 in 1991, 12.74 in 1992, 13.61 in 1993, 13.02 in 1994 and 13.74 in 1995, whereas these percentages for institute of forestry are 11.45, 11.54, 10.35, 10.56 and 13.12 respectively.

Table 3.13:

Annual female Growth Rate in Higher Education Enrolment in Different Disciplines 1991-1995 (in %).

Institute/ Faculty	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995
1. Engineering	- 0.42	-18.71	40.96	-15.49	13.86
2. Medicine	76.05	7.08	27.66	-6.21	-7.73
3. Agriculture &Animal Science	86.90	41.44	-0.17	25.63	5.99
4. Forestry	18.04	0.78	-10.31	2.03	24.24
5. Science/Tech.	10.0	-14.15	6.83	4.26	6.98
6. Education	15.22	- 9.93	-8.20	2.33	2.89
7. Management	58.20	4.58	3.54	12.79	11.57
8. Law	57.46	3.81	6.82	-1.67	-0.6
9. Humanities & Social Science	13.16	-2.54	9.42	-9.61	-7.00
Total	31.74	-1.51	3.24	-3.31	2.52

Source: Planning Division, Tribhuvan University and Kathmandu University.

Note; (-) denotes declines.

On the whole growth rate in higher education is positive with 31.74 percent in 1991 and negative in the years 1992 and 1994 whereas it is positive in the two years 1993 and 1995. The growth rates are not increasing much from 1991 to 1995 in every discipline. There are fluctuations in growth rates. In some years it seems to have increased and in some years decreased. But in management faculty the growth rate has been increasing since 1991 up to 1995.

3.2.4 Constraints in Development of Female Education:

There are various factors which directly or indirectly responsible for the low status of female education in Nepal as:

- I. Socio- cultural and ideological factor
- ii. Political and Economic factor
- iii. Legal factor
- iv. Infrastructural factor

i. Socio- Cultural and Ideological Factor:

In Nepal, from the earliest time Hindu religion and philosophy have greatly influenced the thinking, attitude, and worldview of population. The Hindu scriptures like the Vedas and Puranas advocate high moral standards and intellectual excellence for females. For example, the Veda says, "gods like to roam in about those places where women are worshipped and respected". In ancient days, high priority used to be given to female education also. There were instances of highly learned women in the Vedic times also. The contributions of several ancient women philosophers, writers, poets are highly recognized even in the modern days (Panchayat Darpan, No. 1,1984-85, p.47). But the Vedic prescriptions of high moral standard, purity and intellectual excellence for females have been interpreted differently by different people and with the passage of time females have gradually been deprived of their rights to education and intellectual freedom. Later, marriage of daughters, not their education became the first priority to the parent and the parent in their zeal to preserve the chastity of girls would give them away in marriage when they completed 72 months and at the latest before they started the menstruation cycle and attained puberty. This type of outlook resulted in the early marriage of girls, which even prevails among several communities. Even today, parents, specially in rural areas married their daughters off at an early age at the age of sixteen and seventeen, since the parents regarded them as liabilities and if they are not married at the proper age it is difficult to get spouses for them, which subjects parents to unwanted social criticism.

Besides, there is a biased preference for male child on cultural/social grounds, since the parents considered sons as a security or as a deposit against their future and old

age. Similarly, the cultural realization which is also supported by the Hindu religion is that a son is required to perform the last rite for parents when they are dead and to perform the yearly "shrad" ceremony after their death. Consequently, the upbringing of the son including his education was taken care of in a special way.

In this way Nepalese women find themselves inextricably interwoven in cobwebs of some social bondage. Some of the major cognizable bondage that Nepalese women have to live with are as follows:

1. Women are forced to follow all the non-reciprocal form of high standards, chiefly related to chastity before and after marriage.
2. For a married woman husband has to be treated as a superordinate person at par with god and this super status of husband image makes women psychologically feel low in the order of human relationships.
3. The low economic power keeps women dependent on men, since the inheritance law makes the male heir to the family property the legal and technical owner of wealth, which deprives women of the enormous wealth power in the family.
4. The problems of gender discrimination throughout life have been created due to the superstition that a male child is necessary to carry on the family name. This thinking in the society keeps females in low esteem (Sharma, 1985, p. 81-82).

Thus, the socio-cultural factors have kept women in low profile and this led to the undermining of female education and employment. The average women in Nepal are still interlocked with a chain of superstition and exploitation (Panchayat Darpan, 1985, p. 86).

Similarly, Nepalese people are the victims of ignorance, superstitions and enslavement and to outdated customs and beliefs. Certain ideological beliefs and practices make sex discrimination in the society. For example, it was considered that male child is a must in order to carry on the family tree and perform some ritual customs of the family. Such beliefs and

practices give rise to several associated problems. All the household chores of domestic life are to be carried out by the women. A woman has to cook, grind, fetch water, collect fuel wood, wash clothes and clean the house and utensils. Besides, in rural areas, women have to work in farms and fields and take care of the animals. With this imposed lifestyle on the women in the most parts of rural Nepal, it is natural for parents to induct their daughters into these chores even at the expense of their schooling. Even those who are fortunate enough to go to school have to leave it abruptly on some causes like onset of puberty, early marriage and so on.

ii. Political and Economic Factors:

In Nepal, political consciousness among the women is low due to ignorance and illiterate. There are very few women (parliamentary members or legislators). Women's participation in political as well as administrative affairs is marginal. Very few women have been employed at the decision-making levels in government and other important organized sectors. The percentage of women employed in government, Tribhuvan University and other organized sectors is described in chapter four. The participation of women in economic activity, especially in white-collar jobs is at a low level. Of those recorded as economically active, only 9.27 percent are engaged in professions other than agriculture as of 1991. More than 90 percent of women were engaged in agriculture as unpaid family workers. Therefore, most women especially in rural areas are economically dependent on men. The Nepalese people are very poor. About 75 percent people have income which is less than adequate for minimum daily expenses and this percentage for urban areas is 50.93 (NPC, 1997). Thus, poverty, is one of the factors that stand as impediments to women's education, whether at the school or at the higher education level.

iii. Legal Factors:

Though the constitution of Nepal (1959) has guaranteed no discrimination against any citizen in the application of general law as well as in respect of appointment to government service or any other public service on grounds of religion, sex, race, caste or any of them, but in practice women can not get to exercise all the

privileges like men can. Besides, unmarried daughters are not entitled to get right to their parental property until the age of 35. She has no control over the family property. Thus, she is discriminated for better opportunity in the family. As long as people do not change attitude and the traditional beliefs even the constitution or a set of laws can do nothing to improve the lot of women in Nepal.

iv. Infrastructural Factors:

The whole purpose and the content of education was inseparably prescribed within the framework of religion. The modern type of school was established very late in Nepal. Previously, there was no formal school for the general public. Even after the establishment of Durbar School girls could not go to school, since there was no formal school for them. The first ever girls' high school was established in late 1940's. The educational system in Nepal prior to the year 1950 was at a very rudimentary stage consisting of only two colleges, eleven high schools and 32 primary schools in the whole country. The enrolment of girls by public, in the schools emerged only after the advent of democracy in 1951. In 1919 a college was set up with just two students. The strength of the college even up to 1950 was only two hundred fifty, all being boys. Only after the democratic set up of 1951, there was a tremendous progress in education and by 1970 the number of colleges, high schools, and primary schools rose to 33, 156 and 4001 respectively. However, educational development during the period 1951- 1970 was not linked with the total development efforts of the country (CERID, 1980). This shows that women's educational progress in Nepal has been slow (T.U., 1987).

3.2.5 Education Policy for Females/ Girls:

The education policy and implementation strategy as mentioned in the Ninth Five Year Plan of Nepal (1997-2002) with special reference to the upliftment of girls is as follows:

-) Basic and primary education will be made available as per the need of gender equality, to weaker section, ethnic tribe and community deprived of education opportunity.

-) Policy of conducting career-oriented education programme will be adopted to increase participation of weaker section and ethnic tribe in secondary and higher secondary education.
-) gender equality will be maintained, Technical/vocational/skill education and training programme will be made employment and income oriented.
-) Effective policy measures will be adopted to extend accessibility of women in education in order to increase equal gender participation in education.

Programmes for Female Education:

"Various programmes have been implemented with the objective of easy accessibility of primary education to girl child; increasing enrolment number of girl student; encouraging maximum number of educated women to adopt teaching profession; and encouraging maximum number of girl students to complete their secondary level education.

In order to increase women participation in education, targeted programmes for women will be conducted during the plan period. Arrangement will be made to appoint at least one women teacher in every primary school, and preference will be given to the appointment of women teacher in lower secondary schools. Subject contents reflecting gender inequality will be removed from curriculum and training materials of school education. Monitoring and evaluation will be systematically carried out effective operation of women education programme. Local elected bodies will be involved in the development, publicity and extension of women education. Arrangement will be made to provide reward to the schools, which increase the number of girl enrolment and maintain enrolment sustainability without dropouts.

With the objective of bringing women into the mainstream of development, scholarship programme has been conducted for girl student in each level and area of education in order to increase girl's participation in education. During the Ninth Plan period, scholarship will be made available to girl students of 65 districts on quota basis, and to all enrolled girl students of 10 remote districts" (NPC, 1998).

Concluding Remarks:

It can be concluded from the above discussions that education as a component of human resource development plays an important role. Education for girls in Nepal started very late. The formal education for the girls started only after 1952. Although, a considerable progress in education and there was also an increasing trend in female enrolment in different levels of education, women's education has not yet taken the desired momentum. The enrolment of girls has been found less and less as the level of education goes up. The difference exists from the beginning level and it goes on increasing at each successive upper level. The strategies and programmes included in Ninth Five-Year Plan of His Majesty's government of Nepal can minimize gender inequalities in education to some extent.

CHAPTER IV

EMPLOYMENT PATTERN IN NEPAL AND POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES FOR WOMEN AND DEVELOPMENT

4.1. Employment Pattern in Various Organized Sectors of Nepal:

The data on employment specifically on organized sectors of Nepal in census reports were not available. Information and documentation on women employment in different organized sectors was also not found for several years. Thus employment pattern in various organized sectors of Nepal was collected from various study reports conducted during 1990-1995 and available information on the topic were analysed in this chapter. It was found that the employment pattern in different types of organizations has a customary trend. There is, however, no appreciable difference in the salary scale for the same level of qualifications and types of work performed in formal sectors of Nepal except in some industries and constructions. Males earn a larger pay package due to overtime work and field trips. Societal forces confine women specially after marriage, to regular office hours and their mobility is restricted outside the home district (New Era, 1995).

Past Trends in Employment Pattern:

Although over the last three decades, the number of working women in organized sectors has increased, it is still negligible compared to men. Nursing and teaching are usually considered women's professions. There were 76 percent women nurses in hospitals, but there were only a few (3 percent) women medical doctors. Similarly, women accounted for 9 percent of primary, 10 percent of lower secondary and 8 percent of secondary school teachers. In 1989/90, there were 13 percent women teachers in the primary level, 11 percent in the lower secondary level and 9 percent in the secondary level respectively. The percentages of women in the field of science and technology, agronomy and engineering were 8, 2 and 1 respectively (NPC, IDS, New Era, 1994).

In government service, there were only few women who hold decision making posts. In 1978, there were 42 women employees in the administrative gazetted posts and 155 women in technical gazetted posts. At that time there was no woman employee in the special and first class level. The percentages of women in administrative gazetted and

technical gazetted service were 1.88 and 4.08 respectively. In 1982, women comprised of 7 percent of gazetted officers and above, about 6 percent of non-gazetted staffs and 5 percent of support staffs (peons and maintenance personnel. In 1988 an increment in the percentage of women gazetted officers in administration and technical were 0.6 and 1.63 respectively. However, in 1990 there were 4.25 percent women gazetted officers and 2.32 percent (one) women in special class (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1:

Employment Pattern in Civil Service, 1990

Class	Total Employees	% of female Employees
Special	42	2.32
First	567	3.53
Second	2247	4.14
Third	5626	4.37
Total	8482	4.25

Source: A Study on the Participation of Women in Nepal Administrative, Civil Service, 1990.

Note: Included only regular employees.

Present Status:

The employment pattern (gender composition) of permanent gazetted employees by level and category is presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2:

**Employment Pattern of Permanent Gazetted Women Employees by Level and
by Category, 1993.**

Level Service	Special Class Secretary Level	Ist.Class Joint Secretary Level	2nd.Class Under Secretary Level	3rd. Class Section Officer Level	Total
Administration: Total No	42	131	882	1838	2851
% of Females	2.38%	4.0%	3.50%	2.77%	3.46%
Technical: Total No	-	250	1300	3242	4792
% of Females	-	14.31%	9.14%	10.46%	9.97%

Source: Ministry of General Administration, Pulchowk, Nepal.

Note: Number of Judges were not included.

The percentage of women in special class civil service was 2.38. The proportion of female gazetted officer in administrative service is very low, which was only 3.46percent, while the percentage of female gazetted officers in technical service was slightly high (9.97 percent). This showed that women's participation in the officer level posts in civil service is still low indicating male dominance in administration and technical jobs. The male/ female ratio in the gazetted level, civil service, is shown by Table 4.3.

Table 4.3:

**Male/ Female Ratio of Gazetted Level
Officer in Civil Service, 1993**

Male/ Female Ratio	Special Class	1st. Class	2nd. Class	3rd.Class	Aggregate
Administration	41:1	24:1	27.5:1	35.1:1	27.9:1
Technical	-	5.9:1	9.9:1	8.5:1	9:1

Source: Table: 4.2.

The male/ female ratio in each class in administration was very high compared to technical posts. This ratio for the third class gazetted officer posts in administration was 35.1:1, whereas in same class technical posts this ratio was 8.5:1. The aggregate male/ female ratio for administrative and technical service were 27.9:1 and 9:1 respectively.

Likewise, the gender composition of permanent non-gazetted employees by level and category and male/female ratio in those levels were presented in Tables 4.4 and 4.5 below.

Table 4.4:

Employment Pattern of Non- Gazetted Employees in Civil Service by Level and Category in 1993 (in %).

Non-gazetted employees

Service Type	1st.		2nd.		3rd.		4th.		Aggregate	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Administration	95.57	4.43	95.8	4.11	92.66	7.34	94.98	5.02	95.16	4.84
Technical	90.01	9.99	82.91	17.09	91.68	8.32	98.53	1.47	88.63	11.37

Source: Ministry of General Administration, Pulchowk. Nepal.

Note: Levelless employees were not included.

Table 4.5:

Male/Female Ratio of Non-Gazetted Level in Civil Service, 1993

Male/Female Ratio	1st.	2nd.	3rd.	4th.	Aggregate
Administration	21.5:1	23.4:1	12.6:1	18.9:1	19.6:1
Technical	9.:1	4.8:1	11. 1	67:1	7.8:1

Source: Table 4.4.

The percentage of female employees in different levels of non- gazetted posts was also low. The overall percentage was 4.84 in administration service and 11.37 in technical service showing a slightly high proportion of females in technical service. The male/ female ratio in each level was very big and still much bigger in non- gazetted IV posts,

which was 67:1. The male/ female ratio was slightly low in non- gazetted class II. This showed that the females mostly entered in the non- gazetted class I or equivalent posts for which the educational qualification needed was Certificate level.

The employment pattern of women and the male/female ratio in the in teaching sector (Tribhuvan university) are presented in Tables 4.6 and 4.7 respectively.

Table 4.6:

**Employment Pattern of Teaching Staffs in
Tribhuvan University, 1992/93**

Level/Position	Total	% of Females
Professor	149	5.4
Reader	818	16.3
Lecturer	1372	15.7
Senior Instructor	32	6.3
Assistant Lecturer	1574	27.0
Instructor	201	21.9
Deputy Instructor	147	27.9
Assistant Instructor	234	30.3
Total	4509	20.8

Source: Female Employment in Tribhuvan University, Research Division, Rector's Office, T.U. 1995.

Table 4.7:**Male/ Female Ratio of Employment in Tribhuvan University, 1992/93.**

Level / Position	Male / Female Ratio
Professor	17.5:1
Reader	5.1:1
Lecturer	5.4:1
Senior Instructor	14.8:1
Assistant Lecturer	2.7:1
Instructor	3.5:1
Deputy Instructor	2.6:1
Assistant Instructor	2.3:1
Total / Aggregate	3.8:1

Source: Table 4.6.

The percentage of female teachers in Tribhuvan University was 20.8. There were very few female professors, the percentage of which was 5.4. But the percentage of female teachers in the posts of Assistant Lecturer, Deputy Instructor and Assistant Instructor were slightly high. Thus, the male/ female ratio is very big in the posts of Professor, Senior Instructor and slightly low in the posts of Assistant Lecturer, Deputy Instructor and Assistant Instructor.

As regards employment in schools the aggregate male/ female ratio was found as 4.8:1. The male/ female ratio in primary level was low (4.2:1), whereas this ratio was high (10.9:1) in secondary level (Annex A Table). This shows that women were confined mostly in low level jobs in the university as well as in schools.

The employment pattern of other organized sectors (public corporations and private) and the male/female ratio in employment of those organizations are presented as follows in Tables 4.8 and 4.9.

Table 4.8:**Employment Pattern in Public and Private Sector Organizations, 1993 (in %)**

Organized Sector	High Level		Mid Level		Low Level		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Public Corporations	91.9	8.1	94.4	7.6	80.4	19.6	88.9	11.8
Private	92.3	7.7	87.9	12.1	86.4	13.6	89.8	11.2

Source: New Era, 1994.

Table 4.9:

Male/Female Ratio of Employment in Public and Private Sector Organizations

Sector of Employment	High Level	Mid Level	Low Level	Total/Aggregate
Public Corporations	11.3:1	12.4:1	4.1:1	7.5:1
Private	12:1	7.1:1	6.3:1	8:1

Source: Same as of Table 4.8

Table 4.8 showed that women's share in public and private organized sectors were less than 12 percent of the total and this demonstrates strong domination of organized sector employment (public as well as private) made by men. The proportion of females in high level, mid level and low level accounts in percentages as 8.1, 7.6 and 19.6 respectively in public corporations and 7.7, 12.1 and 13.6 in private organisations. The proportion of females in higher level and lower level employment was lowest in the private sector, whereas the proportion of females in mid level was lowest in public sector organizations.

The male/female ratio was high in high level employment in both public and private sectors, but the gap was very high in the private sector, which was 12:1. The male/female ratio in mid level employment was high in the public sector and highest for the low level employment in the private sector.

4.2 Female Education and Employment Situation in Nepal:

It is all evident that education is the key factor for human resource development and increase in education has a direct impact on employment of females. Education meets some

of the basic needs for creativity, a desire to acquire knowledge and a desire to obtain freedom from close familial controls. It also fosters a higher standard of living and stimulates women's interests in economic activity. The women with educational background want to use their knowledge and skill outside the home and thus they get involved in economic activity or paid jobs. In this way there is a linear relationship between female employment and education (Pang, Eng, Fong, 1974).

In Nepal, the economic activity rates by females have been increasing since 1971. For example, the economic activity rate for females in 1971 was 35.2 percent, which went up to 45.5 percent in 1991 (Population Monograph; CBS; 1995).

It was found that employment of women in professional / technical field, administrative jobs, clerical jobs, sales and services have considerably increased from 1971 to 1991. Women's involvement in professional/ technical works was nil in 1971 whereas the percentage of females in this field was 15.1 in 1991 (Annex ATable). It is clear that women's involvement in white collar/ paid jobs has started only recently. Women's employment in the tertiary sector is greatly influenced by development of education or women' participation in education. This fact is shown by Table 4.10.

Table 4.10:

**Percentage Distribution of Employed Total and
Female Population by Occupation and
Educational Attainment, 1991**

Educational Attainment	Sex	White Collar Occupation	Agricultural Occupation	Other Occupation	Unspecified
No Schooling	Both Sexes	7.01	77.32	15.39	0.27
	Female	4.57	87.24	7.94	0.24
Below S.L.C., S.L.C. & Equivalent	Both Sexes	14.93	66.75	17.91	0.41
	Female	11.10	78.93	9.57	0.40
Grade 11-12	Both Sexes	67.32	13.95	18.09	0.64
	Female	73.47	9.08	16.69	0.76
Graduate	Both Sexes	72.18	7.64	19.44	0.74
	Female	75.11	3.85	20.15	0.89
Post Graduate	Both Sexes	76.95	4.34	17.87	0.85
	Female	80.87	1.69	16.45	0.99

Source: Population Monograph of Nepal, CBS, 1995.

The Table 4.10 make it clear that very few females who have no schooling or are below School Leaving Certificate (S.L.C.) or equivalent background are involved in white-collar occupations. The females with no educational background do not possess the minimum requirement for the middle level and high level posts and can only enter into the starting (low level) posts or jobs. On the other hand, 75.11 percent with graduate background and 80.87 percent with post graduate background were found being involved in white-collar jobs in 1991 census. This percentage changed from 1971 to 1991 censuses. The engagement of female in white-collar occupation with graduate and post-graduate background of education is 90.86 and 90.01 in 1971, whereas in 1981 this percentage was only 45.11 and 51.53 respectively. However, in 1991 census the percentage of women's employment in white collar occupations with high level educational background has increased as compared to 1981 census.

4.3 Governmental Policies and Programmes for Women:

4.3.1 Need for a Comprehensive Policy and Programmes for Women:

The utilization and underutilization of educated women labour is a social waste, since it does not facilitate the society to reap better fruits on the investment made in human resources and it costs the society heavily in the form of poverty, ill health and unemployment. By not utilizing the women into labour force " the nation wastes them and they waste themselves". This also leads to the problems like low productivity, low consumption of socio-economic services and lopsided growth of human resources as well as underutilization of human capital. All these economic problems of women labour and population have far reaching implications on the whole process of human resource development and utilization in socio-economic planning of a nation. Therefore, it is very important to consider the problems of women resources development and utilization as the basic integrated component of overall strategy of human resource development and utilization in the general economic policy of the country (Heggade, 1992).

4.3.2 Policies and Programmes of His Majesty's Government of Nepal in Developmental Plans:

Against the background of prevailing conditions of employment the government of Nepal made some policies regarding the employment in general and women employment in particular from time to time.

The economic structure in Nepal is heavily dependent on agriculture. Therefore, more than 90 percent of its population depends on agriculture and the majority of the labour force were still engaged in it. The main problem of an underdeveloped country like Nepal is mass poverty and unemployment. Considering these problems in July 1972, the Economic and Social Council urged governments to assess the magnitude and causes of mass poverty and unemployment, and prepare action programmes to eradicate these ills. Since then both international and national actions were being taken in formulating appropriate policy for employment in Nepal also (Pant, 1979).

There were no specific programmes laid by His Majesty's Government in the first two development plans of Nepal regarding employment and women and development.

The Third Three Year Plan 1962-65 noted that the vast majority of the population were dependent on agriculture only for a few months in a year and thus stressed and advocated for only labour intensive projects wherever possible.

The Fourth Five Year Plan (1965-1970) stressed the need for the expansion of employment opportunities outside agriculture also. Though the main objective of this plan was to focus mainly on the employment opportunities of the people, the plan did not propose any particular strategy.

The Fifth Five Year Plan (1975-1980) was an improvement upon the previous plans in offering a systematic approach to employment policy. The plan stresses on maximum utilization of labour among its priority objectives. Some of the policy measures envisaged were to make use of labour-intensive techniques and locally available resources, to discourage mechanization of agriculture, to encourage employment-generating types of activities, employment of Nepalese labourers and those industries which have low capital/labour and capital/ output ratios, to introduce vocational education and training to workers, and to provide credit and incentives for more employment- generating enterprises.

During those plans the government planning mechanism was focused mainly on the development of the "people" only and there was no special effort made to integrate women in development planning.

