CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Nepal remains among the poorest and least developed countries in the world with almost one-fourth of its population living below the poverty line. It is mountainous land locked country situated between China and India. Its area is 147,181 square kilometers containing 5 development region 75 districts and 103 caste *(CBS, 2001)* and ethnic groups with rich cultural diversity. Agriculture is the mainstay of the economy, providing a livelihood for three-fourths of the population and accounting for 38 percent of the Gross Domestic Product with average GDP per capita of US$ 322 *(MoF, 2006)*. Twenty-five percent of population in Nepal is still below poverty line *(NLSS, 2010/11)*. The incidence of poverty is much higher (35 percent) in rural areas than the urban centers (10 percent). Nepal still remains as the country with the least HDI in South Asia, and placed at the 138th position in the global human index *(NPC, 2007)*.

1.1 Background to the Study

The term poverty has different meaning to different countries and societies. In a broad sense, poverty is a situation of a person and households in which a person can't afford fundamental elements for human needs. It is a worldwide burning and challenging issues of twenty first century. It exists in both developed and developing countries but there are some different in the extent and magnitude of poverty and its level. According to Oxford Learner Thesaurus,' these are all words for the state of having very little money, especially when this is not enough for basic needs'.

The first NLSS in 1995-96 had shown 41.76 percent of the population living below the poverty line, which came down to 30.85 percent in the second (NLSS, 2003-04) and 25.16 percent population are living below poverty line yet *(NLSS, 2010/11)*. It was estimated that high incidence of poverty fall hard on landless and small farmers; but poverty was spread to the other group also. Various policy and institutional efforts have been made for ending untouchability and caste discrimination, and for the empowerment of the Dalits and Adibasi Janajatis. There has not been any significant improvement in the participation of Dalits and Adibasi Janajatis in the policy formulation, institutions and processes that also lead mass poverty of such groups.

Taplejung district is situated in the north east part of Nepal which comprises 50 Village Development Committees (VDCs) with 2 constitutional sectors. According to the Poverty and Deprivation Index, Taplejung district lies in 27 and in overall composite index it lies in 33 ranks *(DNID, 2003)*. The study areas lied on Far East remote area of Taplejung District. Marginalized indigenous people live in these areas.

Substantial agricultural practices in a traditional way lead the area to face the scarcity of food; thus raising the cases of absolute poverty. Moreover, livestock farming is another profession of these communities. Lack of irrigation, poor support for seeds and use of modern know-how and also disparity of land ownership pattern (also at gender perspective) is the major problem of target areas.

Fertility is one of the main components of population change. Total fertility rate is decreasing 5.1 in 1996 *(NLSS, 1995/96),* 3.6 in 2004 *(NLSS, 2003/04)* and in recent year 3.*4 (NLSS, 2010/11)*. Fertility is one of the three principal components of population dynamics that determine the size and structure of the population of a country. Population growth impacts on the adequacy and availability of community services, social infrastructure and public open space. It also impacts on the physical infrastructure (sewerage, water and road systems) as older systems reach capacity and room for expansion and redevelopment becomes difficult. Population growth affects economic development through the increasing demand for goods and services, housing and infrastructure development. Our expanding communities can also place increased pressure on the natural environment through diminishing natural biodiversity, increased pollution.

In poor families children have high value for economical supports or instrumental. The children may contribute to family income and to the care of younger siblings from a relatively early age, perhaps at same cost to their own economic prospect and providing supports and protection to the parents in old age *(Mc Nicoll, 1997).* Thus this concept lead high fertility especially in rural parts.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The perception of poverty, the state of poverty and cause of poverty are different in the different socio -economic and cultural based society and families. It requires investigation in poverty from village level. The relation between poverty and fertility is complex and multiracial depending on the economic, social and cultural context. Fertility is a process

within which poverty is a determinant like any other process. Demographic, economic and social changes have a role in fertility transition. The fertility transition has global event and is an aspect of creation of a global economic society.

It is important to understand the dynamic of the processes, which link fertility and poverty. In Nepal, with more than 86 percent out of total population living in rural area *(CBS, 2001).* Nearly half of its GDP originates from agricultural sector. Out of total rural 90 percent poor whose basic human needs are not meet. They have limited access in education, sanitation, toilet, clean drinking water, room, health care and family planning services. As development proceeds, the economic disadvantage of high fertility to parents should became evermore apparent. Poverty is closely related with socio economic, demographic status of women. The analysis of fertility among poor and non-poor household according to their income as well as household with women is very few. There is lack of such type of research to analysis fertility among women from poor and non-poor households. In Nepal, poverty pressure is high among the Dalits and Janajatis. 46 percent of the Dalits, 44 percent of the hill Janajatis (Magar, Tamang, Gurung,Rai, Limbu) and 41 percent of the Muslim community are seen to be below the poverty line in comparison with the national average *(NPC, 2007).*

This study has concentrated to rural community of Surumkhim VDC of Taplejung district where are most Janjati and Dalit communities are residing. Cardamom is the main source of income; the productivity is significant in Surumkhim. It is about 30 kilometres from Taplejung District Headquarter. The poor live predominantly in these areas and engage in traditional and subsistence farming on small plots of low quality land, have limited access to credit, infrastructure, markets and basic social services, often because of remoteness, and rely heavily on seasonal migration and remittance. PAF in 2009/10 have surveyed the area and grouped the poor and non-poor families depending on food affordability. No other research have targeted to this area. This study expresses the fertility behaviour of poor and non-poor household based on following questions:

- What is the socio-economic condition and behavior of the population relating income based rural poverty?
- What is the fertility level among poor and non-poor household of women with their income?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The study focused on the poverty and its impact in fertility in the study areas. The specific objectives of the study:

- To examine the socio-economic condition and behavior of the population relating income based rural poverty.
- To analyse the poverty level and fertility level of household's women based on their income.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study might be helpful to demonstrate the socio-economic condition and fertility among poor and non-poor households' women in Surumkhim VDC. Further, this study also acknowledge about the causes and impact of poverty on fertility. The study also covers the income level of the households in the study area. Most of the people are Janjati communities and socio-economic condition is very low. I hope this research study explorer the poverty and fertility behavior of this VDC. It is only for thesis. It can't generalize in other but it will be an important document for policy maker, researcher and others.

1.5 Limitations of the Study

- The study is limited to only married women aged 15-49 in Surumkhim VDC (Ward 1-9), Taplejung district. Therefore, the findings do not represent other parts of the country.
- Only income level variable and fertility is examined in the study, it does not represent on other variables.
- Due to fear of misuse of information the respondents reluctantly answered the questions on income and fertility performance.
- Further, this study is purely cross-sectional; thus, vertical comparing of findings with vertical subsequent time period is restricted. The main constraints of the study depend on financial constraint and time period, which is limited to six months.

1.6 Organization

The dissertation consists of seven chapters.