The main objective of the Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-1985) was the " gradual elimination of absolute poverty through employment opportunities" along with other objectives as fulfillment of basic needs, social reconstruction and conservation and development of natural resources. With this plan, the role of women in development first came into attention in 1980, when women's affairs were allocated a separate section. However, women's role was not clearly identified, and therefore, the plan made minimal impacts on women's development. The major theme of employment policy such as maximum utilization of human labour through adequate employment opportunities to the people continued in this plan also. The plan indicated some employment strategies like irrigation system for better absorption of other input facilities, adoption of 'suitable' land

reform measures, creation of jobs within and outside agriculture, initiation of employment and income generating activities like livestock and bee-keeping in agricultural sector etc. It was also stated in the plan that cottage and small scale industries based on rural skill, craftmanships and experiences were to be encouraged by providing credit, rawmaterial and marketing facilities (Thapa, 1980,p.163). Regarding manpower planning, the plan stressed mainly on the fulfillment of trained and technical manpower. Therefore, the plan gave emphasis on the production of trained administrative and technical manpower through education and training.

The general policies to increase employment opportunities laid down by the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-1990) were increasing employment opportunities and emphasis of productivity oriented programmes. Priority was given to encourage the participation of women by implementing programmes which will create new employment opportunities for the unemployed rural and urban women. Similarly, emphasis was given on training programmes in developing technical and vocational skills from various existing institutions to equip the manpower with different levels of technical skills to expand employment opportunities. The plan also mentioned to associate women in the skill development training programmes. Priority has been given to associate educated unemployed in various industries, trades and social services.

Some particular policies regarding female education and employment were also laid down in Seventh Plan as follows:

1. To increase the number of admissions of women in the formal and informal education and to organize motivating programmes through appropriate institutions.
2. To increase the number of admissions in skill development training courses and in trade schools.
3. To provide additional opportunities to the women for higher education.

4. Efforts will be made to increase the employment opportunities to women in the specified fields (NPC, Seventh Plan, 1985).

Thus, the Seventh Plan outlined some general principles, to integrate women in development. The women were provided with more opportunities and their skills were to be utilized to make them more productive and self-reliant. The social and economic status of women were also to be improved for the development of the society. The eight sectoral policy statements outlined in the Seventh Plan regarding women and development were: i. to increase the number of literate women by fixing quota in education, ii. to provide training opportunities in health, education, agriculture and engineering, iii. to introduce programmes in health, nutrition and family planning, which include training in basic health and involvement in adult literacy classes, iv. to introduce programmes in agricultural extension and training, v. to fix quotas in various training programmes, vi. to emphasize the development of cottage industries and women's involvement through appropriate training programmes, vii. to emphasize women's role in the protection and preservation of forests and greater participation in government and non-government organizations, viii. to encourage the formation of group organizations for national development and to rectify the legal provisions which have hindered hampered women's participation in development activities.

However, the government was not able to implement most of the policies outlined in the plan document. Still some improvement and progress was made in educating the girl child and more training opportunities through institutions as the Small Entrepreneurs Development Programme and Cottage Industries' Development Board and launching the Production Credit for Rural Women. But in the national context, women benefitted very little during the Seventh Plan period.

Interventions and Achievements:

Systematic efforts for overall socio-economic development in Nepal started in the mid-fifties with the first national development plan in 1956. Since then eight successive plans have been implemented. The earlier five plans made no special efforts to raise the status of women and to increase their empowerment, efficiency and productivity. The Sixth Plan and the Seventh Plan were outstanding for their emphasis on the enhancement of

women's participation in development activities. The plans reflect the growing awareness and concern regarding women's role in development process.

Some of the sectoral programmes made during the past decades were described here as follows:

Education:

In consideration of the fact that female education can have direct impact on development, special emphasis has been laid in the national development plans on increasing female enrollment. In pursuance of this policy, primary education was made free from 1971 with the introduction of National Education System Plan (NESP). Female students in the remote districts were provided with free textbooks for grades I-III. Basically for attracting female enrollment in different grades preference was given to the training of women in the teacher training programmes. Girls from remote districts were recruited for primary teacher training and posted in the rural community schools on completion of the training programme. Provision of scholarships for girls and cash awards and medals to schools enrolling the highest number of girls were adopted in order to attract a larger number of girls in the school. The NORAD project (Norway-UNICEF-HMG Project) had been constructing girls' hostels in order to provide housing facilities for girl students in several districts of the country.

To summarize, during the past 30 years there has been an impressive expansion of education both in quantity and quality. Literacy rate for women increased to 25 percent in 1991 from 3.9 percent in 1971, due to the incentives provided for the accessing females to education. Gross enrollment in primary education of school-aged children is more than 105 percent. Many government and private educational institutions are getting involved in increasing quality as well as quantity in education. Physical facilities in schools are being improved rapidly (NPC, 1995).

Institutional Building for Women's Development Works:

In order to integrate women in the overall process of development, various non-governmental organizations such as the Women's Service Coordination Committee (WSSC), Nepal Women's Organization (NWO), different professional clubs and associations and Women Development Centers have been activated during the last ten years. Though the various non-governmental and social organizations had been playing important roles in improving the condition of Nepalese women in various fields Women's Service Coordination Council (WSSC) played the role of an integral umbrella for other non- governmental organizations and acts as the sponsor /supporter/ coordinator of several women's development programs launched by local, national and international agencies. The WSSC had served as a viable mechanism for the generating, coordination and integration of women's development activities in the country (T.U.,1987). The establishment of the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) had led to cooperative efforts for the advancement of women in the region as well as in Nepal. The promotion of the NGOs regarding women and development had also been a positive step. Recently, the government has formed a National Council for women and child development, which is headed by the Prime- Minister. The council is mandated to provide policy guidelines to the government and monitor programs and activities related to child and women development (NPC,1995).

Constitutional / Legal Measures:

The constitution of Nepal 1962 explicitly guarantees equal rights to women with the following provisions:

- i. All citizens shall have the right to protection by laws.
- ii. No discrimination shall be made against any citizen in the application of general laws on grounds of religion, race, sex, caste, and tribe.
- iii. There shall be no discrimination against any citizen in respect of appointment to the government service or any other public service only on grounds of religion, race, sex, caste, tribe.

According to the law, women have equal right to vote, be member of any elected body and hold any public office and higher executive, legislative and judiciary posts.

The sixth amendment of Mulki Ain (civil laws) made a number of changes in the existing laws and regulations in 1963 with the aim of scrapping away all structures of inequities and exploitation and at the creation of a judicial system which made no discrimination against any one on grounds of caste, religion, and sex. Several clauses of the amendment helped in the promotion of interests and various social evils that subjugated the women to unjust practices such as child marriage, polygamy and incompatible marriage were declared illegal. The amendment also ensured equal share of parental property to unmarried daughters over 35 years of age. The amendment also made divorce laws more liberal with the provision for a claim for alimony from the husband in the event of a divorce. A divorced or separated woman has the right to the custody of her children for at least five years of the children's age. (T.U.,1987). The marriageable age for boys and girls were fixed as 18 for boys and 16 for girls.

In 1975, the sixth amendment to the Civil Laws of 1963 gave women additional property rights to those already granted in 1963. Since, 1975 Nepalese women have been involved in UN conferences and resolutions in favor of women. Official delegations have been sent to all the world conferences. There are also at present a number of NGOs working for women's development and active in providing legal assistance to women including , in some cases, at the grass -roots level. Similarly, a Women's Pressure Group has been formed which has brought into one front all women's organizations and NGOs to work for the development of women and it is vigorously lobbying for the amendment of discriminatory laws and the enactment of egalitarian laws.

The Eighth Five Year Plan also introduced the manpower and employment policy to reduce the pressure of growing unemployment and underemployment gradually and to involve the maximum manpower in the task of national development in a dynamic and productive manner. Approximately 1449,000 productive jobs are estimated through public

and private investments in various sectors during the plan period. The targeted growth rate was 3.1 percent.

The policies adopted in the Eighth Five Year Plan were as follows:

1. In order to create additional employment opportunities in the agricultural sector, investment will be directed towards crop intensification and diversification in particular, as there is little probability of expanding the area of arable land. Accordingly, agricultural programs like irrigation development of cash crops and agro-forestry will be emphasized.
2. As unemployment and underemployment are mostly found in rural areas, programs for developing rural infrastructures will be accorded priority. In selecting these programs, priority will be given to the programs conducive to agriculture and other programs. These rural programs will be carried out by local agencies as far as possible. Emphasis will be laid on adopting labor-oriented technology in implementing them.
3. To resolve the problems related to rural unemployment and underemployment, small and cottage industries appropriate to rural areas will be provided with incentives. To achieve it, programs will be carried out with additional provisions of technical assistance skill training, loan facility etc. In addition, necessary reforms will be brought about in the legal provisions pertaining to industry, commerce, customs and taxation.
4. It is not feasible to sort out employment related issues in long-term perspective without promoting non-agricultural sectors. For this purpose, necessary policies and laws relating to industry, commerce, economy, custom and taxation will be formulated and implemented. The private sector will assume the major role in non-agricultural fields. Foreign investments will also be encouraged for the promotion of this sector.

5. The traditional and non-traditional industries and professions which can rapidly add up to productive jobs will be identified and necessary provisions will be made to promote them.
6. The existing industries and enterprises are confined to a few places in the country. In this connection necessary policies and rules will be formulated and incentives will be provided for dispersing industries and enterprises in various parts of the country, especially in underdeveloped areas.
7. Necessary policy measures will be adopted to encourage the use of labor-intensive technologies in agricultural as well as non-agricultural sectors. At the same time, emphasis will be laid on the development and extension of technologies contributing to the growth in labor productivity.
8. As most of the existing manpower in the country are illiterate and unskilled, opportunities for basic education and technical and vocational training will be extended to rural areas in particular.
9. The existing manpower will be made skillful and efficient to compete in the labor market.
10. Opportunities for foreign employment will be identified and provisions will be made in an organized way to allow Nepalese workers of different levels to take up jobs abroad.
11. Various types of training programs will be carried out to promote manpower's productivity. Necessary steps will be taken to offer tax incentives and other facilities to industrialists to boost productivity.
12. Provisions will be made on an institutionalized basis to assist laborers for acquisition of jobs.

13. If the present growth rate of labor force continues, it will be difficult to solve the problem of unemployment. Hence, population control programs will be emphasized in long-term perspective to reduce the above growth rate.
14. Necessary arrangements will be made for the agencies concerned to collect and update information and statistical details related to manpower and employment.
15. Attention will be given to women's maximum participation while formulating various policies and imparting training regarding employment and as far as possible, targets will be explicitly stated. The statistical details pertaining to employment and manpower will be calculated in such a way as to specify the status of males and females separately.

Similarly, to make women participate in the main-stream of development, to improve their involvement in every sector of development, to improve their social, economic, academic, political and legal status, to provide productive employment opportunities by increasing their efficiency through appropriate knowledge and skills, to create the appropriate environment and infrastructures so that they are provided with the opportunity to play a decisive role from the local to the national level. The Eight Plan had laid down the following policies:

1. Special programs will be conducted to increase the involvement of female students in primary, secondary adult education. In such programs, the policy on increasing the admissions of female students; of reducing drop-out rates before completion; of making it compulsory to appoint a female teacher in a primary school and gradually in the secondary level also in future will be adopted. In the field of adult and informal education, informal and job-oriented education like the 'chelibeti' program will be conducted.

General and technical education will be made available to female students who are unable to acquire higher education or are deprived of the opportunity to do so. A fixed quota will be set aside in order to encourage female students to join

higher technical education. Arrangements will be made to allocate a certain percentage of national and international scholarships for girl students and women.

2. In the context of high maternal and infant mortality rates, programs targeted for women such as safe motherhood, extension of immunization, and services related to family planning with aims to improve the health standards of women, will be carried out. These programs will be extended to the rural sectors through maternal and child workers and female community women health volunteers. Traditional birth attendants working at the local level will be provided appropriate training and mobilized. Emphasis will be given to increase participation of women in the development of high level technical manpower in the health sector. Keeping in mind the important contributions made by non- governmental agencies in providing health services to rural women, various programs will be conducted through the active participation of organizations under the Social Services National Coordination Council and women's associations.

Considering the role of women in controlling population growth, stress will be laid on family planning, information, delivery of services and the use of semi-permanent devices for birth spacing. Beds will be increased for maternity service in primary health centers, and district, zonal and regional hospitals.

3. In order to improve the socio-economic status of women by increasing their participation in the industrial sector, provisions will be made to make such facilities available as skill - oriented training, raw materials and industrial management training, and easy and subsidized credit. Based on market feasibility and utilization of local skills, arrangements will be made to establish and manage the market of cottage and rural industries. Such industries will be given a position in the industrial estates. Women's participation will be increased in the implementation and management of industries. Training to

enhance leadership, management, entrepreneurship and skill development, that increases women's participation in industry, commerce and tourism sectors, will be provided.

4. Encouraging provisions will be made in the policy and regulations in order to promote the involvement of the women working in the government and non-government service sector in the policy-making process to a greater extent.
5. Provision will be made to provide institutional support and financial assistance to ensure the management of women, provide entrepreneurship training and ensure its proper utilization. The welfare of minorities and backward classes will also be considered.
6. Women development activities towards increasing awareness, organizing public gatherings and mobilizing necessary resources for assistance, that are launched by various women's organizations and other institutions directly involved in the welfare and protection of women will be made more effective.
7. Necessary measures will be taken to amend laws and acts that hinder women's development. Legal services and training will be provided to give legal information to rural women.
8. Women's participation will be encouraged in the formulation and implementation of rural infrastructure programs in irrigation, drinking water and road construction. For this, women's participation will be made compulsory in users' committees.
9. Technologies that help to save time in the collection of firewood, fodder and water and other domestic activities will be extended to the rural sector.
10. In order to promote meaningful participation of women in development programs, appropriate organizational structure will be established for

coordination and monitoring activities. The Planning Commission will issue guidelines to the ministries for formulating sector-wise programs for women's development.

The Ninth Five Year Plan (1997 - 2002) provides attention to a long-term concept of women's empowerment and gender equality. The Ninth Plan has made women as the target for achieving its overall aim of poverty alleviation and human resources development.

The policy and implementation strategy regarding involvement of women in the national development mainstream are as follows:

1. National and sectoral development policies, goals and programmes will be ascertained to involve women in the mainstream of national development.
2. For the effective coordination and implementation of women development activities, existing institutional structure will be strengthened, expanded and developed. Similarly, effective coordination will be established among all agencies, organisations and local bodies working in the field of women's development.
3. For measuring women's participation in development, appropriate gender desegregated indicators will be reformulated and modified and monitoring and evaluation measures will be carried out effectively.

Similarly, the policy and implementation strategy regarding elimination of gender inequality and women's empowerment are as given below:

1. Review of laws and regulations which discriminate between men and women and which are obstructive to ensuring equal rights for men and women will be carried out to make egalitarian laws.

2. Existing economic, social and other forms of discrimination will be gradually reduced with the adoption of positive policies and programmes, which give special priority for women for gender equality and rights.
3. From policy to implementation level, publicity and promotion, education and training will be institutionalised for generating gender awareness.
4. With a view to increasing women's access to formal and non-formal education for bringing about improvement in the educational standard of themselves, policies and programmes such as women scholarship, women teachers special facilities in technical education, etc. will be given continuity while placing emphasis on extension, access and encouragement as regards to such programmes.
5. In order to enable women to utilize employment opportunities in such sectors as industries, tourism, transport, water resources etc. programme has been formulated to enhance women's capabilities including training and access to subsidised credit facility.
6. Extension of appropriate technologies for reducing the workload of women and increasing productivity will be made and women's access to such technologies will be ascertained.

In order to encourage women's development in accordance with the Ninth Plan policies based on the National Work Plan following programmes will be implemented:

1. Programmes related with scholarship, hostel accommodation, female teacher and other incentives will be extended. Encouragement programme will be launched to increase female literacy rate from 25 percent to 67 percent, women teachers to 50 percent and women participation in skillful vocational training to 50 percent.

2. To increase women's participation in economic sectors like industry, tourism, transportation, etc., programmes relating to entrepreneurship management training, concessional credits, employment system will be conducted. Likewise, for the women involved in such system, promotional incentives and honourary certificate programmes will also be conducted.
3. To increase self-employment through increasing women's access to economic resources and subsequently assist in the overall poverty alleviation programme, production creditwill be gradually expanded and institutionalised on a district-wise basis. Similarly, micro credit programmes carried out through mobilizing NGOs, rural banks and private banks will be carried out by incorporating them in to the women credit programmes
4. Egalitarian rules and regulations will be formulated and family court will be established in this process, list will be made of the rules and regulations regarded as obstacles for granting equal rights to women; and programme related to the preparation of review reports, seminars, interactions and legal education will be launched.
5. Programme to reduce economic and social disparities existing between men and women will be implemented targeting women. In this context, in the development projects, appropriate legal provisions will be made and programmes will be implemented in areas such as political and administrative policy decisions and local level employment opportunities. For this Public Service Commission, Ministry of General Administration and other sectoral ministries will be mobilized.
6. Provision will be made for incorporating the statistical details on women into the population census and for evaluating women's development programme through developing indicators for the national accounting system concerning

the status of and contribution made by women in nations development programme.

7. To reduce the burden and time spent in works of women and to utilize the surplus time thus saved appropriate machines useful for household and other works will be marked and published.
8. To increase effectiveness in formulating and implementing women development programmes, institutional capacity of concerned agencies will be enhanced through expansion of their sections and divisions, and provision of gender training programmes. In this context, Ministry of Women and Social Welfare will be made capable and effective and developed as the focal point for women development.
9. Several sectoral programmes related with women development will be conducted through the concerned agencies. Special arrangement will be made at the central level for the effective participation of women in various socio-economic activities implemented by the government and the impact of such activities on women (NPC, 1998).

Conclusion:

Women's participation in economic activities and their involvement in organized sectors is very low. The sector in which a high percentage of women were engaged is teaching. Since, entrance of women into the job market is greatly affected by their educational level, emphasis must be given to education and skill development of women. Education and employment make women conscious of their rights, so that they will seek what they deserve a better deal for themselves. Women's participation in higher level employment is very low, therefore, their participation in decision making and higher level jobs are to be facilitated, and laws hindering women's development be reformed. Though there have been programs for expanded economic opportunities and greater social mobility from the government side in different developmental plans of Nepal they are not properly

implemented. Thus, regulations and programs connected with providing employment opportunities for women should further be emphasized.

CHAPTER V

WOMEN IN EMPLOYMENT IN ORGANIZED SECTORS OF KATHMANDU VALLEY

5.1 Socio- Economic Background of Employed Women:

Women employment is greatly influenced by their socio-economic background in the society. The early marriage of girls, heavy family work burden, discriminatory social customs and low educational background have an adverse effect on women's employment in formal sectors in Nepal. It is due to the socio-economic factors, which led to the undermining of female education and low participation in economic activity. Thus it is regarded as necessary to describe the socio-economic background of employed women.

5.1.1 Employed Women By Religion:

Religion is an important indicator of the social organization pattern in Nepal. Previously every aspect of life is associated with and guided by religion. Even today everybody has affiliation with at least one religion.

People in Nepal is associated with different religions. The most popular religion is Hinduism followed by Buddhism and other religions like Christian, Muslim and so on. The distribution of women according to religion has shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1:

Distribution of Employed Women According to Religion

Respondents	Hindu	Buddhist	Christian	Muslim	Baishya	Total
Frequency	354	50	1	1	3	449
Percentage	87.97	11.13	0.22	0.22	0.67	100

Source: Field Survey

Since Nepal is a Hindu country the major religious group of women are Hindu. The percentage of the employed Hindu women is 87.97 followed by Buddhist women which is 11.13 percent. Christians and other religious groups constitute insignificant minority that is 0.22 percent and 0.67 percent respectively.

5.1.2 Employed Women By Caste:

Caste plays such a significant role in Nepalese social structure that every aspect of the society is governed by it. Therefore, it is very important to take into account while studying the socio-economic background of the people. Traditionally from the time of King Jayasthiti Malla (ancient Malla king of Kathmandu) caste has been associated with occupation in Nepal. Jayasthiti Malla divided the caste into 4 (locally called varna) and 36 sub-castes (Jat). Each caste denotes an occupational group. This division of caste still has some impact in Nepalese society. Table 5.2 shows the distribution of employed women according to caste or ethnicity.

Table 5.2:**Distribution of Employed Women According to Caste**

No.of Respondent	Brahmin	Chhitri	Newar	Limbu	Tamang	Gurung	Rai	Others	Total
Frequency	89	75	259	3	3	3	6	11	449
Percentage	19.82	36.52	57.68	0.67	0.67	0.67	1.34	2.45	100

Source: Field Survey

The maximum number of women employees, which comes to 57.68 percent, belongs to the Newar community followed by 36.52 percent Chhetri, and 19.82 percent Brahmin. Similarly, 0.67 percent belongs to Tamang, Gurung and Limbu each, 1.3 percent belongs to Rai and 2.45 belongs to other castes like Muslim and Baishya of Terai.

5.1.3 Employed Women By Family Occupation:

The occupation of family or parent determines the social status. Occupation serves as an indirect measure of the lifetime earnings of the person or the family. Thus occupation can be regarded as an indicator of the economic prosperity of the person or the family. The occupation of the father may determine the educational attainment and aspiration of the children. Likewise, occupation of the family affects the career line of the children or the spouses.

The occupation of the family (father or husband) has been grouped into service, business, agriculture, teaching, sales worker, self-employed and others. Majority of women employee's family occupation was found to be service, which was 55.45 percent followed by business which was 22.94 percent. In agriculture and teaching occupation there were 6.90 percent and 5.79 percent family respectively. Similarly, 4.68 percent respondents reported that their father or spouse were self-employed and 4.23 percent reported that their father or spouse belongs to others group which was retired person from office, social worker, and so on.

Table 5.3:

Distribution of Employed Women According to Family Occupation

No of respondents	Service	Business	Agriculture	Teaching	Sales Worker	Self Employed	Others	Total
Frequency	249	103	31	26	-	21	19	449
Percentage	55.45	22.94	6.90	5.75	-	4.68	4.23	100

Source: Field Survey

It was found that most of the respondent's family occupation belongs to the service category and it was also clear from the study that woman whose family occupation was agriculture or one other occupation rather than service and business was low in formal occupation.

5.1.4 Employed women By Sector of Employment:

Occupation is regarded as an important determining factor of the social and economic status of individual men as well as women in a society.

Table 5.4:

Distribution of Employed Women According to Sector of Employment

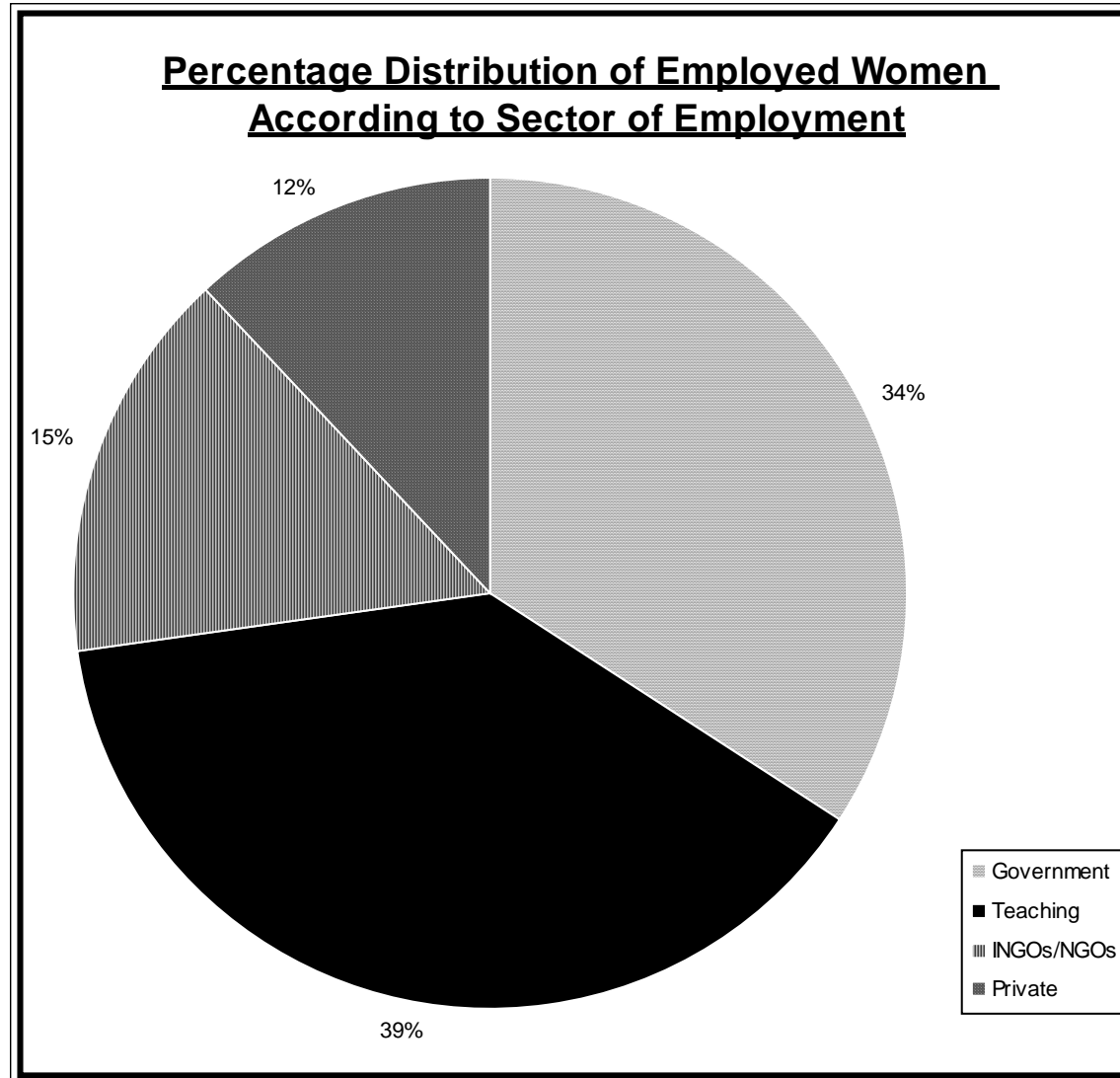
No. of Respondents	Government	Teaching	NGO/INGO	Private	Total
Frequency	154	173	68	54	449
Percentage	34.3	38.53	15.14	12.02	100

Source: Field Survey

Out of 449 respondents 34.3 percent women were associated with government service, 38.53 percent were engaged in the teaching profession, 15.14 percent were involved in NGO/INGO and 12.02 percent were associated with private service.

As in other countries the teaching profession is the most preferred occupation by women in Nepal. The male-female gap is small in teaching profession (Shrestha et.al, 1991) compared to other occupations except agriculture in Nepal.

Figure 5.1:



5.1.5 Employed Women by Age Group:

Age of a woman is an important factor to study her socio- economic background. The age of each individual reflects the physical and mental maturity in a society. Age of the working woman has significance for her job performance, since age affects the working capacity of the women.

Table 5.5:

Distribution of Employed Women According to Age Group

No. of Respondents	Age Group							Total
	18-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50+	
Frequency	27	69	67	80	85	80	41	449
Percentage	6.01	15.37	14.92	17.81	18.93	17.81	9.13	100 %

Source: Field Survey

Table 5.5 shows that the maximum percentage (18.93) of women respondents belongs to the age group of 40- 45 years. The lowest percentage of women (6.01 percent) belongs to age group of 18-24 years. Similarly, 15.37, 14.92, 17.81 and 9.13 percent of women respondents belong to the age group of 25-29 years, 30-34 years, 35-39 years, 45-49 years and 50 and above years respectively. The low percentage of women between 18-24 years of age in formal employment is due to the fact that the educated women at that age are still continuing their study or are seeking for jobs. Similarly, the formal education for girls was started in Nepal only after 1952, so the older women could not join in the formal employment before and during that period and thus the women between the age group 50 and over were low in formal employment.

5.1.6 Employed Women by Marital Status:

Marriage is an important social institution in a society, which is governed by traditions and customs. Marriage assigns a particular status to a woman. It provides a new situation for accommodation, improvement and socialization by extending her liabilities in the framework of the society. Marriage is regarded as virtually indispensable in Nepal.

Table 5.6:**Distribution of Employed Women According to Marital Status**

No of Respondents	Marital Status					Total
	Single	Married	Divorced	Widowed	Separated	
Frequency	90	348	-	11	-	449
Percentage	20.04	77.50	-	2.45	-	100

Source: Field Survey

The Table above shows that among 449 respondents 77.50 percent were married, 20.04 percent were unmarried or single and 2.45 percent were widowed. The higher percentage of married women indicates that in greater numbers they are participating in economic activities either for economic needs or for other reasons as career advancement, utilizing education, becoming independent, to passing and utilizing time and so on.

5.1.7 Employed Women By Age at Marriage:

Out of the nuptuality variables, age at marriage and proportion of persons over the married ones in a society are considered to be the most important variables accounting for variations in the fertility level. Since the days of Malthus, considerable interest has been generated in studying the relationship between age at marriage and marital frequency on the one hand, and marital frequency and fertility pattern on the other. At a comparable stage of economic development, the age at marriage and proportion of persons not marrying at all were much higher in the west and North Europe than in developing countries of Asia and Africa. In Nepal also there is a tendency of marrying girls at an early age. The average age at marriage in urban areas is however, slightly high as compared to that in rural areas. The average age at marriage for urban areas for the girl according to 1991 census is 19.6 (C.B. S.,1997).

Table 5.7:**Distribution of Employed Women According to Age at Marriage**

No of Respondents	Age at Marriage					Total
	18-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40 and Above	
Frequency	183	146	23	4	3	359
Percentage	50.97	40.67	6.40	0.56	1.39	100

Source: Field Survey

Among 359 married and widowed women respondents 50.97 percent were found married between the age of 18-24 years. This indicated that higher percentage of women get still involved in marriage at an early age even in urban areas. Only 40.67 percent women were found married between the age 25 - 29 years of age. Similarly, 6.40 percent, 0.56 percent and 1.39 percent women were found married between the age range 30 - 34, 35 - 39 and 40 and above years of age. The mean age at marriage for the respondents is found to be 19.64 years.

5.1.8 Employed Women By Fertility Behavior:

The status of women and their role in community and family decision making including their participation in economic activity have a positive effect on the success of the family planning and a long term reduction in the fertility level of a country (Shrestha, 1989; Shrestha, 1991).

Female participation in labour force has often been considered as one of the means for promoting the use of contraception and thereby, indirectly reducing fertility. Employment outside the home provides alternative satisfaction to women such as companionship, recreation, stimulation, creative activity, social and economic rewards, etc. Work outside the home delays the age at marriage and also increases the probability of non-marriage for some women because of enhanced economic self-sufficiency. Similarly every additional child increases the opportunity cost of a working mother in terms of

foregoing income by staying at home and not participating in the labour force at least for some time during pregnancy and after (Chaudhury, 1982).

Table 5.8:

**Distribution of Employed Married Women
According to Fertility Behavior**

No.of Respondents	Children		No. of Children			Average No of Children	Total
	No	Yes	1-2	3-4	5-6		
Frequency	35	324	244	78	2	2.17	324
Percentage	9.74	90.25	75.30	24.07	0.62	-	100

Source: Field Survey

Table 5.9 showed that out of 359 respondents 90.25 percent of married women have children and 9.74 percent of women do not have or still not going to have children. Of the women who have children, 75.30 percent have one or two children only. Similarly, 24.07 percent of women have three or four children, 0.62 percent of women have five or six children. The average number of children for employed married woman is 2.17, which is lower than the average number of children for a country. The mean number of children for married and widowed women is found to be 1.9.

5.1.9 Employed Women By Educational Attainment:

Education marks an important stage in the development procedure and entrance of a woman into the world of work signifies not only their elevated status but the economic freedom that they have attained. Education meets some of the basic psychological needs of women such as the need for creativity, a desire to acquire knowledge and desire to obtain freedom from close familial controls. It increases the marriage age, determines the desired family size by fostering a higher standard of living for the couple and their children and stimulates women's interest in involvement in economic activity. Education is regarded as one of the important indicators to understand the real status of women, since it helps women in entering into the formal occupation as well as in generating gainful income. Thus, education is a must for those women who desire to lead a better career, including gainful employment for them.

Table 5.9:**Distribution of Employed Women According to Educational Attainment**

No of Respondents	Educational Attainment						Total
	S. L. C.	Intermediate	Bachelor	Master	Ph. D.	Others/ Extra Degree	
Frequency	11	61	147	213	17	9	449
Percentage	2.45	13.58	32.74	47.44	3.78	2.00	100
1.Govt.							
Frequency	7	24	52	68	3	-	154
Percentage	4.54	15.58	33.77	44.15	1.95	-	100
2.Teaching							
Frequency	1	11	40	108	13	9	173
Percentage	0.58	6.36	23.12	62.42	7.51	12.72	100
3.NGO/INGO							
Frequency	1	10	27	29	1	-	68
Percentage	1.47	14.70	39.71	42.65	1.47	-	100
4.Private							
Frequency	2	16	28	8	-	-	54
Percentage	3.70	29.63	51.85	14.81	-	-	100

Source: Field Survey

Note: Others/extra more than one qualification

Figure 5.2:

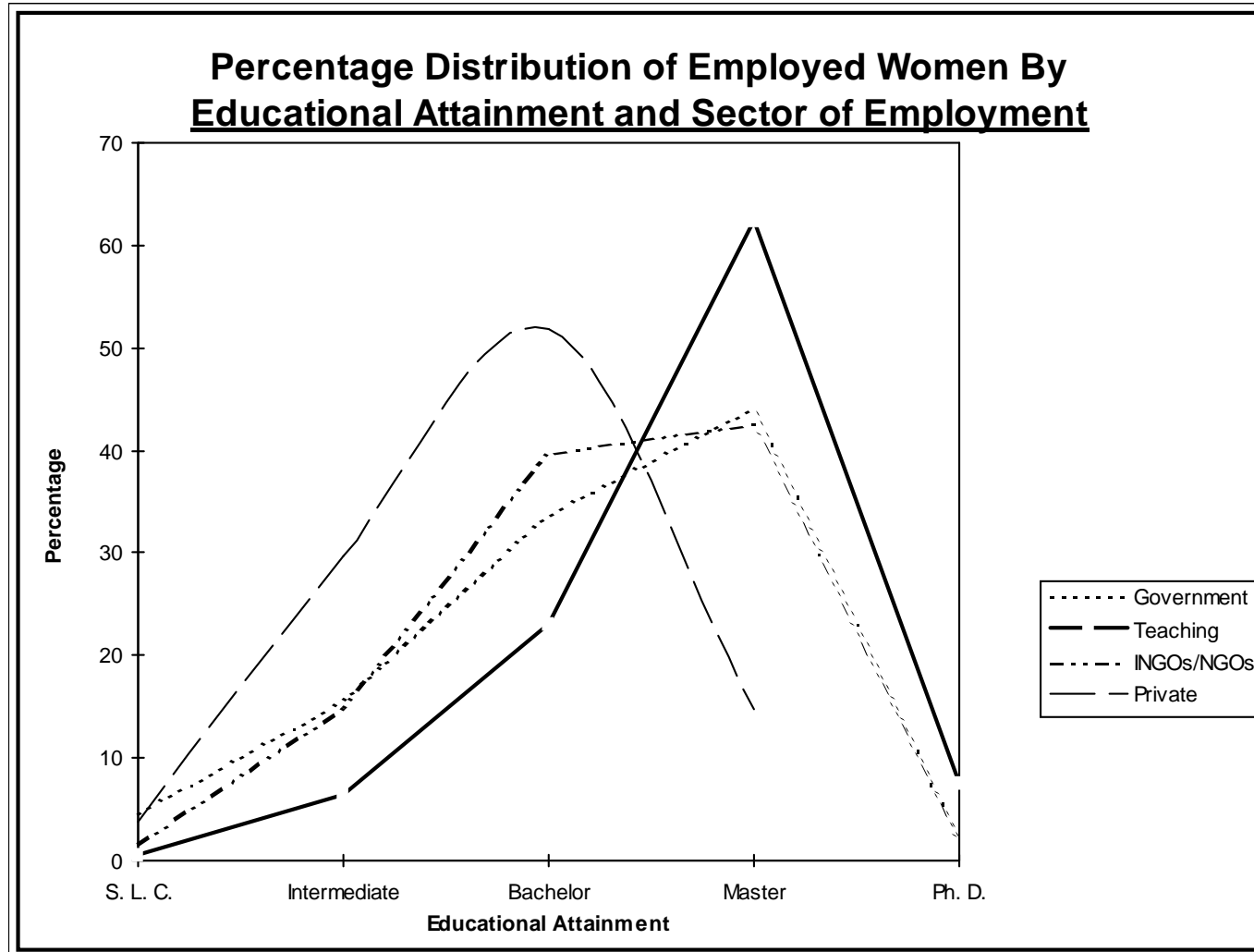


Table 5.9 reveals that 47.44 percent women have Masters degree, 32.74 percent women have Bachelors degree 13.58 percent women have passed intermediate level, 3.58 percent have Ph.D. degree and 2.45 percent have only S.L.C. degree. Similarly, 2.00 percent women have extra degree also. Thus, it has been found that a majority of employed women are postgraduates followed by graduates, whereas a few women have higher qualifications (Ph. D. degree). It is due to their high level of educational background that women in Kathmandu Valley are getting employment in organized sectors at present.

Out of four sampled organized sectors, the highly educated women were found in the teaching sector (62.43 percent and 7.51 percent including Masters and Ph. D. holders), since, the minimum requirement for teacher in campuses and university was master degree. In teaching institutions the non-masters degree holders were confined to administration, or assistants to teachers such as instructors, deputy and assistant instructors or working in Women's Training Center. But in the private sector there was only 14.81 percent women who have masters degree and there was none who acquires Ph. D. degree. Likewise, in Government sector 44.15 percent employed women were postgraduates and 1.95 percent women were Ph. D. holders. In INGO/ NGO, these percentages were 42.65 and 1.47 respectively. Similarly, the employed women with only S. L. C. degree in the government, teaching, INGO/NGO and private sectors were 4.54 percent, 0.58 percent, 1.47 percent and 3.70 percent respectively. This low percent was due to the fact that in government and teaching institutions for the post of non-gazetted and similar position, the minimum educational qualifications is at least intermediate or equivalent. But those employees who entered into low posts with low educational background lower than S. L. C. level could get promoted to higher posts with work experience. In private and INGO/NGO also the employer prefers highly educated persons, since they have more knowledge and skills.

5.1.10 Employed Women By Training Received

Training is an important aspect for a job, since it enhances more knowledge and skill. It also increases quality in occupation.

Table 5.10:**Distribution of Employed Women According to Training Received**

	Training Received					
	No.of Respondents (Total) (A)	No (B)	Yes (C)	Inservice (D)	Before Joining the office (E)	both (Repeated answer) (F)
Frequency	449	166	283	237	69	23
Percentage	100	36.97	63.03	83.74	24.38	8.13
1. Govt.						
Frequency	154	45	109	100	21	12
Percentage	100	29.22	70.78	91.74	19.26	11.00
2. Teaching						
Frequency	173	87	86	83	4	1
Percentage	100	50.29	49.71	96.51	4.65	1.16
3. NGO/INGO						
Frequency	68	16	52	36	22	6
Percentage	100	23.53	76.47	69.23	42.30	11.53
4. Private						
Frequency	54	18	36	18	22	4
Percentage	100	33.33	66.67	50.00	61.11	11.11

Source: Field Survey

Note: Column B+C == 100%, Column D+E-F = 100%

In the sample, 63.03 percent of the employed women have got training and 36 percent have not received any type of training. Among the women who received training 83.74 percent received training through the office and 24.38 percent received by themselves before joining the office. About 8 percent respondents receive training both by their own capacity and by office. The percentage of women who got opportunity to received training in government, teaching, INGO/ NGO and private organizations were 70.78, 49.71, 76.47 and 66.67 respectively.

Similarly, out of total training recipients in the government sector, 70.78 percent of the employed women received through the office and 29.22 percent received by themselves before joining the office and 11.00 percent received training both from office and on their own. The percentages of women who received inservice training for teaching, INGO/ NGO and private sectors were 96.51, 69.23 and 50.00 respectively. Likewise, the percentage of employed women who received training by themselves before joining the office for Teaching, INGO/NGO and private sectors were found as 4.65, 43.30, and 61.11 respectively. It was found that majority of employed women in government, teaching and INGO/NGO received training through the office, while in the private sector majority of employed women received on their own before joining the office. Thus it can be concluded that in government, teaching and INGO/ NGO sectors the office provided training to their employees, whereas in the private sector the employer hired mostly trained people. Similarly, among the four types of organizations the trained employees were found mostly in INGO/ NGO sector and the least trained employees were found in the teaching sector. This was due to the fact that in teaching organizations the employer prefers academic qualifications rather than training. However, there is a need to provide professional training to all the women employees as 36.00 percent of the respondents said that they have not receive any type of training.

Figure 5.3:

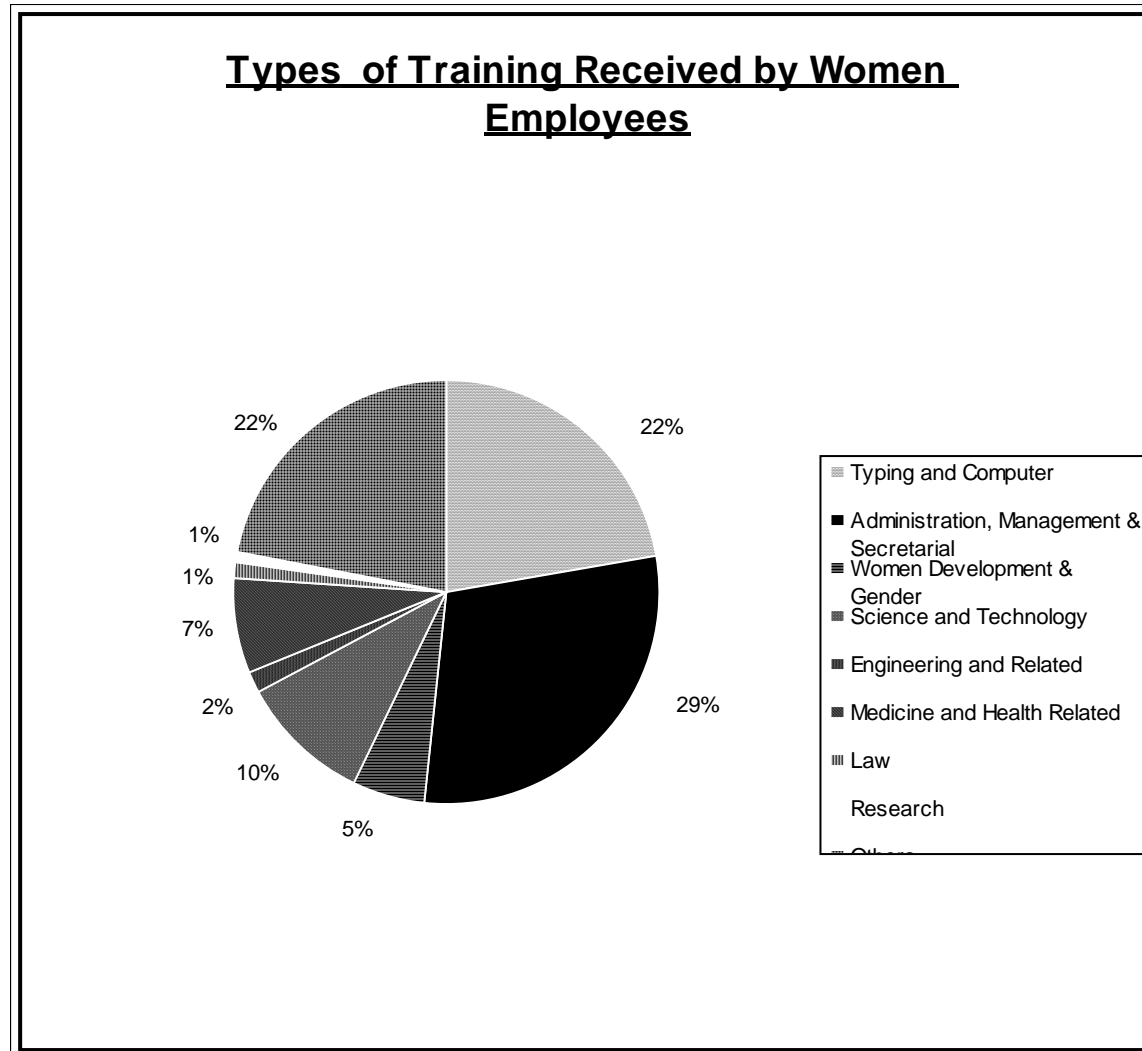


Table 5.11:**Types of Training Received by Women Employees**

	Employment Sector				Total
	Govt.	Teaching	NGO/INGO	Private	
No. of respondents with Training	109	86	52	36	83 100%
Typing & Computer	23	17	23	20	83 22.25 %
Administration, Management, Secretarial	44	33	20	13	110 29.49%
Women & Development Gender	4	10	5	1	20 5.36%
Science & Technology	24	10	4	-	38 10.19%
Engineering & Related	4	2	-	-	6 1.61%
Medicine & Health Related	17	6	3	1	27 7.24%
Law	1	3	-	-	4 1.07%
Research	1	-	2	-	3 0.80%
Others (Travel & Tourism, Banking, Teachers training, Hotel, Language, Library, Trainers Training etc.)	17	25	20	20	82 21.98%

Source: Field Survey

Note: Some respondents receive more than one training.

Table 5.11 reveals that major types of training received by the women included those that are connected with administration and secretarial service, computer, science and technology, medicine and health. The other different types of training received by women employees were women and development and gender, engineering, law, research and others. The other different types of training included travel and tourism, banking, language, hotel and related, library, teachers training, trainer's training subjects. The percentages of training received by women employees by order were administration, management and secretarial service 29.49 percent, typing and computer 22.25 percent, others 21.98 percent, science and technology 10.19 percent, medicine and health related 7.24 percent, women and development and gender 5.36 percent, engineering and related areas 1.61 percent, law 1.07 percent, and research 0.80 percent respectively.

A question was also asked to the employed women who had not received any training about what is the reason behind their not getting training. Some women employees reported that they did not get any training since no opportunities for training were provided to them. Some reported that the nature of the job is such that they do not require any extensive training. They do simple work with basic minimum educational requirement for the job. It was also found from the data that training facility is much less in university jobs. It is true that at present women may not need special training to perform the jobs assigned to them, but in future they may require training to update their knowledge and equip themselves with fresh skills, abilities, understanding, experience and more knowledge. Taking into consideration the future needs of the organized sectors the working women should be deputed to some training programmes by which they can acquire fresh skills, knowledge, experience, understanding etc. By getting training women could take up better jobs and strive their best for further professional growth.

5.2 Occupation and Employment Pattern of Women:

The very process of modern economic development generates sizable quantity of work opportunities for women in non- agricultural activities. Rapid economic development which necessitates better utilization and development of natural resources, technology and organization always generate massive employment opportunities for the people in the country. Female labour being a component of human labour is capable of influencing the labour participation rate in any modern economy and female labour can also be a source of labour supply to a rapidly growing economy.

The level and pattern of women employment is an indicator of women labour participation in the socio-economic development of an urban economy. However, the nature of social progress and social equity, education and skills, culture and protective socio- economic legislation as well as demographic factors determines the rate of women's participation in labour force.

In the traditional subsistence economy, women shared equal responsibility with men in production. With the advent of industrialization, the traditional subsistence

economy decreased and its impact fell more heavily on women than men. The changing structure of employment owing to the introduction of new crops for international market, changing land ownership and land tenure system leading to displacement of artisans has led to concentration of women in the unorganized sectors of rural and urban economies. The changing structure of employment necessitated a shift in the skill requirements, which squeezed women out of independent productive activities directed to market and forced them to work as domestic and casual workers.

The distribution of female workers among different occupations differ in different countries depending upon the structure of the economy, educational levels, attitudes of women to jobs of various kinds, and so many other social factors. With changes in the structure of the economy, educational levels and social attitudes, there occurred a change in the occupational structure of the workers. But the directions of change are different among females rather than among males. The various social and economic factors like caste, income of the family, family occupation, location i.e. rural / urban etc. influence the female participation rates (Singal, 1995).