Chapter One deals with the introduction of poverty and fertility. The relationships between poverty and fertility is also discuss further, statements of the problem, objectives, significance, conceptual framework, limitations and the organization of the study is assessed. Chapter Two deals with related literatures on poverty and fertility; showing the relationship that exist between them. Chapter Three deals with Research design and Methodology where justification of the study site, target population, research method, study variables and issues, type of study, sampling method, tools and techniques for information/data collection, pre-testing, validity and reliability of research and analytical tools is assessed. Chapter Four deals with the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the study population. Chapter Five deals with knowledge and use of family planning methods correlating with poverty status. Chapter Six deals with analysis of poverty status and socio-demographic variables including poverty status and fertility. Chapter Seven deals with the summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendations that is carried out after the results of analyses.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review of this study deals with the concept, definition, measurement of poverty and fertility both at the theoretical and empirical perspective. The review of literature includes;

2.1 Concept of Poverty

Poverty is the lack of basic human needs which is necessary to survive, such as food, shelter, clothing and peace. It is the state as the inability of people to attain a minimum standard of living. The English word "poverty" came from Latin *pauper* = "poor", via Anglo-Norman povert. There are many definitions of poverty depending on the context of the situation and the views of the person giving the definition. The concept of poverty is defined as that a person or a household is considered poor if its income or its consumption falls below a certain threshold, normally defined as a minimum level *(Alcock, 1997:77-79; UNDP, 1997:16; World Bank, 2001a:16).*

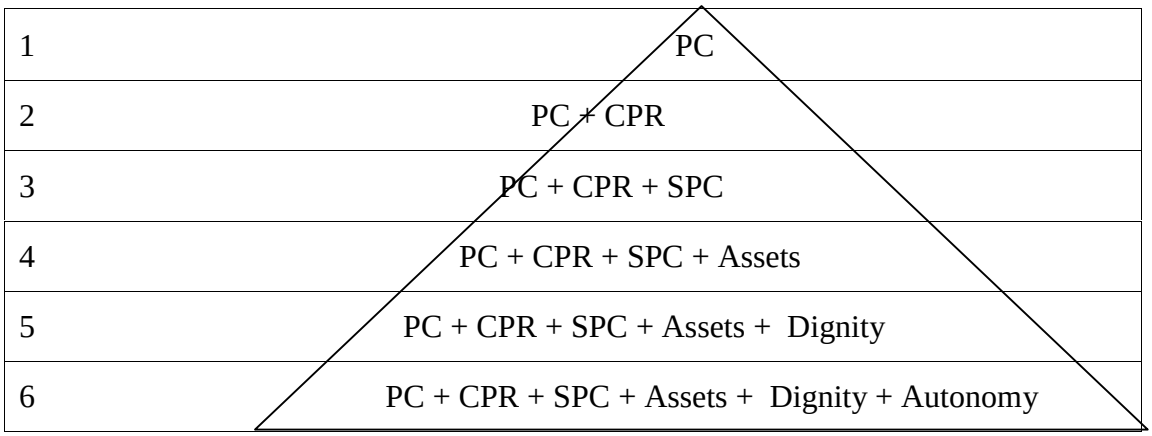
From a human development perspective, poverty means the denial of choices and opportunities for a tolerable life. It is in the deprivation of the lives people lead that poverty manifests itself. Poverty can mean more than a lack of what is necessary for material well-being. It can also mean the denial of opportunities and choices most basic to human development – to lead a long, healthy, creative life and to enjoy a decent standard of living, freedom, dignity, self-esteem and the respect of others *(UNDP, 1997).*

Pyramid of Poverty Concept by Baulch

Approaches to poverty with in development discourses have been predominantly located with in economic growth paradigms. In the last two decades views of development have focused on dimension of poverty such inequality, human rights and entitlements. The different possible components of poverty definition have been summarized by Baulch (1996) in the pyramid below, provide important where personal consumption (PC) reflected in income and expenditure is at one end of the uni-dimensional approach to poverty. At the multi-dimensional end is included wider concepts such as access to common poverty resources (CPR), state provided

commodities (SPC), dignity, autonomy and the ownership of assets to protect against destitution.

Figure 2.1 Baulch Pyramid



Source : Action Aid, (2003)

2.2 Definition of Poverty

Fundamentally, poverty is a denial of choices and opportunities, a violation of human dignity. It means lack of basic capacity to participate effectively in society. It means not having enough to feed and clothe a family, not having a school or clinic to go to, not having the land on which to grow one's food or a job to earn one's living, not having access to credit. It means insecurity, powerlessness and exclusion of individuals, households and communities. It means susceptibility to violence, and it often implies living in marginal or fragile environments, without access to clean water or sanitation *(UN, 1980)*

The NGOs poverty treaty (1992) (The NGOs forum was part of the UN conference on environment and development (UNCED) held at Rio de Janeiro (in June, 1992) describes poverty as a state of deprivation of the essential elements necessary for human being to live and develop with dignity, physically, mentally, and spiritually, while accounting for specific needs relating to gender, ability/disability, cultural values, age and ethnicity. The treaty further states that poverty is the result of present development model rooted in the exploitation of people and nature. Social inequalities result from unequal access to resources and people's exclusion from the political decision making process. The centralization of power to control natural resources causes simultaneously, poverty and environmental degradation.

Poverty is the lack of basic human needs, such as clean and fresh water, nutrition, health care, education, clothing and shelter, because of the inability to afford them *(Wikipedia Online Dictionary).* By occupational groups, poverty is highest among agriculture wage laborers, followed by small farmers who cultivate their own land. The decrease in poverty in these two groups was also disproportionately low compared to others, implying that poverty persists across generations. Additionally, poverty was found to be higher among the landless households, larger families or those with larger numbers of children, and among the households with illiterate heads *(NHDR, 2009).*

2.3 Measuring Poverty

Poverty is usually measured as either absolute or relative poverty (the latter being actually an index of income inequality). Absolute poverty refers to a set standard which is consistent over time and between countries. The World Bank defines extreme poverty as living on less than US $1.25 per day, and moderate poverty as less than $2 per day *(Wikipedia Online Dictionary).*.

Six million children die of hunger every year - 17,000 every day. Selective Primary Health Care has been shown to be one of the most efficient ways in which absolute poverty can be eradicated in comparison to Primary Health Care which has a target of treating diseases. Disease prevention is the focus of Selective Primary Health Care which puts this system on higher grounds in terms of preventing malnutrition and illness, thus putting to Absolute Poverty. The proportion of the developing world's population living in extreme economic poverty fell from 28 percent in 1990 to 21 percent in 2001. Most of this improvement has occurred in East and South Asia. In East Asia the World Bank reported that "The poverty headcount rate at the $2-a-day level is estimated to have fallen to about 27 percent [in 2007], down from 29.5 percent in 2006 and 69 percent in 1990." In Sub-Saharan Africa extreme poverty went up from 41 percent in 1981 to 46 percent in 2001, which combined with growing population increased the number of people living in extreme poverty from 231 million to 318 million. *(HDR, 2010)*

Relative poverty refers to lacking a usual or socially acceptable level of resources or income as compared with others within a society or country. Usually, relative poverty is measured as the percentage of population with income less than some fixed

proportion of median income. There are several other different income inequality metrics, for example the Gini coefficient or the Theil Index.

Relative poverty measures are used as official poverty rates in several developed countries. As such these poverty statistics measure inequality rather than material deprivation or hardship. The measurements are usually based on a person's yearly income and frequently take no account of total wealth *(Online Encyclopedia).* A person earning below Rs.54 per day is a poor. The food basket of the poverty line is based on estimated consumption of how much a poor spend to reach a minimum caloric requirement of 2,220 Kcal per day *(NLSS, 2010/11).*

2.4 State of Poverty in Nepal

Poverty in Nepal has been measured with different approaches, and their results are varied accordingly. The approaches adopted for the measurement of poverty and their respective results with remarks is shown in Table 1.

Table 1 Poverty measurement of Nepal

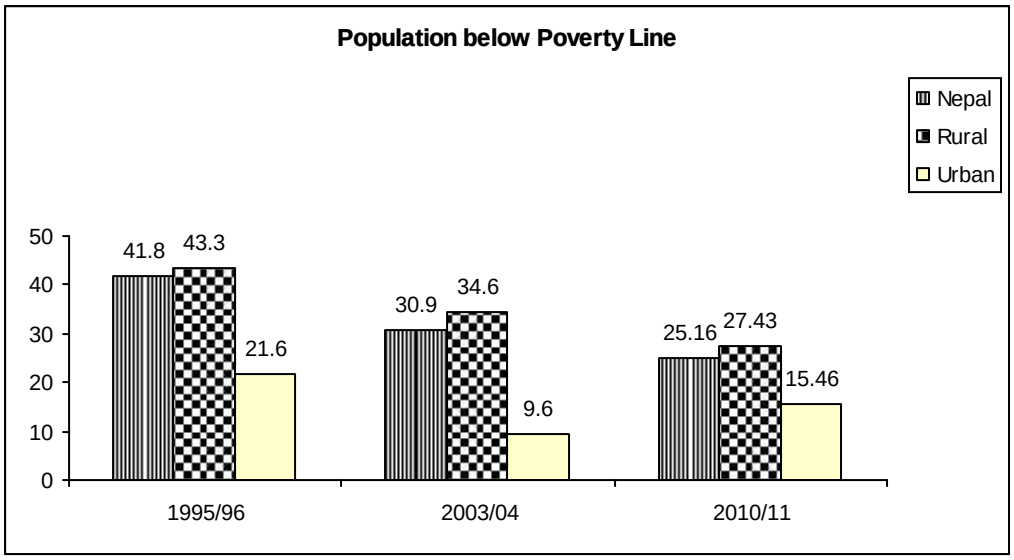
Measurement Approaches	percentage of Poor People
Per capita income per annum	71 percent of poor people (Internally accepted threshold of US$150)
Expenditure on food consumption (Poor-whose food consumption absorbs 70 percent or more of total expenditure)	2/3rd of the population lives below poverty line. (Lipton, 1982)
Consumption of calorie intake (2124 calorie per capita including non-food item)	42 percent of the population living below poverty line. (Nepal living standard survey, 1996)
Consumption of calorie intake (2220 calorie per capita including non-food items)	25.16 percent of the population living below the poverty line. (NLSS-III, 2010/11)

Source : Lipton (1982) and NLSS (1996), NLSS-III, (2010/11)

Level and Trend of Poverty in Nepal

The first NLSS in 1995-96 had shown 41.8 percent of the population living below the poverty line, which came down to 30.9 percent in the second NLSS (2003-04). The NLSS -III (2010/11) reported that 25.16 percent people living below the poverty line.

Figure 2.2 Population of Nepal below Poverty Line



Source : Adopted by NLSS (1996), NLSS (2003/04) and NLSS-III, (2010/11)

2.5 Fertility

Fertility is defined as giving the number life birth by a woman in her reproductive life span (15-49). Fertility differs from fecundity, which is defined as the potential for reproduction (influenced by gamete production, fertilization and carrying a pregnancy to term). Human fertility depends on factors of nutrition, sexual behavior, culture, instinct, endocrinology, timing, economics, way of life, and emotions.The ability to conceive children or young: anxiety and stress affect fertility in both men and women. The annual growth rate of the population of Nepal is still high. In 1981, the total fertility rate was 6.3, which dropped to 3.1 in 2006. At the national level, total fertility rate has started to decrease. But the total fertility rate in rural areas is higher than that of urban areas *(NPC, 2007).* This is important in view of the government's policy to reduce the total fertility rate to 2.1 in 2017 and bring a balance between population growth and economic development in Nepal (NPC, 2002).

Demographers measure the fertility rate in a variety of ways, which can be broadly broken into "period" measures and "cohort" measures. "Period" measures refer to a cross-section of the population in one year. "Cohort" data on the other hand, follows the same people over a period of decades. Both period and cohort measures are widely used.

2.5.1 Period Measures

Crude birth rate (CBR) - The number of live births in a given year per 1,000 people alive at the middle of that year. One disadvantage of this indicator is that it is influenced by the age structure of the population.

General fertility rate (GFR) - The number of births in a year divided by the number of women aged 15–49, times 1000. It focuses on the potential mothers only, and takes the age distribution into account.

Child-Woman Ratio (CWR) - The ratio of the number of children under 5 to the number of women 15-49, times 1000. It is especially useful in historical data as it does not require counting births. This measure is actually a hybrid, because it involves deaths as well as births. That is, because of infant mortality some of the births are not included; and because of adult mortality, some of the women who gave birth are not counted either.

Cohort Measures

Age-Specific Fertility Rate (ASFR) - The number of births in a year to women in a 5-year age group, divided by the number of all women in that age group, times 1000. The usual age groups are 10-14, 15-19, 20-24, etc.

Total Fertility Rate (TFR) - The total number of children a woman would bear during her lifetime if she were to experience the prevailing age-specific fertility rates of women. TFR equals the sum for all age groups of 5 times each ASFR rate

Gross Reproduction Rate (GRR) - The number of girl babies a synthetic cohort will have. It assumes that all of the baby girls will grow up and live to at least age 50.