In the Nepalese context, after the advent of democracy the urban women were getting opportunity to get enrolled in schools and colleges. The occupational structure has gradually changed from agriculture to others due to modernization and scarcity of cultivable land. With the population pressure in urban areas, especially in Kathmandu Valley and with this change and the spread of education Nepalese women gradually entered into the labour market in different occupations.

In this section, an attempt has been made to analyze the occupation and employment pattern of women in Kathmandu Valley in organized sectors, since the employment pattern in different organized sectors follows the national trend.

5.2.1 Employed Women By Designation:

Designation is a very important factor in indicating one's position in the job. Among the respondents, there are very few women in the gazetted Ist class and above posts in government service and in similar rank in teaching, INGO/NGO and private offices.

Table 5.12:

**Distribution of Employed Women According to
Their Job Classification by Sector**

Sectors of Employment Job	Government	Teaching (University + Autonomous)	INGO/ NGO	Private	Total
Administrator/Manager	29	30	25	13	97 (21.60%)
Teacher	-	101	-	-	101(22.49%)
Doctor(Medical & Veterinary)	4	2	2	-	8 (1.78%)
Engineer	2	-	-	-	2 (0.44%)
Technical Officer	42	6	-	-	48 (10.69%)
Lawyer	2	1	2	-	5 (1.11%)
Social Science Professional	8	-	-	-	8 (1.78%)
Researcher	-	2	4	4	6 (1.34%)
Social Worker	-	-	5	-	5 (1.11%)
Administrative Assistant / Secretary	15	23	23	35	6 (21.38%)
Clerk	10	2	2	5	19(4.23%)
Technician	30	6	5	1	42(9.35%)
Senior & Staff Nurse	12	-	-	-	12(2.67%)
Total	154	173	68	54	449(100%)

Source: Field Survey.

Note: Engineers, Doctors, Lawyers, Nurse, Science & Technical certificate holders involved in teaching profession were grouped as a teacher.

The employed women in different jobs with their specialization are as shown in Table 5.12. The percentage of women in the administration and management field is found as 21.60, which includes women working as section officers in the government service, and as administrative officers, program officers, and so on elsewhere. The percentage of women engaged in the teaching profession is 22.49 which is the highest compared to percentages of women in other jobs. Among the teachers the highest percentage of teachers is in Social Science field and lowest percentage is in Law. The percentages of women as

engineers, doctors, lawyers and judges, social workers, research officers and social scientists like sociologists and economists are found to be low, which is about only 1 to 2 percent. Most of the employed women were doing jobs as administrators, teachers, technical officers, junior technicians, administrative assistants and secretaries. The distributions of employed women by designation in different organized sectors are shown in Table 5.13.

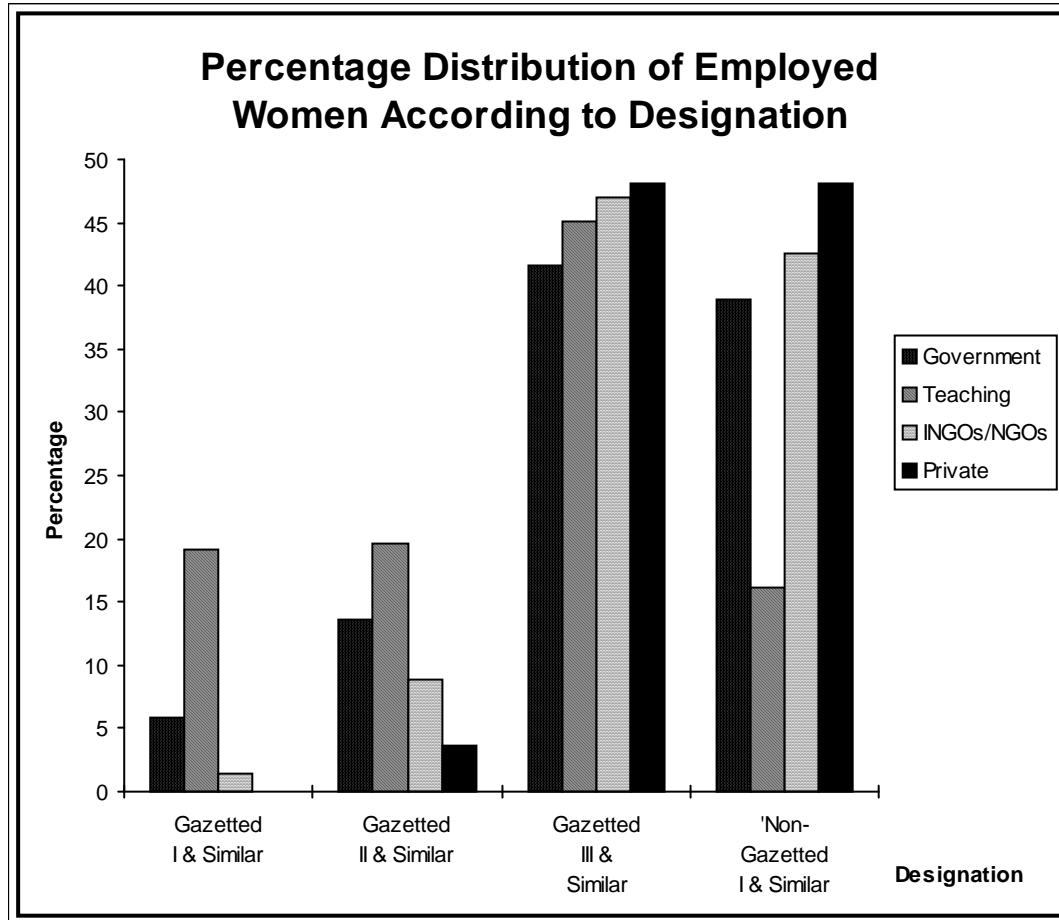
Table 5.13:

Distribution of Employed Women According to Designation

	Gazetted I & above & Similar	Gazetted II & Similar	Gazetted III & Similar	Non-Gazetted & Similar	Total
Government	9 5.84%	21 13.63%	64 41.56%	60 38.96%	154 100%
Teaching	33 19.07%	34 19.65%	78 45.08%	28 16.18%	173 100%
INGO/NGO	1 1.47%	6 8.82%	32 47.05%	29 42.64%	68 100%
Public & Private	- -	2 3.70%	26 48.14%	26 48.14%	54 100%
Total	43 9.58%	63 14.03%	200 44.54%	143 31.85%	449 100%

Source: Field Survey.

Figure 5.4:



The percentage of women in gazetted I and similar or above ranks is only 9.85. The percentage of employed women in gazetted IInd class and similar rank is 14.03, while the percentage for gazetted third or similar rank is slightly high, (44.54 percent). Likewise, the percentage of non-gazetted Ist class or similar rank in different sectors of employment is found as 31.85. It has been found that higher the rank lower the percentage of women. Similarly, in management and decision making level posts and in top level teaching and technical posts women represented the minority group. However, compared to government, INGO/ NGO and private sector, the percentage of high level post holding women in teaching job is high. In the private sector the picture is much worse. There was no women employee holding a high rank in the private sector and INGO/ NGO. Mostly in private and INGO/ NGO sectors the women hold only low level posts.

5.2.2 Employed Women By Occupational Group:

Occupation is an important determining factor of the social and economic status of an individual in the society. The occupation of women also influences one's way of life. The employed women in different jobs with their occupational group are presented in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14:

Distribution of Employed Women According to Occupational Group

Occupational Group Sector	Professional/ Technical	Administrative/ Managerial	Clerical	Sales	Service	Others	Total
Government	103 66.9%	38 24.7%	13 8.4%	- -	- -	- -	154 100%
Teaching	123 71.1%	39 22.5%	11 6.4%	- -	- -	- -	173 100%
NGO/INGO	33 48.5%	28 41.2%	6 8.8%	- -	- -	1 1.5%	68 100%
Public & Private	4 7.4%	26 48.1%	9 16.7%	8 14.8%	7 13.0%	- -	54 100%
Total	263 58.6%	131 29.2%	39 8.7%	8 1.8%	7 1.5%	1 0.2%	449 100%

Source: Field Survey.

Note: Teacher, Technical professional including social science professionals and technician were grouped as professional technical group.

It was found that in professional technical group, the percentage of women is 58.6, in administrative and management group the percentage is 29.2. Similarly, the percentage of women in clerical, sales, service and others are 8.7, 1.8, 1.5 and 0.2 respectively. Majority of women were found concentrating in professional technical group including teacher and minority of women were found in the service group.

5.2.3 Employed Women By Level of Employment:

Level of employment is very important in performing jobs. The distribution of women according to the level of employment is shown in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15:

Distribution of Employed Women According to Level of Employment

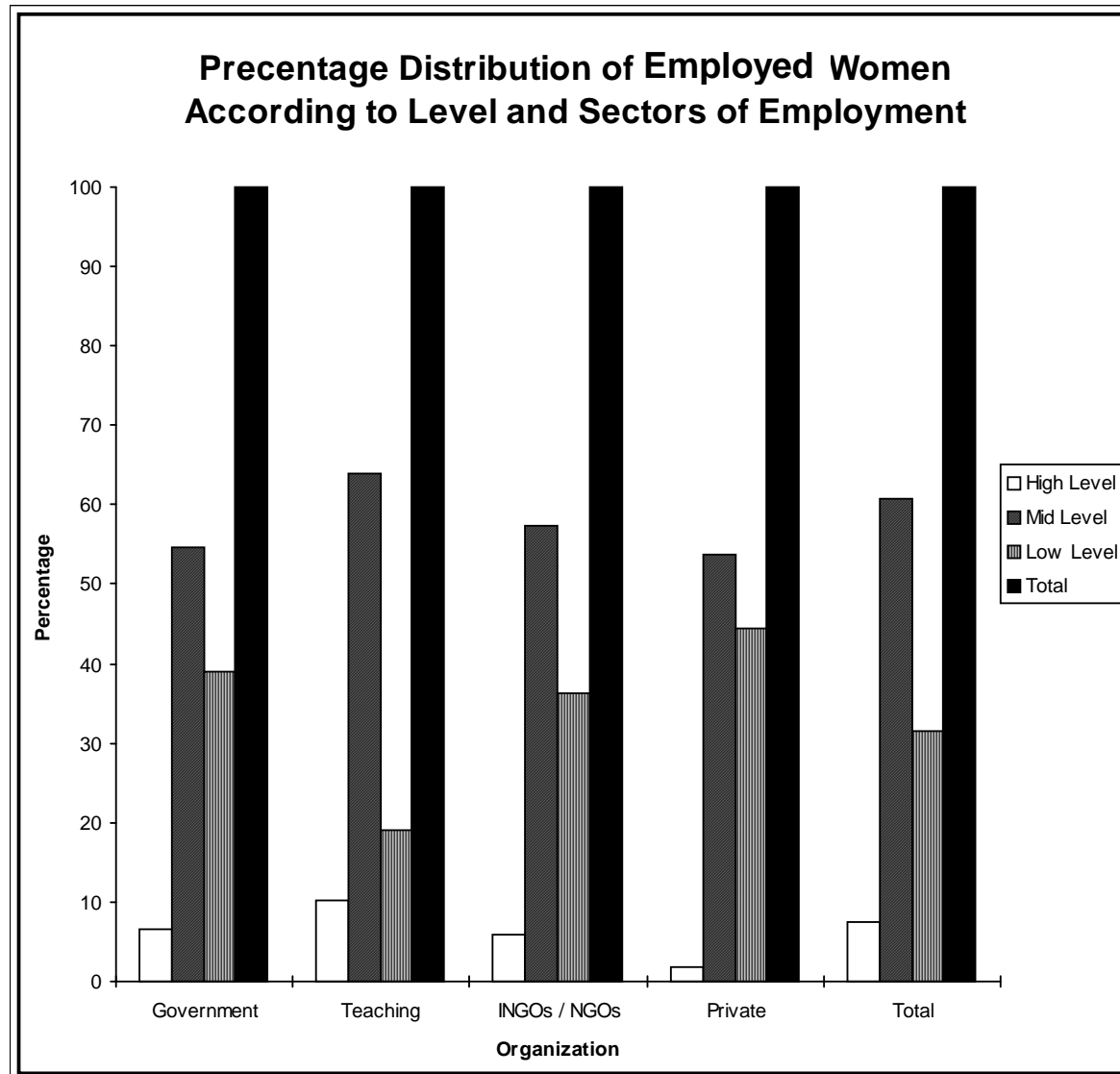
Level of Empt. Organization	Higher Level Prof. Management Group	Mid Level Professional Supervisory Group	Beginning Level Assistant Group	Total
Government	10 6.5%	84 54.54%	60 38.96%	154 100%
Teaching	19 10.18%	121 63.94%	33 19.07%	173 100%
NGO/INGO	4 5.88%	39 57.35%	25 36.23%	68 100%
Private	1 1.85%	29 53.70%	24 44.44%	54 100%
Total	34 7.57%	273 60.80%	142 31.62%	449 100%

Source: Field Survey.

More than half of the women employees, that is 54.54 percent in government, 63.94 percent in teaching institutions, 57.35 percent in INGO/NGO and 53.70 percent in the private sector were working in mid-level professional supervisory group. The percentage of women in higher level professional management group is very low in all the sectors and even negligible, which is 1.85 in the private sector and slightly high (10.98 percent) in

the teaching sector. On the whole, 7.57 percent women were in the higher level, 60.80 percent women were working in mid level and 31.62 percent were working in the beginning level just below the mid level.

Figure 5.5:



5.3 Employed Women and Their Personnel Records:

5.3.1 Employed Women by Length of Service:

The length of service of an employee depicts how many years one has devoted in the formal employment. Thus, it is very important to find out the length of a woman's service in different organizations. The length of service of employed women determines the commitment and their experience in terms of occupation. The number of years spent in a particular job also has an impact on the self- perception as well as orientation towards various aspects in the job. The length of service here means the total years in employment a woman has served in the job for the concerned organization.

Table 5.16:

Distribution of Employed Women According to Length of Service

Service Period Organization	Completed Service Year					Total
	1-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20+	
Government	28 18.18%	23 14.93%	19 12.33%	31 20.13%	53 34.41%	154 100%
Teaching	14 8.09%	16 9.25%	39 22.54%	35 20.23%	69 39.88%	173 100%
INGI/NGO	43 63.23%	16 23.53%	9 13.23%	- -	- -	68 100%
Private	23 42.6%	5 9.26%	8 14.81%	10 18.51%	8 14.81%	54 100%
Total						
Frequency	108	60	75	76	130	449
Percentage	24.05%	13.36%	16.70%	16.93%	28.95%	100%

Source: Field Survey.

It was found that the highest i.e. 28.95 percent of women completed 20 and more service years in employment and the lowest i. e. 13.36 percent of women completed 5 to 9 years of employment in associated organizations. In government and teaching institutions more than 34 percent of women employees have served for 20 years and

above, but there was no woman, who completed 20 years and above service period, in INGO/NGO, since INGO/ NGO are newly emerging organizations in Nepal.

5.3.2 Employed Women by Previous Work experience:

Besides, the work experience in associated organizations, some women have past work experience in other organizations also. The percentage of such women employees was found as 33.18 and the percentage of women employees, who did not have work experience other than currently associated organization, was 66.81.

Table 5.17:

Distribution of Employed Women According to Previous Work Experience

No. of Responses	Previous Work Experience		Total
	Yes	No	
Frequency	149	300	449
Percentage	33.18	66.81	100

Source: Field Survey.

Among the women, who had previous work experience in other organizations 40.26 percent have 1-2 years of work experience, 46.31 percent have 3-5 years of previous work experience and 13.42 percent women have 5 and more than 5 years of work experience.

Table 5.18:

Distribution of Employed Women with Duration of Previous Work Experience

No. of Responses	Working Period (Year)			Total
	1-2	3-4	5+	
Frequency	60	69	20	149
Percentage	40.26 %	46.31%	13.42%	100

Source: Field Survey.

Table 5.19:

Distribution of Employed According to the Reason for Leaving the Previous Job

No. of Respondent	Reason for Leaving the Previous Job			Total
	Got better job	Got permanent job	Others	
Frequency	39	16	89	149
Percentage	26.17	10.73	59.73	100

Source: Field Survey.

A question was asked to those women, who had previous work experience in other institutions about what was the reason for leaving the previous job. It was found that 26.17 percent of women employees quit their jobs by getting better jobs, 10.73 percent left the previous job due to the temporary nature of job and 13.42 percent women left due to other reasons such as family reason, to continue study, child care and so on.

5.3.3 Employed Women and Promotion in Job:

Promotion in job is a very important aspect of human resource development, since it provides incentives to work for an employee. The provision of promotion in rank for an employee makes for an ideal setting within an institution. With promotion in rank, an employee usually receives additional salary and increased influence within the organization.

Table 5.20:**Distribution of Employed Women According to Promotion Received in Job**

Employment Sector	No of Respondents	Promotion Received					
		No & NA	Yes	1time	2 Times	3 Times	4 Times
Government	154 100%	95 61.69%	59 38.31%	36 61.01%	16 27.11%	4 6.78%	3 5.08%
Teaching	173 100%	45 26.01%	128 73.99%	89 69.53%	33 25.78%	5 3.90%	1 0.78%
NGO/INGO	68 100%	45+3 66.17%	20 9.41%	12 60.0%	8 40%	- -	- -
Private	54 100%	27 50.0%	27 50.0%	19 70.37%	6 22.22%	2 7.40%	- -
Total	449 100%	212+3 47.88%	234 52.11%	156 66.66%	63 26.92%	11 4.70%	4 1.71%

Source: Field Survey.

Note: NA= Not applicable.

Among the respondents 52.11 percent of women employees got promotion at least once or more and 47.88 percent did not get any promotion. Compared to other sectors of employment, women employees of teaching institutions received promotion, since 73.99 percent of women employees in teaching institutions were found promoted at least once. Less percentage of promotion record was found for the women employees of INGO/ NGO. The promotion percentage of women employees in this sector was only 21.41. In teaching institutions also majority of women employees received promotion only one level up. The percentage of women getting promotion three and four levels up in the teaching sector is very low. The same picture was found in the government sector also, it was negligible in private sector and not found in INGO/NGO sector.

Table 5.21:

**Reasons for Not Getting Promotion in Job for
Employed Women**

Reasons for not promoted	Frequency	Weightage Value in Percentage
Newly entered in the job	81	36.48
Due to nature of the job	71	31.98
Not qualified for promotion	6	2.70
Not efficient in the job	2	0.90
Discrimination	10	4.50
Lag behind the competition	20	9.00
Lack of experience and training	3	1.35
Others	29	13.06
Total	222	100.0

Source: Field Survey

The major reason for not getting promotion was stated by not-promoted women as newly entered in the job by 36.48 percent. The other reasons stated by not-promoted women employees in order were nature of the job 31.98 percent, lagging behind in the competition 9.0 percent, discrimination made for being women 4.5 percent, not qualified for promotion 2.70 percent, lack of experience and training 1.35 percent and not efficient in job 0.90 percent. Similarly, the percentage of women who gave the reason for not being promoted beyond the above- mentioned reasons was found as 13. 06. Thus women did not get promotion due to newly entered into the job, because of the nature of the job itself, not qualified and lack of experience and training. But some pointed out that there was the existence of discrimination in promotion, which is very bad and disgusting. Therefore it should be avoided.

5.3.4 Employed Women 's Reasons for Working:

The employment of women in the organized sector has indubitably opened up new vistas of participation for women, shifting their erstwhile predominant concern with household and family wage employment in the organized sector has made them economically independent and their monetary contribution is a substantial addition to household earnings (Ramaswamy, in Women Employment and Work Place, 1992, pp. 91). Women in the past were driven by poverty to work, i. e. only those women who were poverty-stricken took up jobs. At present this thinking has radically changed. Women may work out of economic necessity or out of their own choice. According to Kapur, the process of industrialization has brought about socio-psychological changes in the attitude and values of the people regarding participation of women in economic activities.

Table 5.22:

Distribution of Employed Women According to the Reasons for Their Work

Reason's for Working	Weightage Value (Frequency)	Percentage (Weightage)
1. Career advancement	228	28.82
2. Economic necessity and to supplement family income	120	15.17
3. Utilize education	159	20.10
4. 4.Have good status in the society	46	5.81
5. To pass and utilize time	9	1.14
6. To become independent	223	28.19
7. Others	6	0.76
Total	791	100

Note: Total Respondents- 449

342 Respondents work for two reasons.

Table 5.22 shows that the highest weightage is given by employed women for 'career advancement', which is 28.82 percent and 'to become independent', which is 28.19 and the least weightage is given to 'just pass and utilize time'. Some of the women seek employment because of 'economic necessity and to supplement family income' and 'to utilize education'. Only 5.81 women work in order to have a good status in the society. To work for career advancement and to become independent is a sign of high level thinking by women.

5.3.5 Employed Women and Their Earning Level:

Income has been considered to be a direct benefit of being employed in work. The earning of an individual is crucial and is an important indicator of his/ her status. The personal income makes women more independent in the economic aspect. The additional income earned by women provides opportunities of making additional investment, additional consumption and additional saving, which in turns provides economic growth.

Table 5.23:

Distribution of Employed Women According to Level of Income

Organization	Income in Rs.							Total no. of respondents
	1500-1900	2000-2099	3000-3099	4000-4099	5000-9099	10,000 & above	Confidential & no regular salary	
Government	-	35 22.72%	30 19.48%	55 35.71%	34 22.07%	-	-	154 100%
Teaching	-	12 6.94%	21 12.14%	34 19.65%	106 61.27%	-	-	173 100%
NGO/INGO	1 1.47%	-	10 14.70%	6 8.82%	21 32.35%	22 32.35%	8 11.76%	68 100%
Private	-	2 3.70%	14 25.92%	9 16.67%	16 29.63%	6 11.11%	4 7.40%	54 100%
Total	1 0.22%	49 10.91%	75 16.70%	104 23.16%	177 39.42%	28 6.24%	12 2.67%	449 100%

Source: Field Survey.

Table 5.23 showed that the percentage of employed women in Rs. 5000- 9099 income group is highest i. e. 39.42 and the percentage of women in Rs. 1500-1900 income

group is lowest I. e. 0.22. The women with an earning level of Rs. 5000-9099 are highest in the teaching sector and lowest in the government sector. Similarly, the percentage of women, who earn Rs. 10,000 and above are available only in INGO/NGO and private sectors. The net pay scale in the similar level posts is high in INGO/NGO and private sectors compared to government and teaching. Similarly, the pay scale of non-gazetted I class level in government and similar level is above Rs. 1900, so that there were no women employees below that income group in those sectors. It was also found that some of the respondents did not mention their income due to the policy of the organization that they have to keep their salary confidential. Some women of the NGO's did not get regular salary due to the nature of the organization and of the job.

5.3.6 Employed Women and their Expenditures:

According to Keynes, aggregate demand (D) is composed of investment (I) and consumption. Utilization or management of income has a great significance for an individual and a family. An individual either spends or invests or saves his/ her income. Thus it is of great significance how a woman manages her income.