Net Reproduction Rate (NRR) - The NRR starts with the GRR and adds the realistic assumption that some of the women will die before age 59; therefore they will not be alive to bear some of the potential babies that were counted in the GRR. NRR is always lower than GRR, but in countries where mortality is very low, almost all the baby girls grow up to be potential mothers, and the NRR is practically the same as GRR. In countries with high mortality, NRR can be as low as 70 percent of GRR. When NRR = 1.0, each generation of 1000 baby girls grows up and gives birth to exactly 1000 girls. When NRR is less than one, each generation is smaller than the previous one. When NRR is greater than 1 each generation is larger than the one

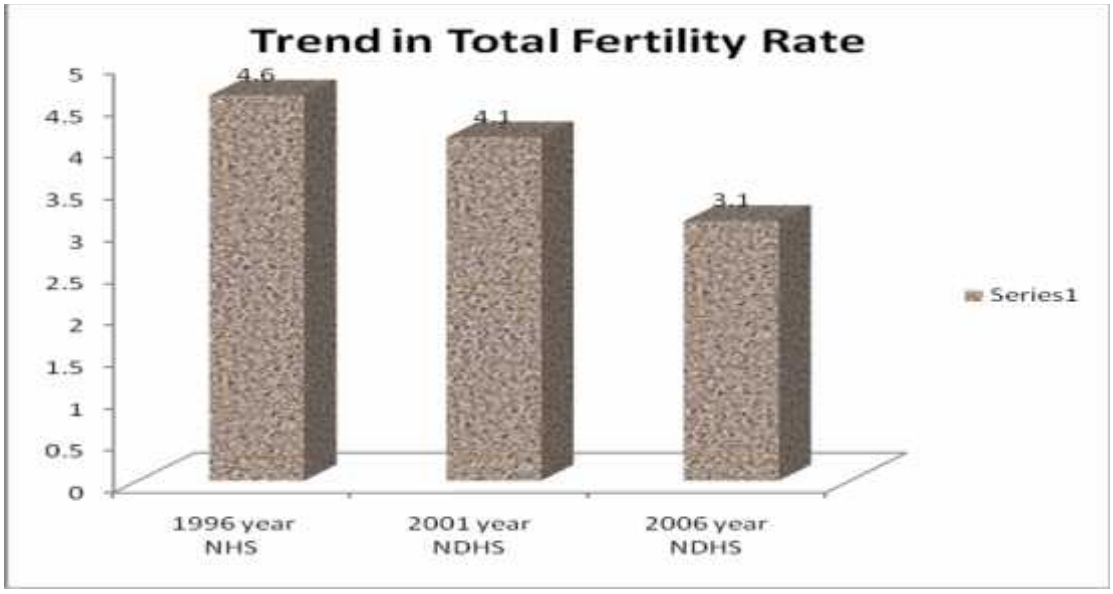
before. NRR is a measure of the long-term future potential for growth, but it usually is different from the current population growth rate

Children Ever Born (CEB) - In order to assess the fertility behavior of women, one of the indicator used here is the mean number of children ever born per woman. This is calculated as the ratio of the total number of children ever born to the number of total women of child-bearing age *(Hand Book of Population).*

Trend in Total Fertility Rate

Figure shows that Total fertility rate was 4.6 per woman in 1993-95 (NHS, 1996), that decreased to 4.1 in 1998-2000 (NDHS, 2001) and 3.1 in 2003-05 (NDHS, 2006). The TFR has decreased from 4.6 births per woman in 1996 to 3.1 births per woman in 2006.

Figure 2.3 Trends in Total Fertility in Nepal



Source: NDHS, (2006)

2.6 Theoretical Debates on Poverty and Fertility

The poverty concept and operationalization of its objectives in the development field continues as a part of burning issue in the world. Different social scientists have given variety of solution about poverty. One school of thought believes that solution poverty lies in accelerated growth rate of economy which is turn redistribute income and reduced in equalities through trickle down process *(Panda, 2002).* One the other hand, other school of thought believes that there is a vicious circle of poverty. The forces

responsible for poverty have a web like structure. The person coming under the away of any of these forces gets caught in the web and became subject to the other adverse forces as well as the effect of adverse forces taken together is maximum . It would be pertinent of ask how this web is constructed and how it is maintained *(Mishra, 2000).*

Paradoxically it makes even a demographically and economically stationary society not so appalling as meaning economic fear; if the relatively poor have children while the rich do not, and it being born poor does not prevent the full development of personality and potential, there is a sample room for personal upward mobility with no need for migration or revolution. It is high time to break the vicious circle of poverty, starting from youngest generation. This is morally risk free operation (children surely can't blame for their condition) and we would argue a moral obligation. Making parents invest their children probably the best way to reduce fertility in developing world. It reduces child mortality and improves children's health and capabilities. It is an economically and ecologically sound investment requiring only that we are long-sighted enough to see beyond today, and beyond our immediate need *(Mishra 2000).* Optimistic and pessimistic point of view constantly confronts each other in debate on poverty. Important theoretical approach is that which acknowledge the fact that individual fertility decision takes place within a particular socio-economic and culture context. The community level factor such as transport, communication and education facilities influence the way in which individual factor impact on fertility. Related to this theory is the diffusion of ideational theory propounded by *(Cleland et al., 1987).*

2.7 Empirical Debates on Poverty and Fertility

The relation between poverty and fertility is also largely inconclusive. Empirical evidence suggest that is poor villages the relationship might well run in a direction opposite to what is normally assumed, while their households with more abundant resources are induced to have more offspring because the children can participate to farm work and are more easily provided. Only when opportunities arise to significantly rise the expected earning of children through better education and nutrition does a trade off arise between the quantity and quality of the couple might optimally have. It returns to human capital are sufficiently high and adult mortality sufficiently low, investing in a small number of highly educated and well-nourished

children becomes optimal *(Dasgupta, 1995).* For the time being, simply point out that relationship between poverty and fertility doesn't supports a general monotonic relationship between rural poverty issues related to woman which are linked to poverty.

First, are some indication of discrimination in the labour market unemployment rates in almost all countries are higher among woman than men. Second, they are issues related to land property ownership. In some countries antiquated legislation related of the inheritance of land prevent woman from ownership. Third, is violence against women which has increased in several countries *(World Bank, 1995).*

The Malthusian stand implied a relation between income and fertility. According to him the cause of poverty is mainly because of insufficient human restraint in reproduction. Even if there is improvement in the condition of poor people, they will multiply, because they can afford more children. This view was seriously questioned by Karl Marx (German Philosopher) and other scholars. Marx (1859) argued that cause of poverty is due to exploitative economic institutions. Marx mentioned the (Malthusian) population law peculiar to the capitalist mode of production, covering both (i) the relative surplus population, which was primarily a socio-economic concept and (ii) the inverse relationship between family size and wage level, which reflected demographic and social relationship. After Marx the issues of poverty was widely spread and concept of poverty was greatly raised and defined (cited in Dahal et al., 1987). Later, developed western countries responsed to better standard of living, so that fertility in these countries declined. It was seen that rising income increase the capacity of couples to afford more children, it is also affect their testes and preference in such a manner that they desire fewer children. Rising aspirations, increased desire for other goods, desire for better quality of children, better possibility of survival for children are some of crucial variable link between income and fertility, identified by the varies researcher so far . Demographic transition theory provides a higher value for the socio-economic development. In addition demographic transition theory stressed that the intermediate variables that restrain fertility from attaining its biological limits are not strong enough to adjust the birth rate to death rate in the short run, but in the long run do conception in increasing deemed a question of choice, as the utility of children declines, and means of effective contraception increase. The balance between birth and death is initially disturbed by man interference with birth

death process through measure of nutrition, Health and civil order and interference especially virulent in the world's poor countries *(Hchaman, 1975).*

When developing countries entered the process of demographic transition, as far as mortality is concerned, they could achieve a speedier decline, without substantial increase in standard of living. This was possible mainly due to medical advances and expertise required. In the 1960 United Nation developed the approach of there should hypothesis. This hypothesis ultimately divides the world into those nation marked by low fertility. Gross Reproduction Rate with less is than two (GRR<2) and those with relatively high fertility (GRR>2). The two groups show a substantial difference on indicator of income per capita energy consumption, urbanization, non-agricultural activities, hospital bed and life expectancy at birth, infant mortality, early marriage, female literacy, newspaper circulation, radio receivers and cinema attendance. At same time, within each group, there is great range on the values. The writers of UN documents stated that in developing countries. Where fertility is initially high, improving economic and social conditions are likely to have little if any effect on fertility until a certain economic and social level reached, but once that level is achieved, fertility is likely to enter a decided decline and to continue down ward until it is again established on much lower plane *(UN, 1993).* Davis and Blake (1956) developed and analytical framework for the comparative sociology of fertility in which they defined a set of eleven variables that they called the intermediate variables. This framework first provides a classification of the intermediate variables through which any social factor influencing the level of fertility must operate. These are intercourse conception and gestation variables. On the basis examine how some types and element of social organization enhance or depress societal fertility. In the sociological literature, the intermediate variables are viewed as being directly related to specific aspect of social and economic structure, as reflected for example by such indicator as income, education of the wife, occupation of husband area of residence and some summary index of overall socio- economic status; or indirectly through social norms or standard of behavior regarding family size and of the intermediate variables themselves *(cited in Herrin ei., 1983)*

The fertility transition has a single global event and is an aspect of the creation of the global economy and society. These complications explain the hesitant way in which the link between fertility and poverty has been summarized in the recent research

literature. The dominant tone is caution and uncertainty in the face of a complex relationship. There is a little in this literature to support a strong poverty based rationale for reducing fertility. The most that the 1992 UNFPA consultative meeting of economists could conclude on the matter was the "The caused links between population growth and absolute deprivation are not well understood. Research has not established a strong causal link running from high fertility to poverty" *(cited in McNicoll et al., 1997).*

Three new measures—capturing multidimensional inequality, gender disparities and extreme deprivation—are introduced in this year's Report. The Inequality-adjusted HDI, Gender Inequality Index and Multidimensional Poverty Index, building on innovations in the field and advances in theory and data, are applied to most countries in the world and provide important new insights *(HDR, 2010).*

2.8 Poverty Monitoring Concept and Coverage

Traditionally, monitoring of development activities in Nepal as focused largely on expenditure or input monitoring, with limited effort in physical progress and result or output monitoring. Since poverty is a complex and multi-dimensional phenomenon and income based poverty is only one aspect of it, poverty monitoring is more than tracking and measuring income based poverty. Non-material components such as human development, social indicator, environmental and gender issues, accountability and are in fact linked one another. Only the large income and expenditure survey are not and important part of any poverty monitoring system, it needs to be supplemented by light, raid monitoring surveys focusing on human poverty and by participatory poverty assessment and accountability mechanism *(NPC, 2004)*

In this context, the second Nepal Living Standard Survey 2003/2004 provides, the comparable trends data on poverty with those of the first Nepal living standard survey 1995/1996 *(NLSS-I).* Poverty monitoring involves tracking of inputs and outputs of programmes and projects along with monitoring of indicators of well-being, or out comes as well as assessing the impacts of specific policies on poverty *(NPC, 2004).*

Sustainable Pro-poor policies: Sustainable Pro-poor policies include the following: (i) starting community participation at the very beginning of project; (ii) ensuring that cost recovery and subsidy rules are clear and transparent; (iii) making formal, long arrangements for operating and maintaining systems an integral part of the design;

(iv) discussing all feasible technical options and their costs with communities; (v) coordinating projects with the development plans of local governments form very beginning; and (vi) confirming that the local government has a strong commitment to the project and poverty reduction *(World Bank, 2001).*

Millennium Development Goal

In September 2000, the global community pledged to meet the United Nations Millennium Development Goals and committed themselves to work towards reducing half the proportion of people living less than a dollar by the year 2015 (Millennium project, 2005b). The millennium Development Goals are the world's time-bond and quantified targets for addressing extreme poverty in its many dimensions- income poverty, hunger, disease, lack of adequate shelter, and exclusion- while promoting gender equality, education and environment sustainability. They are also basic human rights – the right of each person on the planet to health, education, shelter and security as pledged in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the UN Millennium Declaration. UN Millennium Project to assess the resource requirements for attaining the selected MDGs mentioned below:

- Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger;
- Achieve universal primary education;
- Promote gender equality and empower women;
- Reduce child mortality;
- Improve maternal health;
- Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases;
- Ensure environmental sustainability, and
- Promote the construction of rural roads and extension of rural electrification.

It gives us opportunity to cut the world poverty by half. Billion more people could enjoy the fruit of the global economy. Tens of millions of lives can be saved. The practical solution exists by these goals. The political framework is established. And for the first time, the cost is utterly affordable *(Millennium project, 2005).*

Eradicating extreme poverty and hunger is the first among the eight goals, which reflects the priority attached to these two human maladies. Two targets and five indicators have been chosen to quantitatively measure the progress in achieving this goal. Target 1 is to halve the proportion of people whose income is less than one

dollar a day. However, for this study, instead of the international value, the nationally defined poverty line income of NRs. 19261 per capita per year *(NLSS, 2010/11)* prices has been used. In this context, Nepal Living Standard Survey (2010/11) used some new concept on measuring poverty.

Table 2 Long term target for poverty alleviation (in four periodic plans)

Periodic plan	Target
9th plan (1998-2002) AD	to reduce from 45 percent to 32.5 percent
10^{th} plan (2003-2008) AD	to reduce from 32.5 percent to 22.5 percent
TYIP (2010-13) AD	to reduce poverty to 21 percent (at the end)

Source: 9^{th}, 10^{th} & Interim plan (2010-13)

2.9 Poverty and Fertility

Malthus (1798) was one of those who attempted to explain relationship between the population growth and food productions. The Malthusian stand implied a relation between poverty and fertility. According to him, cause of poverty is mainly because of insufficient human restraint in reproduction. This view was seriously question by Mark and other scholars. Marx (1859) argued that cause of poverty is due to exploitative economic institution of capitalist. Another perspective in fertility analysis considers the values and disvalues of children. Leibenstein (1954) suggested in deciding on whether or not to have additional children. The benefits that children include that parents evaluate the costs and benefits of children provide parent include their consumption value as productive agents, and both the value as a source of old age security.