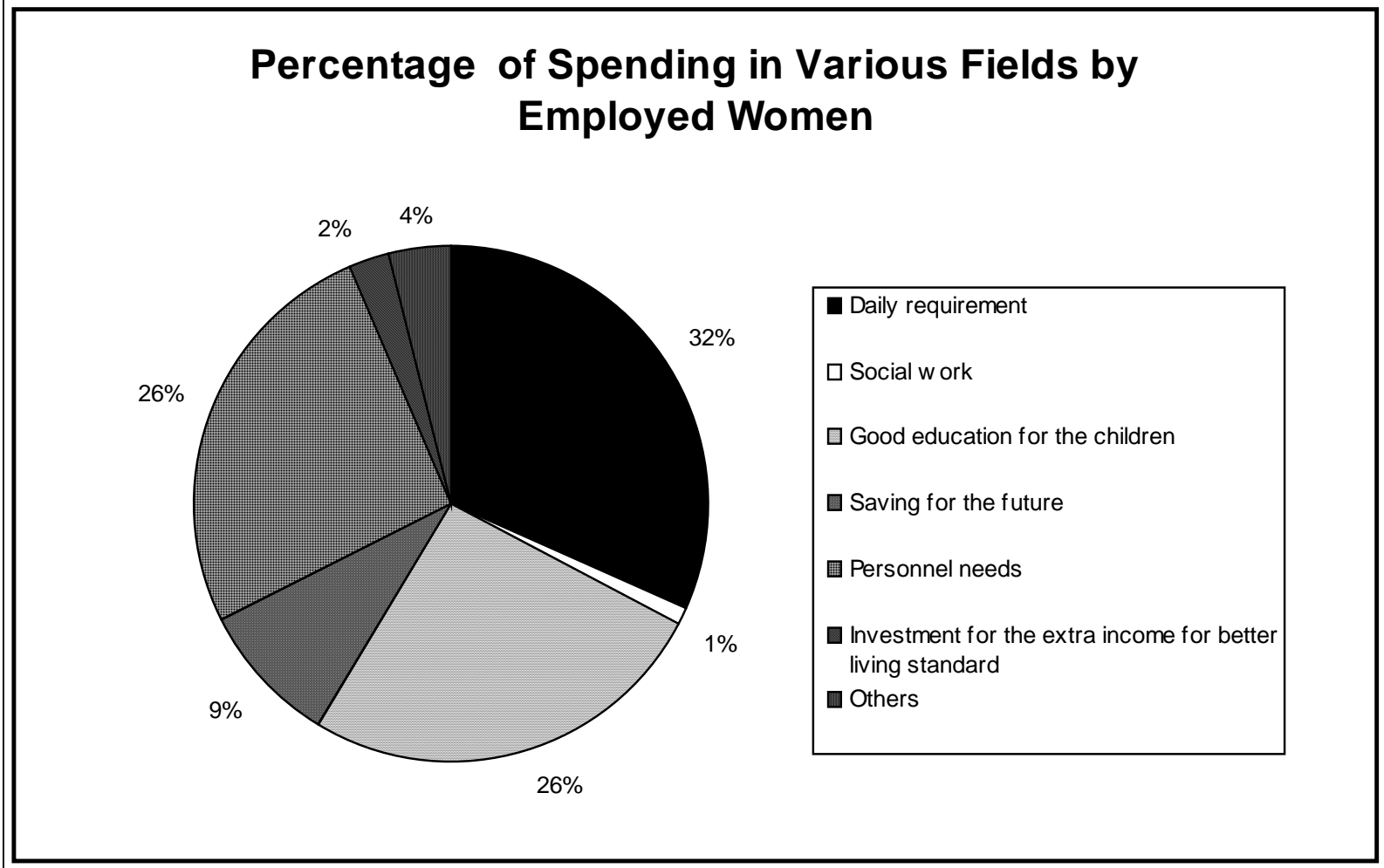
Table 5.24:**Distribution of Employed Women According to Utilization of Income**

Utilization of Income	Weightage Value given by Respondents	Weightage in Percentage
1. Daily requirement of the family.	138	32.74
2. Social work	13	1.79
3. Good education to children	193	26.54
4. Saving for the future	67	9.21
5. Personal needs	196	26.96
6. Investment for making the extra income for better living standard	17	2.39
7. Others	3	0.41
Total	727	100

Source: Field Survey.

It was found that respondents have given high weightage to daily requirement of the family i.e. 32.74 percent and the least weightage are given to the social work, since this is a newly developed concept. As it was found that most of the women work either from economic necessity or to become independent or to utilize education. They spend their income for the daily requirement of the family and to provide good education for their children and for personal needs. This showed that a high percentage of women's income is spent on consumption and investment purposes. However some also invest in making an extra income for better living standard and some save their income for future needs.

Figure 5.6:



5.3. Employed Women and Equal Salary:

Equity between men and women demands equal salary for equal work. Thus equal salary has a great significance in not discriminating women and in not practicing segregation in the work place.

Table. 5.25:

Salary Differences Between Male and Female Employees

Organization	Equal Salary			Total
	Yes	No	NA	
Government	152 98.70%	2 1.3%	- -	154 100%
Teaching	172 99.42%	1 0.58%	- -	173 100%
INGO/NGO	54 79.41%	6 8.82%	8 11.76%	68 100%
Private	45 83.33%	9 16.66%	- -	54 100%
Total	423 94.20%	18 4.0%	8 1.78%	449 100%

Source: Field Survey.

Note: NA= Not applicable.

Majorities of the women are of the view that there were no discrimination in the salary scale between males and females in the same posts. However some reported that there is some discrimination. The women respondents reported this view from INGO/NGO sectors. Thus it can be said that in INGO/NGO the employer pay salary either for the work or they discriminate against women in paying remuneration. But the women employees in the government and teaching sectors were getting equal salary as that of male colleagues for the same job. But if some men do some other job also or work overtime in jobs naturally they get more.

5. 4 Problems of Women Employees and Measures to be taken By the Government:

5.4.1 Women Employees and their Problems:

The problems of women employees are multi-dimensional ranging from economic, social, environmental, and psychological to institutional. Their problems differ to a considerable extent depending upon the level of education, kinds of job, social equity, family type, gender discrepancies, attitude of the superior and of male colleagues, perception of the family towards their job and so on. The level and pattern of women employment is always an index of the kind of socio-economic progress, which a community pursues. Therefore, the problem of the low rate of women labour participation is always viewed in the context of the overall problems connected with the social and economic progress. There is also the problem of social equity between men and women. In this connection, sometimes it is desirable that the government should take special measures to improve women's employment and adopt some special policies, which favor women.

Therefore, in this section an effort is made to explain the various psycho-economic, social, institutional and gender-related problems faced by women employees.

5.4.2 Employed women, Educational Qualification and job:

It is very important for any employee that he/ she should get appropriate job which suits and match their educational background or skills in an organized sector. It is the general tendency of a woman to prefer occupation, which are more suited to the educational background and training received. Women, by proving themselves to be the intellectual equals of men, have revealed discrimination on the basis of sex alone seems as irrational.

Table 5.26:

**Distribution of Employed Women According to
Their Qualification and Appropriate Job**

	Qualification Match with Job		
Respondents	Yes	No	Total
Frequency	360	89	449
Percentage	80.17	19.82	100

Source: Field Survey

Out of 449 respondents majority of women employees stated that their educational qualifications matched with their job and some stated that their educational qualifications were too high for the present job.

Table 5.27:

**Distribution of Employed Women by the Reason They Gave for the
Mismatch Between Their Qualification
and the Jobs They Hold**

Reasons for mismatch between job and of qualification	Frequency	Percentage
1. Do not get proper job due to stiff competition	43	48.31
2. Do not get proper job due to lack of experience	15	16.85
3. Discrimination made for being a woman	3	3.37
4. No advertisement made for a proper post	17	19.10
5. Others.	11	12.35
Total	81	100

Source: Field Survey.

The number of respondents stating mismatch between the qualifications and the job was 81.

Among the respondents 80.17 percent stated that their educational qualifications matched with their job and only 19.82 percent did not agree that the

jobs they held matched with their qualifications. But due to various reasons they are staying in the present posts. Those reasons were: do not get proper job due to stiff competition, do not get proper job due to lack of previous experience, discrimination made for being a woman, no advertisement made for a proper post and others. Majority of women gave the reason as do not get proper job due to stiff competition (48.31 percent), whereas only few women gave the reason as discrimination made for being a woman (3.37 percent).

5.4.3 Employed Women and Job Satisfaction:

An employee can be said to be satisfied with the job when the person perceives that his/her performance is substantially rewarded. The performance results from a combination of an individual's effort, level of ability and the role he/she undertakes in the work situation. With the changing roles, status and employment of women, their energy and devotion are divided between home and work place. Consequently, their adjustment in life together with job satisfaction gets affected due to stress and strains, conflicts, sex bias, non-cooperation at home and on the job. It is therefore, very important to know whether the employed women are satisfied with their job or not. Similarly, it is also important that one should get the type of job one is interested in.

Table 5.28:

**Distribution of Employed Women According
to Job Satisfaction**

Employing sector	Job Satisfaction		
	Yes	No	No Answer
	F %	F %	F %
Government	107 64.48%	41 26.62%	6 3.89%
Teaching	133 76.88%	40 23.12%	- -
INGO/NGO	63 92.64%	5 7.35%	- -
Private	42 77.78%	12 22.22%	- -
Total	345 76.83%	98 21.82%	6 1.33%

Source: Field Survey.

Majority of women (76.83 percent) reported that they were satisfied with their job and only 21.82 percent reported that they were not satisfied with their job. The reasons for not being satisfied as they reported were: their academic qualifications did not match with their job, they did not get promotion in time, and they did not get training facilities and so on. The not-satisfied percent of women employees is high (26.62) in the government sector, and low (7.35) in the INGO/NGO sector. Reasons were asked to the women who reported that their jobs does not match with their educational qualifications and they stated that they did not get proper job due to stiff competition (48.31percent), no advertisement made for the proper post (19.10 percent) they did not get proper job due to lack of experience, discrimination has been made against woman on the selection for the job (3.37 percent) and others (12.35 percent) respectively.

5.4.4 Employed Women and Their Selection Procedure in the Job:

The selection procedure in the job has great effect on the employment of women. There are many factors, which contribute to the selection process as good political connection, personal influence, ability of a person and so on. However, there are certain procedures followed in the selection in the job depending upon the type of an institution.

Table 5.29:

Distribution of Employed Women According to Selection Procedure in Job.

	Written and interview	Interview only	Personal contact	Others	Total
Government	103 (66.88%)	47 (30.51%)	3 (1.95%)	1 (0.65%)	154 (100%)
Teaching	100 (57.80%)	68 (39.30%)	4 (2.31.5%)	1 (0.58%)	173 (100%)
INGO/NGO	20 (29.41%)	31 (45.59%)	9 (13.23%)	8 (11.76%)	68 (100%)
Private	17 (31.49%)	29 (53.70%)	7 (12.96%)	1 (1.85%)	54 (100%)
Total	240 (53.45%)	175 (38.97%)	23 (5.92%)	11 (2.45%)	449 (100%)

Source: Field Survey

The above Table shows the selection procedure of women in different sectors of employment. It was found that majority of the women employees in government and teaching institutions had entered the job through competition involving both written and interview procedure, but in INGO/NGO and private institutions majority of women got through interview only. Very few women in government and teaching institutions have entered through personal contact (1.95 percent and 2.31 percent only), but in the INGO/NGO about 13 percent of women entered into the job only through personal contact. It is thus clear that the selection procedure in government and teaching institutions is fixed for a permanent job. Mostly a person, whether male or female enters through written

test and interview and for temporary and contract basis job secured employment through interview only, whereas in private and INGO/NGO interview is the main method for securing the employment. However on the whole, about half of the respondents secured through written test and interviews.

5.4.5 Employed Women and their Perception of Job Selection:

To select and to get the right job is very difficult in Nepal. It is very difficult for women due to so many reasons. In the present study, the respondents were asked to state their perception regarding job selection, since women had to face many difficulties in selecting a job. Sometimes they have to look for the job which suits for their family's 'prestige, and in some other cases they have to quit the job, which needed frequent mobility and long hours' duty and so on.

Table 5.30:

**Distribution of Employed Women According to
Their Perception of Job Selection**

No. of Respondents	Harder	Easier	No difference	Total
Frequency	71	35	343	449
Percentage	15.81	7.79	76.39	100%

Source: Field Survey

Majority of women (76.34 percent) stated that there is no difference in selecting a job being a woman whereas 15 percent of women stated to be hard in selecting a job. Some women stated that they did not have to make any effort in finding a job and it was very easy to select a job. The reasons for selecting a job being harder as given by respondents are shown in the following Table.

Table 5.31:

**Perception of Employed Women Regarding Reasons
for Harder in Job Selection.**

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
Due to difficulty in mobility.	40	52.63
Have to maintain family status.	9	11.84
Cannot join full time job due to family work burden.	11	14.47
Others.	16	21.05
Total	76	100

Source: Field Survey.

Note: Five respondents had given two reasons for a harder in selecting jobs.

The above Table explains that, out of 76 respondents, stating harder in selecting a job, majority had given the reason as difficulty in mobility, some said they had to maintain family status while joining the job. Some also mentioned that it was difficult for them to join a full-time job due to family work burden.

5.4.6 Employed Women and Their Work Performance:

The work performance is very important in every occupation. It was assumed that work performance of a female might differ from that of a male and from an unmarried female to that of a married one. However, work performance depends upon the type of work. In a study of the women managers in Nepal, it was found that women managers were highly motivated to work for personal development, social status, and more importantly to contribute to the development of the society (Deuba, 1996). In another study it was found that unmarried women were more efficient and they could devote more time at work as compared to married women (Shrestha, 1995).

Table 5.32:

**Distribution of Employed Women According
to Work Performance**

	Better	Equal	Not equal	No comparable	Total
Government	36 (23.37%)	118 (76.62%)	-	-	154 (100%)
Teaching	44 (25.43%)	129 (74.57%)	-	-	173 (100%)
NGO/INGO	13 (19.11%)	47 (69.11%)	1 (1.47%)	7 (10.29%)	68 (100%)
Private	12 (22.22%)	42 (77.78%)	-	-	54 (100%)
Total	105 (23.38%)	336 (74.83%)	1 (0.22%)	7 (1.56%)	449 (100%)

Source: Field Survey

Regarding the work performance in the office with that of male colleagues, 83 percent women stated that their work performance is equal to that of a male colleague, 23.38 percent expressed that their work performance is better, 1.56 percent viewed that it is not comparable, since they do not have male colleagues and 0.22 percent viewed that their work performance is worse than that of male colleagues. The women employees, who stated their work performance to be worse than that of male colleagues, belong to the INGO/NGO sector.

5.4.7 Employed Women and Their Working Relationship with Immediate Superior:

Good working relationship with the boss is necessary in order to perform a job perfectly. Employed women were asked to state their working relationship in the present study.

Table. 5.33:

Perception of Employed Women Regarding Working Relationship with Boss

Respondents	Working Relationship			Total
	Good	Fair	Poor	
Frequency	284	163	2	449
Percentage	63.25	36.30	0.44	100

Source: Field Survey.

Majority of respondents (63.25 percent) reported that their working relationship with the superior is good. They do not have to face any problem with boss while performing the job, while 36.30 percent women reported that their working relationship with the superior is neither good nor bad which means it is about fair. But 0.44 percent women reported that their working relationship with the superior is poor due to lack of understanding and discrimination made for being a women.

5.4.8 Employed Women and The Attitudes of Male Colleagues:

The working environment for females also includes the attitude of male colleagues in an office. It was found from some studies that in an office male colleagues harass female employees. Therefore, the question was asked about the attitudes of male colleagues to the women employees. In the present study majority of women reported that the male colleague's attitude towards them is good (51.22 percent). But 1.11 percent stated that the attitude of male colleagues towards them is poor. Male colleagues get jealous with their progress. Some (1.33 percent) also stated that this question was not applicable to them since there was no male colleague in their office.

Table 5.34:

Distribution of Employed Women According to the Perception Regarding Attitudes of Male Colleague in Work Place

No. Respondents	Attitudes of Male Colleague				Total
	Good	Fair	Poor	Not Applicable	
Frequency	230	208	5	6	449
Percentage	51.22	46.32	1.11	1.33	100

Source: Field Survey

5.4.9 Employed Women and Difficulties Encountered at Work Place

It was stated that women have to face some difficulties at work place even if they are efficient, capable and devoted to their work. Thus, a question was asked to women employees whether they had any difficulties in their workplace on account of being women.

Table 5.35:

Distribution of Employed Women According to the Perception Regarding

	Difficulties at Work Place		Total
	Yes	No	
Frequency	67	382	449
Percentage	14.92	85.07	100

Source: Field Survey

Out of a total of 449 respondents 85.07 percent reported that they did not encounter any difficulties on account of being women. But 14.92 percent stated that they had to face some difficulties on account of being women. Among those who stated that there were difficulties in work place, 34.33 percent pointed out unequal work responsibility, 20.89 percent stated as lack of understanding and personal harassment, 10.48 percent pointed out discrimination in job assignment and 13.43 percent mentioned other aspects.

Table 5. 36:

Difficulties Stated by Employed Women at Work Place

Stated difficulties	Frequency	Percentage
Unequal work responsibility	23	34.33
Lack of understanding	14	20.89
Personal harassment	14	20.89
Discrimination in job assignment	7	10.48
others	9	13.43
Total	67	100

Source: Field Survey

5.4.10 Employed Women and Policies:

The status of women in society is intimately related with its economic position, which depends on rights, roles and opportunities for participation in economic activities. The economic status of women is accepted recently as an indicator of a society's stage of development and the patterns of women's activity are greatly affected by social attitudes and institutions which stem from the social ideology concerning some basic components of status, may differ according to the stage of economic development (Singhal; 1995, p 123).

Biologically, there are some differences between males and females. Besides, there is also a gender differences between men and women. Due to those difference some extra policies and regulations are needed in the workplace for women employees. There are also some policies and regulations for women employees in most of the organized sectors. In this study, respondents were asked about the awareness of the policies specially made for them and whether they were getting those facilities or not?

Table 5.37:

Distribution of Employed Women According to Awareness of Policies and Regulations Made for Them

Institutions	No of Respondents	Aware of Policies		
		Yes	No	Do not Know & No Answer
Government	154	64 (41.56%)	73 (47.40%)	17 (11.04%)
Teaching	173	110 (63.58%)	56 (32.37%)	7 (4.04%)
INGO/NGO	68	41 (60.29%)	18 (26.47%)	9 (13.23%)
Public & Private	54	30 (55.55%)	23 (42.59%)	1 (1.85%)
Total	449	245	34	34
Percentage	100	54.56	37.86	7.57

Source: Field Survey

It was found that 54.56 percent respondents reported that they were aware of policies made for them, 36.86 percent said they were not and 7.57 percent stated they do not know and so they had no answer.

Table 5.38:

**Perception of Employed Women Regarding Policies
and Regulations Made for Them**

Institutions	No of Respondents	Are Women Getting Those Facilities			Total
		Yes	No	Do not know & No answer	
Government	154	62 (96.87%)	2 (3.12%)	- -	64 (100%)
Teaching	173	108 (98.18%)	1 (0.90%)	1 (0.90%)	110 (100%)
INGO/NGO	68	34 (82.93%)	3 (7.31%)	4 (9.76%)	41 (100%)
Public/Private	54	29 (96.66%)	- -	1 (3.33%)	30 (100%)
Total	449	233	6	6	245
Percentage	95.10	96.11	2.45	2.45	100

Source: Field Survey

Out of 245 respondents who stated they were aware of policies, 95.10 percent stated they were getting those facilities and 2.45 percent stated that they were not. Whatever the respondents stated it was found that in every organized sector women were given maternity leave during delivery.

5.4.11 Employed Women and Additional Facility at Work:

For the economical, physical and psychological well being of women employees some facilities like paid leave for pregnancy and child birth, baby care center to take care of their babies, physical and other facilities are essential. Additional facilities provide women with the privilege to participate in economic activity. It is important to know the ideas of respondents regarding the prevailing facilities and also other some extra facilities needed for them. Therefore, they were asked about those facilities.

Table 5.39:

**Distribution of Employed Women According to Their Perception Regarding
Additional Facilities at Work**

Respondents	Additional Facility Needed		Total
	Yes	No	
Frequency	205	244	449
Percentage	45.66	54.34	100

Source: Field Survey

It was found from the study that nearly 55 percent respondents stated that they do not need additional facilities, but they should be treated equally as male colleagues. On the other hand nearly 46 percent respondents disagreed with this view and stated that some additional facilities should be provided to them.

Table 5.40:

Preference for Additional Facilities by Women Employees

Additional Facilities	Frequency	Percentage
Transportation facility	33	13.41
Baby care System	44	17.88
Leave facility before and After Delivery	72	29.27
Physical Facility	18	7.32
Others(Part-time Job, Upper age limit to enter into the job, Special training)	79	32.11
Total	246	100

Source: Field Survey

Among those who were of this view 13.41 percent mentioned transportation facility, 17.88 percent mentioned baby care center, 29.27 percent pointed out leave facility before and after delivery, 7.32 stated physical facilities. Similarly, 32.11 percent stated others, which include part-time job facility, upper age limit to enter the office and special training.

5.4.12 Employed Women By Family Type:

Women living in a joint or nuclear family have some effect on their employment. In some cases, nuclear family is regarded as good, since women may set suitable environment in such a family, by which they get greater chances of establishing their wills. But in some other cases joint family is good. In the Nepalese case there is a problem of baby care center. Women have the responsibility of rearing and caring the babies. In the absence of baby care center women have to face the problem to go outside the home. In a joint family there may be some other family members who may take care of the small children in absence of their mother and women can join the office even when they have small babies at home.

Table 5.41:

Distribution of Employed Women According to Family Type

Respondents	Family Type		Total
	Joint	Nuclear	
Frequency	227	222	449
Percentage	50.56	49.44	100

Source: Field Survey

It was found that the percentage of women living in a joint family was slightly higher than the percentage of women living in a nuclear family. This shows that the family type did not hinder women from working outside the home.

5.4.13 Employed Women and Dual Role:

The entry of women into the labour force gives rise to a conflict between two roles - that of a housewife and an earner. By tradition and custom the role of a women in society has been that of a daughter, a wife, and a mother. In this traditional setting, it was very difficult for a woman to seek a change in their roles. Even if they sought changes, these would be slow in coming. The girls have to assist their mother in all household jobs before and after school hours. Similarly, women in addition to their regular household work have the burden of pregnancy, childbirth,

breast-feeding, taking care of children due to frequent illness and maintaining custom and culture. All these factors did not permit women to be engaged in outside jobs.

Due to the modernization, recently in urban areas most of the communities and the families permitted women to enjoy greater privilege in the matter of employment and social intercourse. With the changes, the women seek to change their roles from mere housewives to earner- housewives/ daughters. However, women have to play the dual roles – home manager/ worker and earner. The household burden for women was even more in a joint family. Therefore, a question was asked to the women employees living in joint families whether they were facing difficulties in carrying the dual roles household job and of outside jobs as earners.

Table 5.42:

Perception of the Employed Women living in a Joint Family Regarding Their Dual Role

Respondents	Difficulties in Carrying the Dual Role		No. respondents living in a joint family
	Yes	No	
Frequency	109	118	227
Percentage	48.01	51.98	100

Source: Field Survey

Table 5.43:

**Types of Difficulties Encountered by
Women in Family and Society**

Difficulties	Frequency	Percentage
Heavy family work	61	42.66
Child / elderly care	29	20.27
social customs	46	32.17
Others	7	4.89
Total	143	100

Source: Field Survey

Nearly half of the respondents reported that they have to face difficulties in carrying dual responsibilities- as home manager and wage earner. But some other respondents did not face difficulties in carrying dual responsibilities. Most of the married women reported difficulties in carrying dual responsibilities. While majority of unmarried women did not find this difficulties. The types of difficulties as pointed out by respondents by order were, heavy family work 42.66 percent, social customs 32.17 percent, child/elderly care 20.27 percent and others 4.89 percent respectively (Table 6.43).

5.4.14 Employed Women and Help in Household Work:

It is a general phenomenon that a married female's main role is that of a housewife and the male's main role is that of a bread earner. In a changing society of today the women in an urban setting were performing dual roles with some help from a family member or no help from family members in performing household jobs.

Table 5.44:

**Perception of Employed Married Women Regarding
Help in Household Chores**

Respondents	Help in Household Chores		Total
	Yes	No	
Frequency	340	19	359
Percentage	94.70	5.29	100

Source: Field Survey

Table 5.45:

**Help Received by Employed Women in Household Chores from Family
Members**

Respondents	Family Member					Total
	Servant	Husband	Mother in Law	Sister/Brot- her in Law	Children	
Frequency	154	231	52	33	101	571
Percentage	26.97	40.45	9.10	5.78	17.69	100

Source: Field Survey

The level of cooperation (help in household job) by family members of an employed married woman was found to be satisfactory. In the present study it was found that 94.70 percent-married women received some help or assistance in household jobs from family members mostly from husband and servant. The percentage distribution of husband, servant, children mother-in-law, sister/brother-in-law in household jobs as reported by married women were 40.45, 26.97, 17.69, 9.10 and 5.78 respectively.

5.4.15 Employed Women and Perception of Their family Towards Their Employment:

It is very important to know about the perception of the family members, husband, father- in- law, and mother-in-law for the married women and father/ mother for the unmarried females regarding their entry into the labour force. The perception of the family members may be favorable or unfavorable. The women feel satisfaction if they get moral support from the family members.

Table 5.46:

Perception of Employed Women's Family towards Their Employment

Respondents	Perception			Total
	Good	Fair	Poor	
Frequency	320	126	3	449
Percentage	71.27	28.06	0.67	100

Source: Field Survey

The perception of the family members of the women employees towards their employment was found positive. More than 70 percent respondents reported that the perception of their family towards their employment was good, 28 percent respondents reported that the perception of their family was only fair, while 1 percent respondent reported as poor. Thus, it was clear that in urban areas most of the families were in favor of women's involvement in paid jobs, since women were exposed to the most recent trends, and they assimilated the new values. On the other hand, some families were even opposed to women's working outside, because it was against the tradition or social custom.

5.4.16 Employed Women and Their Perception Regarding Employment in Formal

Sector

It is also important to know women's own perception regarding their employment in the organized sector. In this connection, a question was asked to employed women to disclose their opinion.

Table 5.47:

**Perception of Employed Women Regarding Their
Employment in Organized Sector**

Respondents	Happy Being Employed in Formal Sector		Total
	Yes	No	
Frequency	437	12	449
Percentage	97.32	2.67	100

Source: Field Survey

Majority of women (97.32 percent) answered that they were happy being employed in a organized sector. But 2.67 percent opposed this view, since they were frustrated due to not getting promotion in time, discrimination made by the boss in assigning a job and selecting for training. Some also reported not happy due to not getting a proper job which matches with their academic qualifications.

5.4.17 Employed Women and Their Perception Regarding Government Measure:

It is necessary to maintain the proper quantitative balance between males and females in various economic activities. The orientation of society as a whole regarding the desirability that women should play an equal part in the country's development was taken as very important. Since, women's participation in various economic activities are very low it is desirable that government should take measures to improve women' s employment status.

Table 5.48:

**Perception of Employed Women Regarding Government Measures in
Improving Women's Employment**

Respondents	Government Intervention		Total
	Necessary	Not Necessary	
Frequency	425	24	449
Percentage	94.65	5.34	100

Source: Field Survey

Table 5.49:

Preference of Employed Women for Government Measures

Government Measures	Frequency (Weightage for Preference)	Percentage
Improvement in Social Environment	1514	23.86
Compulsory Secondary Education For Girls	1858	29.28
Quota System in Office	801	12.62
Special Training and Refresher Courses	1317	20.62
Loan facilities to set up Private Business	855	13.47
Total	6345	100

Source: Field Survey

It was found from the study that 94.65 percent respondents were in favor of government measures to improve women's employment and very low percentage of women employees were not in favor of any government measures. Among the different measures high preference was given to compulsory secondary education, since it is the education, which directly affects the volume of employment in organized sectors. Another preferences given by the respondents by order were, improvement in social environment, special training and refresher courses, loan facilities to set up private business and quota for females in offices. It

seems very reasonable in giving the preferences for government measures by employed women that they gave first preference to education and least preference to quota for them in the office. Once the women get empowered it is not necessary to keep quota for them, since they can enter through free competition. Similarly, it is also desirable to improve social environment from the government side also.

Besides the above-mentioned measures some respondents mentioned some other measures. Those measures were automatic transfer facility from the office to live in the area with spouse, loan facility for getting higher education, special coaching and pre- service training to enter into the office, special programs for women's empowerment and gender discrimination policy, upper age limit to enter into the job and so on. Among those mentioned preferences, some regulations like upper age limit for females to enter the job and automatic transfer facility were recently made by the government. The programs and policies of the government for women's development were discussed in the previous chapter.

Conclusion:

Development requires adequate mobilization of the human resources. The country needs proper utilization and planning of human resources in order to achieve economic development. The thrust of development in Nepal lies in the alleviation of poverty and fulfillment of basic minimum needs. Since women population constitutes half of the total population, proper mobilization of women is necessary for attaining the development goals of the country. Educated women are participating in different occupations in different organized sectors as government, teaching, INGO/ NGO and private in the Kathmandu Valley. Educational background helped them to acquire various jobs. But still their participation in professional, decision making and management job is low. Due to their dual responsibilities and low educational background, they have to face some difficulties to enter into the job market. Though, educated women were coming to participate in various jobs at present, majority of them were holding only middle and low level jobs. Top level posts are controlled and dominated by men. Among the different jobs, educated women were mostly, confined to the

teaching job. Most of the women are in the teaching sector and low level employees in government, private and INGO/NGO were not getting opportunities for in-service training, which is very necessary to provide good quality service in the organizations. Similarly, promotion to higher level posts was slower for women and even more difficult in the government sector due to unfavorable promotion policy of the civil service. The women employees did not feel that marriage really hindered their employment prospects, though they have take the dual responsibility and customs and culture comes in their way to progress. Employed married women were making adjustments between their roles as homemakers and working women. It was recorded that majority of women employees spend their income either for daily requirement of the family or better education for their children, leading to higher consumption in the urban society. It was also concluded that, though majority of women employees found no discrimination in job assignment and no harassment by male colleagues in the work place, still there was some discrimination while assigning the job between male and female employees and existence of harassment by male colleagues, which must be abolished. Similarly, still there was some discrimination in wage rate in INGO/NGO and private sectors between male and female employees for the same jobs. Those employers should avoid this.

On the whole, it is concluded that household responsibilities do not prevent most of the educated women from accepting employment in organized sectors, since they usually have some adjustments in the family. The educated women constitute a very small fraction of the total women workers, and this was mainly due to the neglect of women's education. Government should take some measures to improve women's educational status. Women's greater access to opportunities for education and training with paid employment will be effective instruments for removing social inequality, low status and dependency on men and also for increasing the volume of employment in the country.

CHAPTER VI

PERCEPTION OF EMPLOYERS, POLICY MAKERS AND EXPERTS ON WOMEN EMPLOYMENT

In this chapter employer', policy makers' and experts' views regarding women's employment have been discussed. The main purpose of this section is to ascertain the attitudes of employers, policy makers and experts towards women's employment in organized sectors, their perception regarding additional facilities for women employees, women's performance in jobs, suitable job for women and preference for government measures to improve women's employment.

The values and attitudes of different groups of people play an important role in the enhancement of women's employment. Attitude towards women's role only as ideal housewives may deprive many able women to get success in the job role.

The distribution of human capabilities varies saliently by gender. The values of gender-sensitive development index (GDI), which comprises the distribution of life expectancy, education and income among men and women show that men rank much higher than women when compared both in the global and South Asian contexts. The overall capability attainments in human development in Nepal are reduced by approximately one- sixth if disparity in men and women's capability attainments is taken into account (Nepal Human Development Report, 1998).

Employment of women is regarded at present as crucial and indispensable to the process of development itself. Social composition as well as economic growth affect women's integration in the development process. The labour-force participation by females is however, determined by the country's economic situation as well as the social and cultural set-up. Thus, any appraisal of women's economic roles and their opportunities for participation in organized sectors cannot be done in isolation of the society's stage of development, the socio- cultural attitudes towards women's role in the family and in the wider society and the social ideology

concerning basic components of status (ICSSR, 1975, p.59). Hence, the study and knowledge of attitude towards women's employment from different concerned groups is essential. As female's participation is determined by the interaction of individual's decision in offering the job, experts and decision makers decision on integrating women into developmental policies the present chapter seeks to know the employers', policy makers' and experts' attitudes regarding women's employment.

6.1 Perception of Respondents Regarding Women's Employment:

6.1.1 Respondents' Views Regarding Women's Employment in the Organized Sector:

For overall development, including the economic growth of countrywomen's participation in economic activities is equally important. However, economic and developmental literature has remained extremely unsure of their conceptual footing in relation to the theme of women and participation in developmental activities. The human development literature lays emphasis on universals, end measures and agency- achievement, which make a potentially rich instrument to capture the predicaments and deprivations of women. The construction of allied gender-sensitive human development measures, e. g. GDI and GEM, which capture the levels of capabilities and deprivations among women and explicitly or implicitly compare them against those for men, also render it more sensitive to gender disparities. Incorporation of these conceptual emphasis into policy frames at various levels of organization of social life and in employment organization would not only contribute to a reduction of gender disparities but also would lead to an overall enhancement of human capabilities including women capabilities (UNDP, 1998).

Table.6.1:

**Perception of Respondents Regarding Women's
Employment in the Organized Sector**

Perception	Frequency	Percentage
Positive	57	100
Negative	-	-

Source: Field Survey

Opinions regarding the employment of women in the organized sector were asked from the respondents and it was found that cent percent respondents held positive views regarding their employment in the organized sector. All the respondents were of the view that women's participation is equally important.

6.1.2 Perception of Respondents Regarding Women's Involvement in Economic Development:

The status of any given section of population in society is intimately connected with its economic position, which depends on rights, roles and opportunities for participation in economic activities. 'Woman' is an important limb of human society, both qualitatively and quantitatively. Therefore, participation of women in economic development is equally important as that of men. In the study all the respondents agree that women also form a part of human resources and they should involved in the economic development of a country.

Table 6.2:

**Perception of Respondents Regarding Importance of Women's Involvement in
Economic Development**

Importance of women's employment	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	57	100
No	-	-

Source: Field Study

Thus the opinions expressed by the respondents on involving women in economic development activities are very encouraging. All the employers, policy makers and experts were found in favor of women's participation in economic

development activities including their involvement in gainful employment in organized sectors.

6.2. Perception of Respondents Regarding Jobs Suitable for Women:

Today besides, playing the role of housewives women actively contribute to the promotion of economic development in different capacities namely as laborers, officers, technocrats, executive heads, sales women, business women, teachers etc. Their work is not only confined to family and household chores but is also extended to fields, factories, offices, laboratories, educational institutions business activities and so on.

In the organized sector right man/ woman in the right place may provide overall output. But there is a myth regarding suitable jobs for women that women are best fitted for such and such job only. Thus opinions were collected from employers, policy makers and experts on whether women are best fitted for some specified jobs or whether they can perform any types of job as men can.

Table 6.3:

Perception of Respondents Regarding the Job Most Suitable for Women

Suitable Job	Frequency	Percentage
Can perform all types of job	18	31.58
Decision making & management	4	7.01
Teaching	26	45.61
Technical	5	8.77
Secretarial and clerk	1	1.75
Others- business, public relation, travel & tourism etc.	3	5.26
Total	57	100

Source: Field Study

Majority of the respondents were of the view that there are some specified jobs in organized sectors which are better suited to women or in other words which women can handle more comfortably. However, 31.58 percent respondents were of

the opinion that women can do all types of job if they were given a chance. Among those who gave the opinion that some jobs are best suited for women, 45.61 percent pointed out the teaching job, 8.7 percent regarded the technical jobs, 7.01 percent regarded decision making and management-related jobs, 5.26 percent viewed other jobs like business, public-relation related, travel and tourism etc., and 1.75 percent indicated as secretarial and clerical job.

6.2.1 Perception of Respondents Regarding Women's Performance in Job:

Employers can better evaluate Work performance. Besides, the attitudes of policy makers and experts are also equally important in this matter.

Table 6.4:

Perception of Respondents Regarding Women's Performance in Job

Perception	Frequency	Percentage
Better	6	10.53
Equal	35	61.40
Not equal	13	22.80
Not Comparable	3	5.26
Total	57	100

Source: Field Study

Evidently majority of respondents stated that woman's job performance is equal to that of men. There is a general perception on the part of the employers, policy makers and experts that both women and men can do the job without any differences in their work efficiency. However, some respondents were of the view that men and women's work performance cannot be comparable, since in some jobs women's work performance is better and in some jobs men can do better. The work performance depends upon the nature and types of job and the person's interest in the job. Some respondents found women's work performance as better, since they are polite, sincere, and they have patience. But 22.80 percent respondents were of the view that women's work performance is not equal to that of men. The

respondents with this view stated that the main reason for low work performance of women is their dual responsibility at home and in the office. Due to their dual responsibility women cannot give full attention to their job. Some respondents (7.61 percent) also mentioned that women are less efficient. However, there was minority of respondents who thinks that the efficiency of women is lower than that of men.

Table 6.5:

Reasons for Not Equal in Work Performance

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
Women are less energetic	-	-
Women are less efficient	1	7.69
Women were not Trained	-	-
Women cannot give full attention due to their dual responsibility	11	84.62
Others	1	7.69
Total	13	13

Source: Field Survey

It was found that women's work performance in organized sectors is found as good as that of males or in some cases better. However, it is not wise to gender the work performance. Work performance of an employee is depends upon the person's performance, education and training, whether a male or a female' and sometimes with the type and nature of work, working environment and motivation to work. Again, if a person gets interested in the job or if it is a job of his/ her field, his/ her work performance may be excellent and vice-versa. Similarly, sometimes, work performance also depends upon the incentives provided by the organization or by the employer.

6.2.2. Respondents View Regarding Additional Facilities for Women in Work Place:

Women's work participation in organized sectors is low due to the problems arising from the legal, social, economic and political status of women. Characteristic of this status is a fundamental ambiguity between the theoretical equality of rights and effective discrimination in their application. Besides, due to the dual responsibilities of women and their biological and physical needs it is necessary for them to provide some additional facilities so that they may work conveniently.

Table 6.6:

**Perception of Respondents Regarding Additional Facilities for the Women
Employees**

Perception	Frequency	Percentage
Needed	53	92.99
Not needed	4	7.01
Total	57	100

Source: Field Survey

A question was asked to the respondents regarding their opinion about additional facilities for women employees in work place. It was found that 92.99 percent respondents were in favor of additional facilities for women due to their physical need and dual responsibility.

**6.2.3 Respondents View Regarding Discrimination in Job Assignment for
Female Employees:**

Earlier in chapter five some women employees had stated that there is a discrimination made in assigning the job in the organization. So a question to this effect was asked to the employers, policy makers and experts.

Table 6.7:

**Perception of Respondents Regarding Existence of Discrimination in Job
Assignment**

Perception	Frequency	Percentage
Discrimination Exists	30	52.63
Discrimination does not Exist	26	45.61
Not Certain	1	1.75
Total	57	100

Source: Field Survey

More than 50 percent respondents agree that there is discrimination made in job assignment for male and female employees. However 45.61 percent respondents did not agree with this view and 1.75 percent respondent stated that they are not certain about it. However, in some cases as in night jobs or for late overtime work in the evening and in field based jobs mostly male employees were assigned and in some jobs women were better preferred.

6.3 Perception of Respondents With Respect to Government Measures:

6.3.1 Respondents View Regarding Government Measures for Improving Women's Employment:

"Human development consists in the development of the people for the people by the people. Development of the people means investing in human capabilities, whether in education or health or skills, so that they can work productively and creatively. Development for the people means ensuring that the economic growth they generate is distributed widely and fairly. Development by the people means giving every one a chance to participate " (Nepal HDR, UNDP, 1998).

Employment promotion for women from the government sector is necessary, since it is intimately related with human development. Work and employment not only provide women key avenues for the use of existing capabilities but enhance

their personality as well as their potentialities also. Similarly, work opportunities are fundamental to females in order to bring out their collective creativity and strengthen their self- respect.

Table 6.8:
Respondents' Views Regarding Government Measures for Improving women's Employment

Perception	Frequency	Percentage
Govt. Measures Needed	56	98.24
Not needed	1	1.75

Source: Field Study

Majority of the respondents (98.24 Percent) agrees with the view that government measures or intervention is necessary for improving women's employment. But only 1.75 percent respondents did not agree with that and they were of the opinion that government measures should necessary to improve employment in general both for males and females.

Conclusion:

It can be concluded that all of the respondents in the study agree with the view that contribution of women for economic development is equally important. The employers, policy makers and the experts did not isolate women from development. Majority of the respondents stated teaching as the most suitable job for women, since in that job women's performance is better and women themselves want to join the teaching job. Likewise, majority of the respondents found women's work performance better than or equal to that of men's works performance. The women employees were honest, diligent and sincere in work, but in some cases women employees hesitate to accept to work overtime before and after office hours and they have lack of mobility in job due to lack of personal security and greater household responsibility. But in many cases employers themselves do not assign overtime and mobile job to women. So the myth that women lack mobility and that they hesitate to accept overtime job seems to be based on presumption only rather than on reality. However, the sex differences in work performance are hardly true. In

performing a job it is not the sex factor, which determines the performance, it is the capability, knowledge, skill, motivational factor, interesting type of job etc. which affects work performance of both the sexes. From the study it was also found that majority of the respondents recommend some additional facilities like leave before and after delivery, baby care center, physical facility, transportation facility to be provided for women employees. Similarly, since, there is a low participation of women in gainful employment the government should take some measures to improve women's employment level. In this connection as majority of respondents stated there should be free compulsory secondary education facility for the girls, so that they may get a greater level of empowerment to take independent decisions and to stand on their own legs.

CHAPTER VII

WOMEN EMPLOYMENT IN ORGANIZED SECTORS OF KATHMANDU VALLEY: AN EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

This chapter is divided into two parts. Part I analyses the perception of female employees regarding different aspects of their employment. Part II examines the perception of employers, policy makers and experts regarding their views on women's employment.

7.1 Views of Women Employees:

7.1.1 General:

This empirical study is based on a semi-structured questionnaire survey which was collected from 449 women employees of organized sectors of the Kathmandu valley. The survey was conducted in order to find out the socio-economic background of women employees, their employment structure and record, problems of women employees and their views regarding additional facilities at work for them and preference for government measures to improve women's employment in general. The survey was carried out from August 1, 1997 to December 1997. The sample questionnaire and the list of offices where the questionnaires were administered to women employees are given in Annex D. The information received from the responding women including their significance of relationship or difference are discussed in this chapter with cross sectional tables and the results of Spearman's Rho's rank correlation coefficient, chi-square test of independence and Phi-correlation coefficient respectively as the nature of the data permits.

7.1.2 Interrelationship between Education and Job:

There was a significant correlation between education and job. From the study, it was found that majority of higher level and middle level women employees educational background was stated as bachelor level and above. On the other hand, majority of beginning level employees' educational background was intermediate

level and some have bachelor level. Thus this indicates that there is a positive correlation between education and level of employment (Table 7.1).

Table 7.1:

Distribution of Employed Women by Level of Employment and Educational Attainment

Level of Employment	Educational Attainment					Total
	S.L.C.	Intermediate	Bachelor	Master	Ph. D.	
Higher Level	-	-	4	18	12	34
	-	-	11.76%	52.94%	35.29%	100%
Middle Level	-	11	80	177	5	273
	-	4.03%	29.30%	64.83%	1.83%	100%
Low Level	11	48	62	21	-	142
	7.7%	33.8%	43.7%	14.8%	-	100%
Total	11	59	146	216	17	449
	2.4%	13.1%	32.5%	48.2%	3.6%	100%

Source: Field Survey

Test of Hypothesis- 1: Here the null hypothesis was:

Ho - "There is no association between educational qualification and level of employment"

The computed chi- square value was 255.85, and the tabulated value at 5 percent level of significance with 3 degree of freedom was 7.815. Since, the computed value is greater than the tabular value the null hypothesis is rejected. It can be concluded that there is evidence for a significant association between level of education and level of employment.

7.1.3 Level of Education and Salary:

It was found from the study that the women with higher level educational background were earning more than the women with less educational background. The highly educated women were able to get higher level employment and hence

could draw high salary. Thus there is a positive correlation between education and job and education and salary. In the study majority of women with SLC and Intermediate educational background were drawing salary between the range Rs.3000-39000, while majority of women with bachelor level educational background were drawing salary between Rs.4000-4900 and Rs. 5000-9900. Similarly, majority of women who received Master and Ph. D. were drawing salary between 5000-9900, which is the maximum net salary for the highest level posts in government, teaching and public institutions. There is no hard and fast rule in private institutions and INGOs/ NGOs. The pay- scale in those institutions is different from that of government and teaching institutions. However, highly educated women were getting more attractive salary in those institutions also.

Table 7.2:

Distribution of Employed Women by Educational Attainment and Level of Income

Level of Education	Level of income (current net salary in Rs.)					Confidential & Not Applicable	Total
	2000-2900	3000-3900	4000-4900	5000-9900	10000-30000		
S.L.C.	5 45.45%	5 45.45%	1 9.1%	- -	- -	- -	11 100%
Intermediate	18 29.51%	22 36.06%	10 16.4%	6 9.83%	4 6.56%	1 1.64%	61 100%
Bachelor	20 13.69%	36 24.66%	38 26.02%	38 26.02%	13 8.9%	1 0.68%	146 100%
Master	5 2.38%	14 6.67%	53 25.24%	118 56.2%	12 5.71%	8 3.80%	210 100%
Ph.D.	- -	- -	2 9.52%	18 85.71%	- -	1 4.76%	21 100%
Total	48 10.69%	77 17.15%	104 23.16%	180 40.08%	29 6.46%	11 2.45%	449 100%

Source: Field Survey

Test of Hypothesis 2: Here the null hypothesis was:

Ho - "There is no association between educational qualification and level of income"

The computed chi- square value is 89.141 and the tabulated value with 5 percent level of significance for 10 degree of freedom is 9.488, which leads to the rejection of null hypothesis. Thus it is concluded that there is a positive and significant association between educational background and level of income.

7.1.4 Level of Employment and Income:

It was found from the study that majority of high and middle level employees were earning a monthly income from the attached institutions in the range of Rs.5000-9900, where as majority of low level employees were earning in the range of Rs.3000-3900 only. Thus as the level of employment goes up the income level also goes up (Table 7.3).

Table 7.3:

Distribution of Employed Women According to Income and Level of Employment

Level of Employment	Income (net current salary in Rs.)						Total
	2000-2900	3000-3900	4000-4900	5000-9900	10000-30000	Confidential & not Applicable	
Higher level	-	-	-	29	2	3	34
	-	-	-	85.3%	5.8%	8.9%	100%
Middle level	-	14	93	139	21	6	273
	-	5.1%	34%	50.9%	7.7%	2.3%	100%
Low level	50	59	11	12	7	3	142
	35.21%	41.5%	7.7%	8.6%	4.9%	2.1%	100%
Total	50	73	104	180	30	12	449
	11.13%	16.3%	23.2%	40%	6.7%	2.7%	100%

Source: Field Survey

Test of hypothesis 3: Here the null hypothesis was:

Ho - "There is no association between level of employment and level of income."

The computed chi-square value was 286.64 and the tabulated value at 5 percent level of significance was 18.307. The result of this test allows rejection of

null hypothesis. It can be concluded that with the increase in the level of employment level of income goes up.

7.1.4 Level of Employment and Training:

It was found from the study that majority of high-level women employees received training compared to low level women employees. The percentage of women employees receiving training increases with the increase in the level of employment (Table 7.4).

Table7.4:

Distribution of Employed Women According to Training Received and Level of Employment

Level of Employment	Training Received		Total
	Yes	No	
Higher Level	26 76.47%	8 23.53%	34 100%
Middle Level	182 66.67%	91 33.33%	273 100%
Low Level	75 52.82%	67 47.18%	142 100%
Total	284 63.3%	166 36.97%	449 100%

Source: Field Survey

Test of hypothesis 4: Here the null hypothesis was:

Ho - " Employment level is independent of Training"

The computed chi-square value was found as 10.949, where as the tabulated

Value at 5 percent level of significance with 2 degree of freedom was 5.991. Since the computed chi- square value is higher and highly significant the null hypothesis is

rejected. It can be concluded that there is an association between training and level of employment.

7.1.5 Level of Employment and Reason's for Working:

The findings of the study showed that the main reasons for working as stated by women employees were for career advancement and to become independent. However, different level women employees stated different reasons for their working. The high and middle level employees stated the main reason as career advancement, while the low-level employees stated the main first reason as to become independent. The percentage of women employees, who stated the main reason for working as to pass and utilize time, is less than 2 percent in all the three levels. But the significant middle and low-level women employees also stated the reason as economic necessity. For the high level employees this reason was not very significant as only 5.08 percent in this category stated this reason for their working (Table 7.5).