The long term vision of Nepal Government is to provide the help to the Nepalese people live a quality life for all by owning different aspects of effective population management as an integral part of development and human rights. By 2017, the vision is to bring the fertility rate to the level of replacement through the medium of women empowerment and poverty alleviation (NPC-2007). Nepal's one-fourth the population lives below the poverty line, and about one third of the population lives without clear water. These are people who do not have access to basic needs such as food, health and education. Half the children are malnourished and underweight. Half the people

are jobless in Nepal. Average income of Nepal is less than $200 a year. About 15 percent of the Nepalese have access to health services. Nearly half the children's in Nepal are under weight. Nepal's most of the poor people live in rural areas yet still a huge percentage of poor people struggle in cities trying to make ends meet. About 80 percent of Nepalese are farmers.

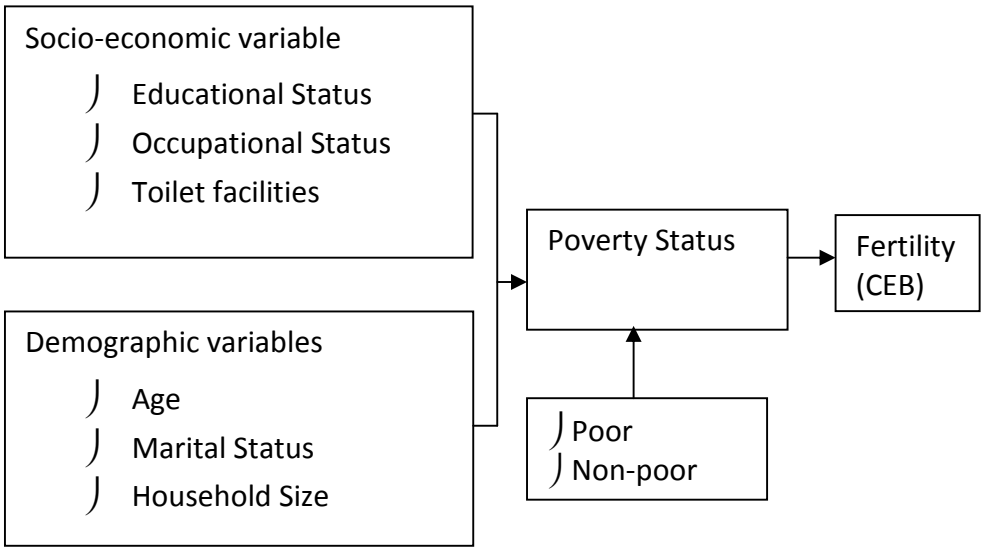
Simultaneous development of social sectors like education, health and drinking water and sanitation is necessary for all round development of the country. So, measure is necessary for the fulfillment of commitments made at international level in the areas of controlling water born disease and ensuring supply of clean drinking water. There is necessary consider about health sector need to focus on improving the management of their financial and human resources raise awareness among majority on the environment and family personal hygiene, with the pre-requisites for capable, productive disciplined and healthy citizen in the country. Nepal got progress in the no income dimensions of human development remarkable. Nepal has a success in reduce maternal mortality, fertility and child mortality rate so increase non -economic dimension of human development index *(HDR, 2010).*

2.10 Conceptual Framework

The following concepts are used in current study. Their relevance for the study and the dimension of empirical reality that is needed to explore for investigating the problem under study indicated as bellows:

- Poverty is multidimensional issue but, in this study only income base poverty is examined. The main indicator line between poor and non-poor is new national poverty line which has been fixed at Rs 19,261 per person per year, *(NLSS_III,2010/11)* that has estimated food poverty line at Rs 11,929 and non-food item requirements at Rs 7,332 per person per year.
- Previous studies have indicated that socio-economic factors play an important role in determining fertility. There are many theories on models in determining poverty and fertility. Regarding this issue Davis/Black (1956) and Bongaarts (1981) are in the opinion that changes in socio-economic condition of people bring change in the values of characteristics directly associated with reproductive behaviors of women.

Figure 2.4 Conceptual Framework



Source: Modified from Dahal N.P., 2001

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Study Site and its Justification

The study has been carried out on Surumkhim VDC of Taplejung District. The VDC is a remote area with a majority of Janajatis. Although the people have been attracted to the cultivation of cash crops but due to traditional practices of farming, lack of irrigation, poor support for seeds and use of modern know-how and also disparity of land ownership pattern could not yield sufficient production of food; thus, resulting the absolute poverty and high fertility in the study area.

3.2 Target Population

As the study is related to poverty and fertility of the women aged 15-49. The respondents are the women from 15-49 age group of Surumkhim VDC (Ward 1-9). Lack of basic information, no women empowerment programme is focused there, so women in this VDC are more suffering from poverty with high fertility.

3.3 Research Method

Both the quantitative and qualitative research methods have been used to strengthen the study. On quantitative aspect, the data are taken by the scientific formulated questions by the researcher.

3.4 Study Variables and Issues

The major study variables are annual income and children ever born of women aged 15-49 years. The key issue is to examine either there is positive or negative correlation between poverty and fertility among the women 15-49 in the study area. For this purpose, the correlation between income level and CEB is examined.

3.5 Sampling Methods

This study is based on multistage probability sampling. Various sampling methods have been incorporated such as simple random sampling for selecting first sample, stratified random sampling for maintain the caste proportion and systematic random sampling (selecting second, third and other samples) to strengthen the research design.

3.6 Sample size, Sampling Procedures

For this study, Surumkhim VDC of Taplejung District was selected. There are 332 households with 10 different castes in nine wards. Out of nine wards, sampling was performed on each ward with a sample of all castes in same proportion. The survey was designed to obtain completed interviews of 96 women age 15-49. Among the 332 households, 96 households were chosen for maintaining 29 percent at sample size. The first household was selected by lottery method (Simple Random Sampling) then a difference of three households another sample was drawn (Stratified Random Sampling) fulfilling the proportion of sample in each household. The total 515 populations were listed with 262 females and 253 males.

3.7 Tools and Techniques for Data Collection

3.7.1 Quantitative Tools - Questionnaire Design

The data was collected by preparing questionnaire as guided by research supervisor. For the respondents both structural and nonstructural questionnaire was used. The household questionnaire was designed to obtain demographic and socio-economic information of respondents to achieve the objectives of study with two households and individual sections.

3.8 Pre-testing

Five questionnaires were pre-tested on Mehele VDC of Taplejung district which resembles with the socio-economic, demographic and topographical structure of Surumkhim VDC. The questionnaire was edited according to the feedback of the respondents of the pre-tested area.

3.9 Validity and Reliability of Research

The study has high validity and reliability. The researcher himself has visited the field to interview the respondents with a scheduled questionnaire. Moreover, the respondents were convinced that the data were not used on the other except this thesis. Every question was asked in simple Nepali by researcher.

3.10 Data Analysis

Editing and coding of the data was done after the completion of the interview. After the data collection, post coding, editing and scrutinizing were performed. Then the collected data was entered in computer using SPSS. Interpretations of tables were done based on Number distribution and percentage distribution. The association between the poverty and fertility was interpreted by correlation. A simple correlation was performed to examine the relationship between fertility and poverty.