Table 7.5:

Distribution of Employed Women by Level and Reasons for Working

Employment Level

Reasons	Higher Level (N=34)	Middle Level (N=273)	Low Level (N=142)	Total (N=449)
Career Advancement	26 44.06%	149 32.18%	48 20.78%	223 29.61%
Economic Necessity	3 5.08%	74 15.98%	43 18.61%	120 15.93%
Utilize Education	11 18.64%	93 20.08%	45 19.48%	149 19.79%
Have a good Status in Society	4 6.78%	30 6.48%	15 6.49%	49 6.50%
To pass and utilize time	1 1.7%	6 1.3%	3 1.3%	10 1.33%
To become independent	14 23.73%	111 23.97%	77 33.33%	202 26.82%
Total	59 100%	463 100%	231 100%	753 100%

Source: Field Survey

Test of Hypothesis 5: Here the null Hypothesis was:

Ho - "There is no significant association between reason for working for different level of women employees"

The computed chi-square value is 331.342 and the corresponding tabular value at 5 percent level of significance with 10 degree of freedom is 18.307. The result of the test allows rejection of the null hypothesis. Thus, it can be concluded that the reasons stated by different levels of women employees were not similar and there is a significant difference of opinion. In other words, the reason for work varies by employment level.

7.1.6 Length of Service and Promotion:

factors the number of service years i.e. seniority and experience is one of the major factors

There is an

for getting promotion in organized sectors. It was found in the study that 87 percent women employees who completed service years of 1- 4 did not get a single promotion, while majority of the women with long service years get promotion at least once (Table 7.6).

Table 7.6:

**Distribution of Employed Women by Length
of Service and Promotion**

	Completed Service Year in Present Organization					Total
	1-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-25	
No promotion	94 43.72%	42 19.53%	38 17.67%	27 12.56%	14 6.51%	215 100%
<u>Promotion:</u>						
One time	11 7.05%	14 8.97%	32 20.51%	39 25%	60 38.46%	156 100%
Two times	3 4.76%	4 6.35%	5 7.94%	10 15.87%	41 65.08%	63 100%
Three times	- -	- -	1 9.09%	- -	10 90.91%	11 100%
Four times	- -	- -	- -	- -	4 100%	4 100%
Total	108 24.05%	60 13.36%	76 16.93%	76 16.93%	129 28.73%	449 100%

Source: Field Survey

Test of Hypothesis 6: Here the null Hypothesis was:

Ho - "There is no association between number of service year and promotion times"

The phi-correlation co-efficient is found as .5629, which shows a high level of significance. The computed chi- square value was 182. 798. The tabulated value at 5 percent level of significance was 26.296. The result of both tests permits the

rejection of null hypothesis. Thus it can be concluded that the degree of association or relationship between completed service years and promotion times was significant.

7.1.7 Preference for Government Measures to Improve Women's Employment:

In ranking the preference for the government measures the responding women expressed their preferences as follows:

Table 7.7:

**Distribution of Employed Women According to the Preference for
Government Measures to Improve Women's Employment
(Rankwise Number of Responses and Overall Rank)**

Rankwise no. of Responses

Preferences	1	2	3	4	5	Total Responses	Wegtd. Value	Wegtd. Mean	Overall Rank
1. Higher Level:									
a. Improvement in social environment-	3	4	5	11	9	32	115	3.59	2
b. Compulsory secondary education for the girls-	2	-	4	9	17	32	135	4.22	1
c. Quota system in office-	16	6	6	1	3	32	65	2.03	5
d. Special training & refresher courses-	1	8	14	8	1	32	96	3	3
e. Interest free loan to set up private business-	10	13	3	3	3	32	72	2.25	4
2. Middle Level:									
a. Improvement in social environment-	13	37	45	101	65	261	951	3.64	2
b. Compulsory secondary education for the girls-	2	7	25	28	159	261	998	3.82	1
c. Quota system in office-	154	43	28	23	13	261	481	1.84	5
d. Special training & refresher courses-	12	45	126	56	22	261	814	3.12	3
e. Interest free loan to set up private business	79	128	39	13	2	261	514	1.97	4
3. Low Level:									
a. Improvement in social environment-	9	19	26	44	34	132	471	3.57	2
b. Compulsory secondary education for the girls-	3	4	10	37	78	132	579	4.38	1
c. Quota system in office-	73	22	19	8	10	132	256	1.94	5
d. Special training & refresher courses-	2	35	54	33	8	132	406	3.07	3
e. Interest free loan to set up private business-	46	51	23	10	2	132	267	2.57	4
4. 4.All Level:									
a. Improvement in social environment-	25	60	76	156	108	425	1537	3.62	2
b. Compulsory secondary education for the girls-	7	11	39	74	254	425	1712	4.03	1
c. Quota system in office-	243	71	53	32	26	425	802	1.89	5
d. Special training & refresher courses-	15	88	194	97	31	425	1316	3.09	3
e. Interest free loan to set up private business-	376	192	65	26	7	425	1094	2.57	4

Source: Field Survey

Note: The weightage mean with smallest value is most important.

Stated Rank by Women Employees

Particulars	Higher Level	Middle Level	Low Level
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Improvement in social Environment	Second	Second	Second
Compulsory secondary education for the girls	First	First	First
Quota system in office	Fifth	Fifth	Fifth
Special training and refresher courses	Third	Third	Third
Interest free loan to set up private business	Fourth	Fourth	Fourth

Source: Field Survey

From the above list it was found that the overall first rank given by the respondents regarding the government measure to improve women's employment was for the compulsory secondary education for the girls. Similarly, the second, third, fourth and fifth ranks given by respondents by order were improvement in social environment, special training and refresher courses, loan facility to set up private business and quota for the females to get entry into the office. The breakdown of respondents is shown in the Table 7. 7. It is also clear that there is no variance in ideas between higher, middle and low level employees regarding preference for government measures to improve women's employment in general.

Test of Hypothesis 7: Here the null hypothesis was:

Ho - "The opinions of different levels of women employees in ranking the preference for government measures to improve women's employment are independent".

The computed value of R1, R2 and R3 was 1. This value indicates a high degree of agreement among the different levels of women employees in ranking the preference of government measures to improve women's employment. Thus the null hypothesis is rejected. It can be concluded that there is a perfect agreement between all the three levels of women employees.

Conclusion:

In conclusion, it can be said that there is a correlation between educational qualification and level of employment. Education is the main factor, which affects

the level of employment and the level of income. Likewise as employment goes up women could get the training opportunity, which shows that training depends upon employment level. It also indicates that most of the training are in the form of in-service training rather than of pre-service training. Similarly, women's reason for working was significantly different for different employment levels. Likewise, women's promotion times depend upon the length of service. There was a positive correlation between women's promotion and length of service in the institution. Finally, women's employment should be improved, since still they lag behind men. Majorities of women employees have also the opinion that government should take some measures in this regard. All the three level women have a perfect agreement in ranking the preference for government measures. All the three levels have given first rank to the compulsory secondary education for the girls and last rank to the quota for the girls. Thus it was clear that education is the main important factor, which affect the employment of women in organized sectors. On the basis of research findings it can be concluded that once women are educated they could be able to participate in economic activity and there is no need for special quota for them to enter the organized sector.

7. 2 Views of Employers, Policy Makers and Experts:

7.2.1 General

This part of empirical study is based on the semi-structured questionnaire survey collected from 57 employers, policy makers and concerned experts to find out their opinions regarding various aspects of women employment including suitable job for women, women's job performance, additional facilities for women employees and government measures to improve women's employment. The survey lasted from May 1998 to July 1998. A sample of opinion questionnaire and the list of respondents from this group are given in Annex C and Annex D.

The opinions of the responding employers, policy makers and experts including their significance of relationship or difference are discussed in this section with statistical tables and the results of chi-square test and spearman's Rho's rank correlation.

7.2.2 Jobs Most Suitable for Women:

Different groups of respondents have different opinions regarding the jobs most suitable for women. About 31 percent respondents are of the view that women and men are equal and women also can perform all types of jobs, if they were given the chance. However, majority of respondents are of view that teaching is the best suited job for women, since women were performing the teaching job perfectly (Table 7.8).

Table 7.8:

Perception of Employers, Policy Makers and Experts Regarding the Job Most Suitable for Women

Suitable job	Employers	Policy Makers	Experts	Total
All types of job	7 22.58%	6 42.86%	5 41.67%	18 31.58%
Decision making & Management	3 9.68%	1 7.14%	- -	4 7.02%
Teaching	15 48.39%	5 35.71%	6 50%	26 45.61%
Technical	4 12.90%	1 7.14%	- -	5 8.77%
Secretarial & clerical	- -	1 7.14%	- -	1 1.75%
Others- Hotel Related, Travel & Tours, Entrepreneur etc.	2 6.45%	- -	1 8.33%	3 5.26%
Total	31 100%	14 100%	12 100%	57 100%

Source: Field Survey

Test of hypothesis 8: Here the null hypothesis was:

Ho - "There is no significant difference between different groups of respondents regarding suitable job for women"

The computed chi-square value was found as 46.016. The tabulated value at 5 percent significant level with 10 degree of freedom was 18.307, which show the high level of significance and thus serves to reject the null hypothesis. Thus, it can be concluded that the difference between the opinions of responding groups with respect to the job suitable for women was significant.

7.2.3 Women's Job Performance:

Majority of the respondents from employers, policy maker and experts agreed that women's job performance is equal to that of men in organization. But some respondents did not agree with this view, since even employed women have the responsibility of house management. Due to the dual responsibility at home and in office women could not give full attention to their job only, hence their work performance cannot be equal to that of men. It is interesting to note here that some respondents were of the view that women's work performance is better compared to that of men. In many cases women have patience, they are polite and sincere and hence their work performance is found better.

Table 7.9:

Perception of Respondents Regarding Women's Performance in Job

Perception	Employer	Policy Maker	Expert	Total
Better	4 12.90 %	1 7.14%	1 8.33%	6 10.53%
Equal	14 45.16%	11 78.57%	10 83.33%	35 61.40%
Not Equal	10 32.26%	2 14.28%	1 8.33%	13 22.81%
Not Comparable	3 9.67%	- -	- -	3 5.26%
Total	31 100%	14 100%	12 100%	57 100%

Source: Field Survey

Test of Hypothesis 9: Here the null hypothesis was:

Ho - " There is no significant association between different groups of respondents

regarding women's performance in job."

The computed chi-square value was 7.920 and the tabular value at 5 percent level of significance with 6 degree of freedom was 12.592. The results of the test allow acceptance of the null hypothesis. It can be concluded that the opinions of three responding groups with respects to the women's performance in job were significantly different.

7.2.4 Additional Facilities for Employed Women:

It was found that majority of the respondents have the opinion that women should be provided with some additional facilities in the office. In this regard the views of responding groups are given as below:

Table 7.10:

**Perception of Respondents Regarding Their Preference of Additional Facilities
for Employed Women**

(Rankwise Number of Responses and Overall Rank)

Rankwise No. of Responses

Preferences	1	2	3	4	5	6	Total Resp.	Weigtd. Value	Weigtd Mean	Overall Rank
1. Employer:										
a. Baby care center	-	1	1	7	14	5	28	133	4.75	2
b. Quota for promotion	6	3	2	1	-	-	28	22	0.78	6
c. Special Training	2	8	9	2	2	3	28	81	2.89	4
d. Additional Leave facility before and after delivery	-	1	-	4	6	17	28	150	5.36	1
e. Extension of age limit to enter into the job	5	4	9	7	1	-	28	73	2.60	5
f. Others	1	8	4	6	6	3	28	101	3.61	3
2. Policy Maker:										
a. Baby care center	-	1	2	2	3	5	13	61	4.69	1
b. Quota for promotion	3	1	1	1	2	-	13	22	1.69	5
c. Special Training	2	2	2	2	4	1	13	46	3.53	2
d. Additional Leave facility before and after delivery	-	1	2	2	3	5	13	61	4.69	1
e. Extension of age limit to enter into the job	4	2	4	1	1	1	13	37	2.84	3
g. Others	1	7	1	4	-	-	13	34	2.61	4
3. Experts:										
a. Baby care center	-	-	-	1	7	4	12	63	5.25	1
b. Quota for promotion	4	-	1	1	-	-	12	13	1.08	6
c. Special Training	-	1	4	4	2	1	12	48	4.0	3
d. Additional Leave facility before and after delivery	-	1	1	1	2	6	12	55	4.58	2
e. Extension of age limit to enter into the job	-	4	2	3	1	-	12	21	1.75	5
f. Others	1	5	3	2	-	-	12	28	2.33	4
All Respondents:										
a. Baby care center	-	2	3	10	24	14	53	257	4.85	1
b. Quota for promotion	13	4	4	3	2	-	53	57	1.07	6
c. Special Training	6	11	15	8	8	5	53	175	3.30	2
d. Additional Leave facility before and after delivery	2	4	3	7	30	24	53	123	2.32	5
e. Extension of age limit to enter into the job	9	10	15	11	2	1	53	131	2.47	4
f. Others	3	20	8	12	6	3	53	163	3.07	3

Source: Field Survey

Note: The weighted mean with the smallest value is the most important

Stated rank by Respondents

Particulars	Employers (R1)	Policy Makers (R2)	Experts (R3)
Baby care center	Second	First	First
Quota for promotion	Sixth	Fifth	Sixth
Special training facility	Fourth	Second	Third
Additional leave facility before and after delivery	First	First	Second
Extension of age limit to enter into the job	Fifth	Third	Fifth
Others	Third	Fourth	Fourth

Source: Field Survey

The above list showed that employers gave first rank to "additional leave facility before and after delivery" for women employees, while the experts gave first rank to "baby care center." The policy makers gave equal first rank to "baby care center" and "additional leave facility before and after delivery." However, all the three responding groups gave last rank to quota for women for promotion. There was a slight difference of opinion regarding "special training" between employers and experts and "extension of age limit" between policy makers, employers and experts. Similarly, regarding other facilities for women like transportation, physical facilities, etc. both the policy makers and experts gave the same fourth rank, while the employers gave the third rank for that.

Test of Hypothesis 10: Here the null hypothesis was:

Ho - "The opinions of employers, policy makers and experts in ranking preference

for additional facilities for women are independent".

The computed value of R1 and R2 was 0.68, of R2 and R3 0.8 and R1 and of R3 0.92. The tabulated value for N=6 were 0.83. It can be said that there was not a significant agreement between views of employers and policy makers and policy

makers and experts, while there was a significant agreement between the employers and experts in ranking the additional facilities for women at work place.

7.2.5 Government Measure to Improve Women's Employment:

Almost all the respondents agree that the government should take some measures to improve women's employment, since women's employment in organized sectors is very low. The ranks given by three groups of respondents are as given below:

Table 7.11:

**Perception of Respondents Regarding the Preference for Government
Measures to Improve Women's Employment
(Rankwise Number of Respondents and Overall Rank)**

Rankwise no. of Responses

Preferences	1	2	3	4	5	Total Resp.	Wegtd. Value	Wegtd. Mean	Overall Rank
1. Employer:									
a. Improvement in social environment	-	2	3	16	9	30	122	4.06	2
b. Compulsory secondary education for the girls	-	-	3	7	20	30	137	4.56	1
c. Quota system in office	19	3	1	-	1	30	33	1.1	5
d. Special training & refresher courses	3	10	12	3	2	30	81	2.7	4
e. Interest free loan to set up private business	2	16	9	3	-	30	73	2.43	3
2. Policy Maker:									
a. Improvement in social environment	2	1	2	3	6	14	52	4.33	1
b. Compulsory secondary education for the girls	1	1	2	3	7	14	56	4.0	2
c. Quota system in office	6	2	1	1	-	14	17	1.2	5
d. Special training & refresher courses	-	2	8	4	-	14	44	3.14	3
e. Interest free loan to set up private business	2	8	1	2	1	14	34	2.42	4
3. Expert:									
a. Improvement in social environment	2	1	4	9	3	12	53	4.42	2
b. Compulsory secondary education for the girls	1	-	-	5	9	12	57	4.75	1
c. Quota system in office	7	1	1	3	-	12	12	1	5
d. Special training & refresher courses	1	-	7	4	-	12	38	3.16	3
e. Interest free loan to set up private business	1	10	1	-	-	12	24	2	4
All Respondents:									
a. Improvement in social environment	2	4	9	25	18	56	227	4.05	2
b. Compulsory secondary education for the girls	1	1	5	13	36	56	250	4.46	1
c. Quota system in office	32	6	3	1	1	56	62	1.10	5
d. Special training & refresher courses	4	12	27	11	2	56	163	2.91	3
e. Interest free loan to set up private business	5	34	11	5	1	56	131	2.33	4

Note: The weighted mean with smallest value is the most important.

Stated Rank by Respondents

Particulars	Employer	Policy Maker	Expert
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Improvement in social environment	Second	First	Second
Compulsory secondary education for the girls	First	Second	First
Quota system in office	Fifth	Fifth	Fifth
Special training and refresher courses	Fourth	Third	Third
Interest free loan to set up private business	Third	Fourth	Fourth

Source: Field Survey

It was found that the opinions of three groups of respondents in preferring various measures by government are slightly different.

The employers and the experts gave first rank to "compulsory secondary education for the girls", while the policy makers gave first preference to "Improvement in social environment". All the three groups of respondents gave third preference to "special training and refresher courses. Similarly, their fourth and fifth preferences were" loan facilities to set up private business and "quota system in office" respectively. The breakdown of responses by different groups of respondents is given in Table 7.11.

Test of Hypothesis 11: Here the null hypothesis was:

Ho- " The opinions of employers, policy makers and experts in ranking different measures by government to improve women's employment in general are independent"

The computed value of R1 and R2 was 0.8, R2 and R3 and R1 and R3 were 0.5 each. Since those values were less than tabulated value, which was 0.83 (for N=5), null hypothesis is accepted. Thus it can be concluded that there is not a significant agreement between the three respondent groups in ranking the preference for the government measures to improve women's employment in organized sectors.

7.2.6 Concluding Remarks:

The conclusion can be drawn from the above empirical analysis that on the whole the employers, policy makers, and experts have given similar opinion with regard to various aspects of women employment. However, there was a significant difference between three respondent groups with respect to suitable jobs for women. But there was no significant difference of opinions between three groups of respondents regarding women's work performance in job. With respect to additional facilities for women the significant agreement was not found between employers and policy makers and policy makers and experts, while, there was a significant agreement between employers and experts. Similarly, with respect to the preference for government measures to improve women's employment there was not a significant agreement between the three responding groups.

Table 7.12:

Results of Chi- Square Test

	Com- puted Value	Tabular χ^2 Value at 5 % Significance Level	Degree of Freedom	Decision Ho
Part I:				
1. Interrelationship between Education and job	255.85	7.815	3	Rejected
2. Level of Education and Income(Salary)	89.141	9.488	4	Rejected
3. Level of Employment and Income	286.64	18.307	10	Rejected
4. Level of Employment and Training	10.949	5.991	2	Rejected
5. Level of Employment and Reason's for Working	331.342	18.307	10	Rejected
6. Length of Service and Promotion	182.798	26.296	16	Rejected
Part II:				
1. Job Most Suitable for Women	46.016	18.307	10	Rejected
2. Women's Job Performance	7.920	12.592	6	Accepted

Note: The difference is significant if the computed χ^2 value is greater than the tabular

value at a given level of significance.

For calculation method and tabular values see Colin Robson, (1983), "Experiment, Design and Statistics in Psychology", Penguin Books Ltd. Harmondsworth, Middlesex, England.

Table 7.13:**Results of Rank Correlation Coefficient**

	Computed Value	Tabular Value	Significant	
			Yes	No
Part I: 1. Preference for Government Measure to Improve Women's Employment	1	0.90	Yes	
Part II: 1. Additional Facilities for Employed women	R1&R2-0.68 R2&R3-0.8 R1&R3-0.92	0.83	Yes	No No No
2. Preference for Government Measures to Improve Women's Employment	R1&R2-0.8 R2&R3-0.5 R1&R3-0.5	0.83		No No No

Note: The degree of relationship is significant if the computed Rs value is equal to or more than tabular value.

For calculation method and tabular values see Colin Robson, (1983)," Experiment, Design and Statistics in Psychology", Penguin Books Ltd., Hermondsworth, Middlesex, England and Bhanu Chandra Bajracharya, (B.S. 2048), " Basic Statistics", M.K. Publishers and Distributors, Kathmandu.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Employment, income and consumption are important economic determinants of human development. The goals of development remain unfulfilled if all the potential human resources, both men and women, are not properly integrated into economic participation.

In Nepal, unemployment and underemployment have remained pronounced. The focus of the development planners, at present has been on increasing women employment in the country. But the employment opportunities for women, despite various planned efforts do not seem to have improved significantly. The socio-cultural taboos that regard men as bread winners and women as housekeepers keep women at the losing end in the labour market. Besides, the socio-cultural factor, the low level of education has pushed women to the backyard of employment opportunities.

This study is an attempt to look at the status of female education, opportunities available to women, structures of female employment and constraints faced by women in organized sectors of employment. The study covered the employment pattern in different organized sectors like government, teaching, INGO / NGO, and private enterprises. It attempted to analyze various aspects of women's employment in those organized sectors and also explore the views and opinions of employers, policy makers and experts regarding women's employment in organized sectors. Thus, the conclusions and recommendations from this study will be useful to all those interested policy makers, researchers, development planners etc. in understanding and planning the potential human resources and enhancing women's economic participation in Nepal.

Having studied the occupation and employment pattern of educated employed women in organized sectors in the Kathmandu valley, it is now possible to summarise the findings and conclusions of the study. It is also possible to examine

critically the entire issue of women employment in organized sectors and offer recommendations for improvement of employment opportunities in urban areas.

The present study has sought to examine the educational status of women in Nepal as well as the employment pattern of educated women in organized sectors and to assess the distribution of educated employed women in various sectors. An attempt was also made to investigate the distribution of women employees in various sectors. A critical appraisal was also made of the educational status of women in various levels and government policies and programmes relating to women and development and employment opportunities for women in Nepal.

8.1 Findings of the Study :

8.1.1 Human Resource Development with Respect to Status of Female Education in Nepal and Kathmandu Valley:

1. There has been considerable improvement at different levels of educational attainment by females during 1961-1991. The growth rates of female education at various levels during 1981-1991 were found as 5.1 percent at the primary level, 9.97 percent at the secondary level, 11.27 percent at the S.L.C. intermediate level and 5.87 percent at the graduate and post graduate level. The female population aged 6 years and above, who completed primary education in 1991 was 11.1 percent. Similarly the females of the same age group who completed secondary level, S.L.C. and intermediate and graduate and post-graduate were 4.97 percent, 1.31 percent and 0.23 percent respectively.
2. There is a difference between female and male ratio in educational attainment. As the level of education increases, the ratio of females to males declines progressively. At the primary level the proportion of females (per 100 males) was found as 53.5, whereas at the graduate and post graduate level it was only about 23 in 1991 census.
3. The literacy rate for females in 1991 census was 25 percent. The male/female differential in the literacy rate in 1991 census was 29.5

percent. The male-female difference in the literacy rate was lowest (27.2 percent) for Central Development Region and highest (38.5 percent) for Far Western Development Region. Similarly, the male/female differentials in literacy rate for urban area was 28.8 percent and for rural area 33.0 percent respectively.

4. The percentage of female population attending each level of education in schools as well as of institutions of higher education is comparatively higher in urban areas of Nepal than in rural areas. For example: the female population attending primary, secondary, S.L.C. and intermediate, graduate and post graduates were 16.97 percent, 15.02 percent, 8.41 percent and 2.13 percent respectively, whereas their percentages in rural areas were 10.61 percent, 3.97 percent, 0.60 percent and 0.04 percent only.
5. In Kathmandu valley, it was found that, among the total enrolments, more than 40 percent were girls in all the levels of school education.
6. The enrolment ratios for males and females have an increased trend. The female enrolment ratio however has been found to be increasing at a relatively faster rate compared to males.
7. The female enrolment growth rate showed an increasing trend from 1991 to 1995 in all the levels of school education. The enrolment growth rate was high (2.77 percent) in 1991, lower secondary enrolment growth rate was high (6.45 percent) in 1992 and the growth rate of secondary education was high (9.3 percent) in 1995.
8. In Kathmandu valley from 1991 to 1995 the annual enrolment growth rate in primary level is high in 1992, enrolment in lower secondary and secondary education was high in 1995, at 4.76 percent and 7.9 percent respectively.
9. Female students in higher education were found to be 23.92 percent of total higher education enrolments in 1995. The total female enrolments

(new and carry over) in the year 1995 in Certificate, Bachelor and Master's levels were 26.53 percent, 20.95 percent and 23.92 percent respectively. The maximum participation of the females was in Medicine courses (61.31 percent), followed by Humanities and Social Sciences (29.97 percent), Management (20.00 percent), Science and Technology (19.90 percent), and Education courses(13.93percent).

10. On the whole, as the level of education increased the enrolment percentage of females in every course decreased. The female enrolment in Certificate was found to be 26.53 percent whereas their enrolment in Bachelor and Masters were about 20 percent only in 1995.
11. The aggregate male/ female student ratio in higher education was found to be 3.2:1 . As the level of education did go up the male/female ratio has increased. It was 2.2:1 in Certificate level, whereas it was 4:1 in Masters level. Among different disciplines the male/female ratio was high in Law and Engineering and low in Humanities and Social Science and Management. In medicine the picture was reversed.
12. The higher education enrolments in different institutions and faculties remained much the same in 1991 and 1995. The predominance of enrolment rates of girls in Medicine, Social Sciences and Management was maintained from 1991 to 1995.
13. The growth rate in higher education was found to be fluctuating. In some year it increased and in some years it decreased. But in faculty of Management the growth rate was found to be increasing from 1991 to 1995.
14. The various factors which were directly responsible for the low status of female education in Nepal were found to be due to constraints like

socio-cultural factor and ideological factor, politico-economic factor, legal factor and infrastructural factor.

8.1.2 Survey of Women Employees:

Socio-Economic Background of Employed Women:

1. Majority of employed women were Hindus, followed by Buddhists, Christians and those of other religious groups.
2. Highest ethnic group among employed women was Newars, followed by Chhetris and Brahmins. Very low percentage of women employees belong to other ethnic group e. g. Tamang, Gurung, Limbu, Rai, Muslim and Baishya of Terai.
3. Majority of women employee's family occupation belongs to the service category. Besides service, the other family occupations of employed women by rank order were business, teaching, agriculture social worker etc. Some of the women employee's fathers or spouses were found to be retirees from service,
4. Among the total respondents, 34.3 percent women were found to be associated with government service, 38.53 percent were engaged in teaching profession, 15.14 percent were in INGO/NGO and 12.02 percent in private service sectors.
5. Maximum percent of (18.93percent) women respondents belong to the age group of 40-44 years of age and the lowest percent of (6.01percent) women respondents belong to the age group of 18-24 years of age.
6. Among the respondents 77.50 percent were married, 20.04 percent were unmarried or single and 2.45 percent were widowed.
7. The mean age at marriage for the respondents is 19.64. Among the married and widowed respondents 50.97 percent women were married

between 18-24 years of age, 40.67 percent women were married between 25-29 years of age. Similarly, 6.40 percent, 0.56 percent and 1.39 percent women were found to have married between the age group of 30-34, 35-39 and above 40 years of age respectively.

8. The mean number of children for employed married and widowed women was 1.9, which was lower than the (average) mean number of children for the women in the country. Among the women, who have children 75.30 percent had one or two children only, 24.07 percent have three or four children and 0.62 percent women have five or six children.
9. Out of 449 women respondents 47.44 percent women employees had Masters degree, 32.74 percent Bachelors degree 13.58 percent Intermediate degree and 2.45 percent only S.L.C. degree. The employed women with Ph.D. degree were only 3.58 percent. Out of four selected organized sectors highly educated women employees were found in the teaching sector, followed by government, INGO/NGO and private sectors.
10. Among the total respondents 63.03 percent women respondents had received training and 36 percent had not received any type of training. Among the women employees who received training 83.74percent received in-service training and 24.38 percent on their own. The women employees who received training either in service or by themselves in government; teaching, NGO/INGO and private organizations were 70.78 percent, 49.71 percent, 76.47 percent and 66.67 percent respectively.
11. The different types of training received by the employed women were connected with administration and secretarial work, computer, science and technology, medicine and health related, women and development (gender), engineering, law, research, travel and tourism, banking, language, hotel and related, library, teacher's training, trainer's training and so on.]

Occupation and Employment Pattern of Women in Organized Sectors:

1. There were very few women in the gazetted 1st class and equivalent and above posts, which was only 5.84 in percentage. The percentage of women in gazetted IInd class and equivalent posts was 13.63. Similarly in gazetted IIIrd class and equivalent posts and non-gazetted Vth and equivalent posts the percentage of women employees were 41.56 and 38.96 respectively. This indicates the higher the level of post the smaller the number of women.
2. Regarding women in different occupations 22.49 percent were in teaching and 21.60 percent were in administration and management. The percentage of women working as engineers, doctors, lawyers or judges, social workers, research officers, social scientists like sociologists and economists was low, which did not exceed 2 percent. Most of the women were found to be employed in lower administrative cadre, teaching, technical officers, junior technical posts and so on.
3. Among different occupational groups, majority of women (58.6 percent) were employed in professional technical group. In other occupational groups the percentage of employed women were 8.7 percent in clerical service 1.8 percent in sales and 1.5 percent in service and 0.2 percent in others respectively.
4. Majority of the women employees were working in mid-level professional supervisory group. The percentages of women employees working in mid level supervisory group were 54.54 in government service, 63.94 in teaching institutions, 57.35 in INGO/NGO and 53.70 in private sector, working in mid-level professional supervisory group. The percentage of women in higher level professional management group was very low in all the sectors of employment, which was only 1.85 percent. On the whole, 7.57 percent of women were working in higher level, 60.80 percent women were working in mid-level and 31.62 percent were working in the beginning level just below mid-level.

5. In terms of service years, 28.95 percentage of women were found to have completed 20 years and more service years of employment and 13.36 percent women were in the range of 5 to 9 years of service in attached organisations.
6. More than fifty percent women employees (52.12 percent) were found to have got promotion on one or more occasions from the starting post in their service period while 47.88 percent had not got a single promotion. The percentage of promoted women employees in the teaching sector was highest (73.99 percent) and lowest (21.41 percent) in INGO/NGO sector. The percentage of promoted women upgraded three and four levels up in the teaching and government sector was low, not found in INGO/NGO and negligible in the private sector.
7. The main reasons for working as cited by employed women (nearly 28 percent) were for career advancement and to become independent and weightage given to pass and utilize time was only by 5.81 percent. Similarly 15.17 percent women were found to be working because of economic necessity, while 20.10 percent work to make good use of education they received. Thus, the main motivational factor for women's entry into employment was career advancement and to becoming self-reliant, followed by the utilization of education and fulfillment of economic needs.
8. 39.42 percent of employed women were earning in the range of Rs.5000-Rs.9099 and 0.22 percent of employed women earned in the range of Rs.1500-Rs.2000. The women earning an income of more than Rs.9099 were not found in government and teaching sector. They were found only in INGOs and private sectors.
9. Among the respondents 32.74 percent spent their income for daily requirement of the family, 26.96 percent spent for personal needs and 26.64 percent spend to provide good education for their children. The percentages of women employees, who only save their income and make investment of the extra income for better living standards were only 9.21 and 2.39 respectively.

10. Majority of the respondents reported that there was no discrimination made in salary between male and female employees, while 4 percent reported that there was the existence of discrimination in salary for the similar work. The discrimination was found in INGO/NGO and private sectors..

Problems of women Employees:

1. Majority (80.70 percent) of employed women reported that their educational qualifications did match with their jobs while 19.82 percent reported not.
2. Majority (76.83 percent) of women employees were satisfied with their jobs while 21.82 percent of women were not satisfied with their jobs for reasons such as the job not matching their qualifications, not getting promotion in time and not getting opportunity for inservice training.
3. Majority of women employees (66.88 percent) in government and teaching institutions had secured employment through competitive written and interviews procedure, while majority of women employees (57.80 percent) in INGOs/NGOs secured employment only through interview and personal contact.
4. Majority (76.39 percent) of women felt no gender difference in selecting a job while 15.8 percent found it harder in selecting a job and 7.79 percent found it easier in selecting a job. The reasons for those women employees who felt difficulty in selecting a job were mobility problem, maintaining family status and inability to join full-time job due to domestic work burden. In the organized sectors 74.83 percent women stated their work performance as being equal to that of male colleagues, 23.38 percent said that their work performance was better and 0.22 percent viewed their work performance poorer than that of male colleagues.

5. It was found that work relationship with the immediate supervisor was good for majority of women employees. But 36.30 percent women found their work relationship not good with the immediate supervisor due to lack of understanding and the discriminatory attitude.
6. Majority of women employees (97.54 percent) reported that the attitude of males towards them in office was good while 1.11 percent stated it to be poor and 1.33 percent stated it as not applicable, since there were no male colleagues in their offices.
7. Out of 449 respondents, 85.07 percent reported that they did not encounter any difficulties on account of being women, while 14.92 percent respondents reported that they had to face some difficulty on account of being women. Those difficulties were in connection to unequal work responsibility, lack of understanding and harassment, discrimination mainly in job assignment.
8. It was found that 54.56 percent women employees were aware of policies made for them, 36.86 percent were not aware and 7.57 percent did not know. Majority of women employees were getting facilities provided especially for them.
9. About 55 percent of women employees stated that they did not need additional facilities at work place while 46 percent stated that additional facilities should be provided for them.

Among those who were in favour of additional facilities, 13.41 percent of the respondents mentioned transportation facilities, 17.88 percent of them mentioned baby care facilities, 29.27 percent mentioned leave facility during pregnancy and after delivery, 7.32 percent mentioned physical facility and 32.11 percent stated as others.

10. Fifty percent of the respondents were in joint family and other half lived in nuclear family system. However, family type was not the constraint for women's employment in organized sectors. The household responsibilities did not prevent women from accepting employment, since they usually made some adjustments.
11. Nearly half of the respondents had to face difficulties in carrying the dual role of home maker and job holder. On the other hand a proportion of women were not facing such difficulties. They managed to perform the dual roles. The main problems of employed married women in household were heavy family work (42.66percent), social customs (32.17percent) and child and elderly care (20.27percent).
12. Majority of the women, (94.70 percent) received some help from household members in performing household jobs, mostly from their spouse. However, the main responsibility in performing the house hold jobs was of women themselves.
13. Majority of the respondent's families were not against their employment outside the home, since, it was found that 70 percent of respondents reported that the perception of their family towards their employment was good. But about 28 percent respondents' families perception regarding their employment was only fair and about 2 percent of respondents' families perception was bad and their family disliked their being in employment.
14. Majority of women were happy getting employment in the formal sector. But some women (about 3 percent) were not happy due to discrimination policy in their organization in assigning jobs and in making selection for training, mismatch of the educational qualifications and not getting promotion in time.

15. Since, women's employment percentage in every organized sector was low, 94.65 percent of women were found in favour of government intervention for improving women's employment, while about 4 percent were not in favour of government intervention. The women preferred government intervention by order of rank were (i) compulsory secondary education for girls, (ii) gender conductive social environment, (iii) special training and refresher courses, (iv) loan facilities to set up private business and (v) quota system in office.

8.1.3 Survey of Employers, Policy Makers and Experts:

1. Almost all responding employers, policy makers and experts opined that women's participation in economic development was equally important as that of men.
2. The opinions of all the employers, policy makers and experts were in favour of women's participation in formal sectors.
3. Majority of the responding employers, policy makers and experts group (68 percent) were of the opinion that there were some specified jobs, which would better suit women. In other words, some jobs like teaching, technical service including nursing were perfectly handled by women. Similarly, the opinion of 31.58 percent of respondents was that women would do all types of jobs if they were given chance.
4. Majority of the respondents of this group expressed the view that women's work performance was as good as men's work performance. However, 22.80 percentage of respondents of this group did not consider women's work performance equal to that of men mainly due to the dual responsibility they have to bear. Again, some (10.53 percent) considered women's work performance even better.

5. Majority of respondents (92.99 percent) were in favour of providing some additional facilities for women employees considering their physical, and social needs.

Majority of them were of the opinion that additional facilities like baby care centre, special training, transportation, physical facilities, extension of minimum age limit to enter into the job should be provided to women.

6. More than fifty percentage of the respondents agreed that there existed discrimination in assigning jobs to male and female employees; 45.61 percent of them did not agree with this view and 1.75 of them were not certain.

7. Majority of respondents (98.24 percent) expressed the view that there should be some intervention from the government to increase women's employment opportunities. On the other hand, about 2 percent of the respondents stated government intervention is not needed in this regard.

8.1.4 Results of Null Hypothesis:

Perception of Employed Women:

HO 1- "There is no association between educational qualification and level of employment".

The computed chi-square value was 255.85 and the tabulated value was 7.815. Thus, it can be concluded that there is evidence for a significant association between level of education and level of employment.

HO 2- "There is no association between education qualification and level of income".

The computed chi-square value is 89.141 and tabulated value was 9.488, which showed the positive and significant association between educational background and level of income.

- HO 3- "There is no association between level of employment and level of income".
The computed chi-square value was 286.64 and tabulated value was 18.307 leading rejection of null hypothesis. This showed that with the increase in the level of employment the level of income goes up.
- HO 4- "Employment level is independent of training".
The computed chi-square value was found to be 10.949, whereas a tabulated value was 5.991. Since, the computed chi-square value is higher and highly significant it can be concluded that there is an association between training and the level of employment.
- HO 5- "There is no significant association between the reasons for working for different levels of women employment"
The computed chi-square value was 331.342 and the corresponding tabulated value was 18.3,07, leading to the rejection of null hypothesis. Thus it was found that employees reasons for working vary by employment level.
- HO 6- "There is no association between the number of service years and promotion times"
The chi-square value was 182.798, whereas the tabulated value was 26.296, leading to rejection of null hypothesis. Thus it was found that the degree of association between service years and promotion times was very significant.
- HO 7- "The opinions of different levels of women employees in ranking the preference for government measures to improve women's employment are independent".
The computed R1, R2 and R3 value was 1 indicating a perfect agreement between all three levels of women employees.

Perception of employers, policy makers and experts:

HO 8- "There is no significant association between different groups of respondents regarding suitable jobs for women".

The computed chi-square value was found as 46.016, whereas the tabulated value was 18.307, which allows the rejection of null hypothesis. Thus, it can be concluded that the difference between the opinions of responding groups with respective jobs suitable for women was significant.

HO 9- "There is no significant association between different groups of respondents regarding women's performance in job"

The computed chi-square value was 7.920 and the tabulated value was 12.592, allowing the acceptance of null hypothesis. Thus it was found that the opinion of three responding groups with respects to the women's performance in job were significantly different.

HO 10-"The opinions of employers, policy maker and experts in making preference for additional facilities for women are independent"

The computed values of R1 and R2 were 0.68, R2 and R3 was 0.8 and R1 and R3 was 0.92. The tabulated value was 0.83. It was found that there was no significant agreement between the views of employers and policy makers and experts, while there was a significant agreement between the employers and experts in ranking the additional facilities for women at workplace.

HO 11-"The opinions of employers, policy makers and experts in ranking different desirable measures by government to improve women's employment in general are independent.

The computed values of R1 and R2 were 0.8, R2 and R3 and R1 and R3 were 0.5 each. Since those values were less than the tabulated value as 0.83, the null hypothesis was accepted. Thus, it was found that there is no significant agreement between the three responding groups in ranking the preference for the government measures to improve women's employment.

8. 2 Recommendation and Policy Implications:

The major issues confronting the development of women's potentiality in Nepal can be divided under 2 headings:

- a) Improvement in females educational status.
- b) Improvement in employment opportunities for females in organized sectors.

8.2.1 Improvement of Female's Educational Status:

Issues Regarding Improving the Status of Female Education:

- Educational opportunities for girls should be provided
- The education curricula should specifically try to reduce or eliminate completely the differential in the traditional role model ascribed to males and females with respect to their duties and responsibilities.
- Educational reforms should be such as to increase the employment potential of women in various organized sectors.
- Vocational education and job-oriented training should be provided for females.
- In-service training opportunities should be provided for females.

Recommendations:

On the basis of findings of the study and the above issues regarding improving the status of female education, following recommendations are forwarded:

1. By getting secondary education, females may be eligible for entering at least into the non-gazetted second class or similar level job in an organization. Thus, compulsory secondary education for girls is most important. Recently His Majesty's Government has formulated a policy for providing secondary education for girls in public schools.
2. Textbooks and curriculum-revealing women's role mostly as housewives and homemakers have to be sanitized and reformed. Textbooks and curriculum from the very school level, which present both men and women as equal partners in home and work, have to be introduced. Everyone, whether male or

female, must view the task of teaching the future generation about home making as a social responsibility.

3. Vocational education and training may facilitate many women in getting jobs at present. Therefore, development of specific vocational institutions to provide females with various skills should be encouraged.
4. Opportunity of in-service training should be provided equally to both male and female employees. Since, most of the women are in lower rank jobs, upgrading programme should be launched to make them eligible to compete for promotion.
5. An opportunity for recurrent training should be provided, and special attention must be given to the return of women to the employment market after a period of absence for family reasons.
6. National policy on education should incorporate the strategy for bringing about a basic change in the status of women. For this the national education policy should (i) play a positive interventionist role in the empowerment of women (ii) contribute towards development of new values through redesigned curricula and textbooks and (iii) promote women's studies as part of various courses.
7. There should be a reform in vocational training and guidance both for young girls and adult women. Similarly, government should abolish all legal obstacles to the enrolment of girls in any branch of technical and vocational education. Effective social measures can be adopted to change the attitudes regarding the traditional thinking of 'women's occupation'.

8.2.2 Improvement of women's employment:

Issues regarding improvement in women's employment:

- Diversification of employment opportunities with a view to enlarging the base of awareness of employment in different sectors.
- Involvement of the private sector in promoting wage employment opportunities for women. Re-orientation of self-employment programmes as entrepreneurship development, professional training etc. with a view to achieving sustained increase in self employment at a rapid pace.
- Social and equality consideration with regard to women's employment.

Recommendations:

Diversified Employment Opportunities for Women:

With regard to diversified employment opportunities for women, following recommendations are forwarded:

1. There is a need to generate suitable employment opportunities for women in the country in different sectors as government, teaching, autonomous institutions, INGOs/NGOs; private etc., so as to create employment opportunities for educated females.
2. Employment information or employment exchange centers should be established in urban areas so that woman could get information about employment opportunities in different institutions.
3. The preparation institutions should be established in order to provide females with the skills and the techniques to pass the entrance examinations for various posts in different institutions.
4. Though there have been a number of Government Acts in existence for the last four decades regulating labour relation, weak enforcement mechanisms have made those regulations ineffective. The Acts also suffer from implementation

shortcomings. Therefore, implementation of the proper related Acts should be emphasized.

5. At present, there are very few women in responsible and decision-making posts. Therefore, women should be given a chance to work in responsible and decision-making jobs.
6. Women of higher posts should try to work as change agents in women employment. They should try their best to push for development programmes for other women in general.
7. Complete record of male /female employment, male / female work performance and absenteeism should be kept so that it will be easier to launch appropriate manpower planning and to evaluate the situation behind male / female employment.
8. There is a need for framing and implementing a comprehensive policy for promoting women employment and enhancing their rate of participation in socio-economic progress of the country in general.
9. The under-utilization of female labour is a social waste. Because, on the one hand, it does not facilitate society to reap better fruits on the investment in human resources and on the other, it costs society heavily in the form of poverty, ill-health and unemployment. Hence an economic policy should always aim at maximizing social benefits as well as direct economic returns out of its investment in human resources.

Involvement of Private Sectors in Promoting Wage Employment for Women:

1. The private sectors may provide good employment opportunities for women. Therefore, the establishment of private sector organizations like financial institutions, travel and tourism, hotel business, small scale and cottage industries should be promoted in the country.
2. At present INGOs / NGOs are growing fast and serving the community at different levels. The establishment of many INGOs / NGOs also is creating

job opportunities for women. Thus such institutions should be encouraged and promoted.

Social and equity considerations:

1. Flexible work schedules should be introduced in employment organizations, since under the flextime, employees can choose the starting and finishing hours of the job to be done. In order to maintain the standard the number of working hours per day should be fixed and women may remain with the chosen schedule for a set period of time. It is widely believed that flexible time would be most helpful to women employees because they continue to be the main providers of care for children and dependents.
2. Married women's labour-force participation is obviously a major debate as it involves the need for childcare also. Thus, there should be a free or heavily subsidized childcare facility, and quality and affordable child care centres.
3. Standard employee benefit schemes should be introduced and applied by every employing organization. Under this scheme non-wage benefits such as health, life and disability insurance, sick leave, vacations and holidays should be included.
4. There should be a provision for part-time work or job sharing, since part time work may be helpful mainly for those women who are living in a joint family and also who have to manage other house hold jobs including care taking and rearing of children.
5. Various (paid and unpaid) leave facilities should be provided mainly intended to address the need for time off for pregnancy and child birth as well as care of infants and sick and elderly family members.
6. In case of a break in the career of women due to motherhood and other causes, chances to get re- entry to them should be provided by the employer. In other words, there should be a legislative safety - net guaranteeing the

service as women's right to return to the same employer together with all the advantages of seniority she has acquired. Besides, there should be a provision for refresher courses for those women.

7. Effective family welfare programmes should be introduced which would include:
 - (i) health facilities, production of labor-saving household devices at reasonable prices, low cost housing complete with domestic services (ii) reform of the fiscal legislation and social security programmes and reform of the legal status of married women (covering the aspects like nationality, parental authority, equality between the sexes as regards inherited and other personal property etc).
8. Government's policy should be aimed at formulating such a social policy which brings about a profound change of attitudes regarding the role of women in employment by, for example, publishing a series of booklets.
9. Government should formulate a policy, which is seriously intended to eliminate discrimination in employment and achieve equality of opportunity and treatment. Such a policy should have to operate simultaneously against the discriminatory process such as (i) socio-cultural attitudes and prejudice (ii) the double exploitation of women in the family, the basic structure of our society and (iii) the exclusion of women from productive work as full and equal partners.

To avoid the above-mentioned discriminatory factors the following objectives must be attained:

- (a) Reform of the system of values should be carried out essentially among the agents of socialization, i.e. the family, school, cultural environment, mass media, etc.
- (b) Application of dynamic vocational training and employment policies should be put into practice, which implies:

- the restructuring of vocational training and guidance system for girls
 - the creation of new jobs for women, taking due account of existing structural and regional disparities and granting them access to recurring educational institutions.
10. Every employing agency should adopt such a social policy, which guarantees equal pay for equal work or for work of equal value.
 11. Though there are no such regulations, which emphasize occupational segregation between males and females, in practice, there still exists occupational segregation in organized sectors. Moreover, it appears that it is the men who hold the key posts and administrative positions, and women are not given preference in selection and promotion in those posts. In such a case, elimination of unjustified obstacles to women's employment is necessary.
 12. There should be an equality of access to all jobs and sectors on the basis of aptitudes, qualification and experience without reference to sex or marital status.
 13. Women's job should be upgraded with the application of objective methods of evaluating comparable work, the revision of occupational classifications and the improvement of career prospects.
 14. There should be arrangements made to ensure equal opportunities for promotion of females on the basis of qualification, merit and experience.
 15. The application of anti-discriminatory norms should be effectively ensured right from the outset, in advance rather than retrospectively. For this women employees should be compulsorily represented in all committees carrying out new job evaluations or classifications, in administrative services responsible

for placement, vocational guidance and restraining on economic planning, employment creation policies and in the joint labour management machinery for negotiating and concluding collective agreement.

16. In order to increase the participation and higher commitment to work by women, their household work has to be reduced. Therefore, labour saving devices in household work have to be produced and utilized. Establishment of cooperatives mainly aiding household work such as hotel cooperatives, laundry cooperatives, child-care cooperatives etc. has to be encouraged and facilitated.