A correlation coefficient (R) indicates whether the two variables are associated or not. It gives the degree and direction of relationship. Its value between-1 to 1. The value of R within the range of 0.00-0.19 indicates weak correlation, 0.20-0.39 (moderate), 0.40- 0.59 (modest/good), 0.60-0.79 (strong), and 0.80 and above (highly strong).

CHAPTER FOUR

SOCIO- ECONOMIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTIC OF STUDY POPULATION

This Chapter deals with the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of study population.

4. Demographic and Socio-Economic Characteristics of Study Population

4.1 Age and Sex Distribution of Sample Population

The total population of the study area was recorded 515 of 96 households. Out of 515 sample population are 253 males (49.13 percent) and 262 female (50.87 percent). The sex ratio is found 96.19 which show that female population is relatively larger than male population. The age group 5-9 years consists the highest percent of female (16.8 percent) and male (15.8 percent) both sex (16.3 percent).

Table 4.1 Percent Distribution of Population by Age and Sex

Age Group	Sex				Total		Sex Ratio
	Male		Female				
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
0-4	28	11.1	29	11.1	57	11.1	96.5
5-9	40	15.8	44	16.8	84	16.3	90.9
10-14	39	15.4	43	16.4	82	15.9	90.6
15-19	36	14.4	36	13.7	72	14.0	100.0
20-24	22	8.7	20	7.6	42	8.2	110.0
25-29	18	7.1	17	6.5	35	6.8	105.8
30-34	10	4.0	12	4.6	22	4.3	83.3
35-39	16	6.3	21	8.0	37	7.2	76.2
40-44	21	8.3	20	7.6	41	8.0	105.0
45-49	12	4.7	12	4.6	24	4.7	100.0
50-54	6	2.4	4	1.5	10	1.9	150.0
55-59	3	1.2	0	0.0	3	0.6	-
60+	2	0.8	4	1.6	6	1.2	50.0
Total	253	100.0	262	100	515	100	96.2

Source: Field Survey, 2011

4.2 Caste of the Study Population

Table 4.2 showed different ethnic group composition. Out of total population, the highest number of population composition observed for Rai 19.4 percent, followed by Limbu 19 percent, Gurung 17.9 percent, Chhetri 13.6 percent, Tamang 16.3 percent, Kami 6.6 percent Newar 3.1 percent, Barahmin 1.7 percent and Damai 0.8 percent respectively.

Table 4.2 Percent Distribution of Population by Ethnicity and sex.

Ethnicity	Sex				Total	
	Male		Female			
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Rai	44	17.4	56	21.4	100	19.4
Limbu	51	20.2	47	17.9	98	19.0
Gurung	46	18.2	46	17.6	92	17.9
Chhetri	33	13.0	37	14.1	70	13.6
Kami	17	6.7	17	6.5	34	6.6
Damai	3	1.2	1	0.4	4	0.8
Tamang	46	18.2	38	14.5	84	16.3
Barhmin	4	1.6	5	1.9	9	1.7
Giri	4	1.6	4	1.5	8	1.6
Newar	5	2.0	11	4.2	16	3.1
Total	253	100.0	262	100.0	515	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

4.3 Literacy and the Educational Status of the Study Population

The educational status of the population is an important factor in demography because education affects all aspect of human life such as occupation, income, age at marriage, fertility, mortality and living standard. Information on education was collected only for those who were 6 or older at the time of survey. Table 4.3 shows that out of 458 population 83 percent were found literate and 17 percent illiterate yet. The percent of male literate is higher (91.1 percent) than female (75.1 percent). The female literate at primary level (64.6 percent) is higher than male (50.2 percent), but at lower secondary and secondary is lesser than male. Percent of literate in both sex primary 56.8 percent,

lower secondary 23.7 percent, secondary 17.9 percent and higher 1.6 percent at higher level percent of female is also high.

Table 4.3 Percent Distribution of Population by Literacy and Education Status (5 years and above)

Literacy Status	Sex				Total	
	Male		Female			
	Number	percent	Number	percent	Number	Percent
Literate	205	91.1	175	75.1	380	83
Illiterate	20	8.9	58	24.9	78	17
Total	225	100.0	233	100.0	458	100.0
Level of Educational Attainment of Literate Population (5 years and above)						
Primary	103	50.2	113	64.6	216	56.8
Lower Secondary	62	30.2	28	16.0	90	23.7
Secondary	37	18.1	31	17.7	68	17.9
Higher Secondary	3	1.5	3	1.7	6	1.6
Total	205	100.0	175	100.0	380	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

4.4 Marital Status of Study Population

Table 4.4 shows that out of total population 67.8 percent are married and 29.8 percent are unmarried, 2.1 percent are widow and 0.7 percent are divorced. Among the male and female the ratio is slightly different i.e. 66.4 percent male and 69.2 percent. The male unmarried ratio is slightly higher than female. Unmarried male are 32.1 percent and female are 27.4 percent. The percent of female (3.4 percent) widow is higher than male (0.8 percent) but divorce case is seen only in male (0.7).

Table 4.4 Percent Distribution of Population by Marital Status (10 years and above)

Marital Status	Sex		Total
	Male	Female	
Married	66.4	69.2	67.8
Unmarried	32.1	27.4	29.8
Widow	0.8	3.4	2.1
Divorce	0.7	0.0	0.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

4.5 Occupational Status of Household Population

The information on occupation status of population was collected during sample survey. It is regarded as one of the leading economic variables in demographic studies. It affects demographic and socio-economic status.

The table 4.5 shows that the student is the highest 49.5 percent followed by farmer 41.7 percent, foreign employer 4.1 percent, other services (iron work, health worker) 3.2 percent and businessman 1.4 percent respectively.

Table 4.5 Occupation Status by Caste and Ethnicity (10 years and above)

Occupation	Caste and Ethnicity (in percent)										Total
	Rai	Limbu	Gurung	Chhetri	Kami	Damai	Tamang	Bahun	Giri	Newar	
Agriculture	39.0	39.8	50.7	42.6	34.5	50.0	40.3	12.5	50.0	42.9	41.7
Student	52.9	51.8	44.3	44.4	51.7	50.0	48.6	75.0	33.3	57.1	49.5
Businessman	2.3	2.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.4
Foreign Employer	3.4	2.4	3.8	7.4	3.4	0.0	5.6	0.0	16.7	0.0	4.1
Other service	2.3	3.6	1.3	5.6	10.3		2.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

4.6 Annual Income of Household

The level of income plays important role and determines level of living standard and other economic activities. The table shows that out of 96 household 52.08 percent had annual income < Rs.50000, followed by 25.0 percent had annual income Rs.50000-99999 and only 2.08 percent households had income Rs.500000+. It shows that 90.63 percent of household had yearly income below Rs.200000 (comparing with national average Rs.202,374), they have no sufficient resources for maintain basic needs. (Two families have just separated from their father's dwelling and they have no any separated income in the last 12 month).

Table 4.6 Percent Distribution of Household Annual income

Income	Number	Percent
0-9999	7	7.29
10000-49999	43	44.79
50000-99999	24	25
100000-149999	10	10.42
150000-199999	3	3.13
200000-499999	7	7.29
500000+	2	2.08

Source: Field Survey, 2011

4.7 Distribution of Poor and Non poor household according to their Income

The majority of total households 68.70 percent are poor and 31.30 percent are non-poor according to their annual per capita income of Rs.19261 according to NLSS 2010/11. It indicates that 68.70 percent of total population lives below poverty line.

Table 4.7 Distribution of Household Annual Income by Caste

Caste & Ethnicity	Annual Income		Total
	<Rs.19261 (percent)	Rs.19261> (percent)	
Rai	13.5	5.3	18.8
Limbu	14.6	5.2	19.8
Gurung	12.5	5.2	17.7
Chhetri	8.3	8.3	16.7
Kami	5.2	1.0	6.2
Damai	1.0	0.0	1.0
Tamang	9.4	4.2	13.6
Barhmian	0.0	1.0	1.0
Giri	2.1	0.0	2.1
Newar	2.1	1.0	3.1
Total	68.7	31.3	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

4.8 Distribution of Land

The population under study is mostly relying on the land production. The activities of population are determined by type and amount of land they hold. They have generally three kinds of land fields (Pakha Bari, Cardamom field and Khet) holding for agricultural production. The average land holding for the households under study is shown in table 4.8. The highest percent households 32.3 percent reported to have 10-19 Ropani land followed by 28.1 percent have 1-9 Ropani land, 19.8 percent have 30-39 Ropani, 10.4 percent have 50+ Ropani and 9.4 percent have 40-49 Ropani respectively. Out of total 95 households 59.4 percent households have less than 30 Ropanis with which they couldn't feed their family throughout the year and they have to borrow the money from businessman with high rate 30 percent of interest and they are compelled to buy household requirements in an expensive cost rate.

Table 4.8 Percent Distribution of Household by Size of Land

Size of Land (in Ropani)	Number	Percent
1-9	27	28.1
10-19	31	32.3
30-39	19	19.8
40-49	9	9.4
50+	10	10.4
Total	96	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

4.9 Food Self-sufficiency

Table 4. 9 shows that out of 96 households 61.5 percent have a access only less than 3months, 11.5 percent households have access to 3 month only and 17.7 percent have access to food for a year. It shows that 82.6 percent households no enough food for a year; thus, living in poverty. They have to borrow the food from businessman in high cost and borrow money in high rate of interest. They are compelled to sell cardamom in fewer prices.

Table 4.9 Percent Distribution of Households by Food Self-sufficiency

Time	Number	Percent
Less than 3 month	11	11.5
3 to 6 month	59	61.5
6 to 9 month	9	9.4
Food Sufficient for a Year	17	17.7
Total	96	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

4.10 Average Family Size

The table 4.10 shows that the highest 21.9 percent size of family number is 4 followed by 20.8 percent 6 numbers. The total numbers of population is 515 and the average size of total 96 households is 5.36 per family.

Table 4.10 Average household's size

Size of Family	Number	Percent
2-4	32	33.3
5-7	53	56.2
7+	11	11.4
Total	96	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

4.11 Demographic and Socio-economic Characteristics of the Respondents

The respondents of this study area are married woman of reproductive age (15 to 49). Therefore, the age of respondents ranges from 15 to 49 years only. The age composition of female population is one major demographic indicator for fertility performance. The population is found higher in the middle age group (20 to 35), the fertility rate might be higher because it is considered as the most fertile period of reproductive span.

4.11.1 Age Structure

Age structure is important components of demography. Table 4.11 shows that, the highest percent of respondents were at the age group 35 to 39 (20.8 percent), followed by the age group 40-44 (19.8 percent). Age group 15-19 constitutes the lowest proportion 4.2 percent of the respondents.

Table 4.11 Distribution of respondents by 5 years age group

Age group	Number	Percent
15-19	4	4.2
20-24	11	11.5
25-29	17	17.7
30-34	12	12.5
35-39	20	20.8
40-44	19	19.8
45-49	13	13.5
Total	96	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

4.11.2 Ethnicity

Table 4.12 shows that among the different ethnic group Limbu constitute the highest 19.8 percent of the respondents, followed by Rai 18.8 percent, Gurung 17.7 percent, Chhetri 16.7 percent, Tamang 13.5 percent, Kami 6.2 percent, Newar 3.1 percent, Giri 2.1 percent and Damai 1 percent respectively. The ethnic group Limbu, Rai, Gurung , Tamang and Chhetri are the main caste.

Table 4.12 Distribution of respondents by Ethnicity

Caste	Number	Percent
Limbu	19	19.8
Rai	18	18.8
Gurung	17	17.7
Chhetri	16	16.7
Tamang	13	13.5
Kami	6	6.2
Newar	3	3.1
Giri	2	2.1
Barhmian	1	1.0
Damai	1	1.0
Total	96	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

4.11.3 Age at Marriage

Marriage is universal in Nepal. The relative importance an direction of this study being mean age at marriage of female, attempt have been made here to reflect number of woman by their age at marriage. According to table 4.13 the highest percent of woman 44.8 percent were married at the age of 15-19 followed by 32.3 percent at the age of 20-24. Woman had married at age group 30 above 3.1 percent . Age group less than 15 were 15.6 percent, the early marriage practice is common at study area. The mean age at first marriage is 19.02 years.

Table 4.13 Percent Distribution of respondents by Age at first marriage

Age at Marriage	Number	Percent
Less than 15	15	15.6
15-19	43	44.8
20-24	31	32.3
25-30	4	4.2
30 above	3	3.1
Total	96	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

4.4.4 Age at First Birth

Table 4.13 shows that age at first birth of respondents, in Nepal priority is given for birth after marriage. The marriage is the first stage of fertility performance of woman. Highest number of woman 13 at age 20 had given first birth followed by 12 women age 21. It is showed that below at 17 and above age 27 year is comparatively lesser. In this study mean age at first birth of respondents is 21.14 year. Among them19 women have no any birth yet.

Table 4.13 Distribution of respondents by Age at first Birth

Age at first Birth	Number	Percent
15-19	24	31.2
20-24	42	54.6
25-29	7	9.1
30-34	3	3.8
35+	1	1.3
Total	77	100

Source: Field Survey, 2011

CHAPTER FIVE

KNOWLEDGE AND USE OF FAMILIY PLANNING METHOD

5.1 Knowledge of Family Planning.

Information about family planning is the important factor to determine the fertility. In the study area out of 85.10 percent of women have information about family planning and 14.89 percent have only little information about it.

Table 5.1 Distribution of respondents by Knowledge of Family Planning

Response	Number	Percent
Yes	80	85.10
No	14	14.89
Not stated	2	2.1
Total	96	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

5.2 Current Use of Family Planning

Table 5.2 shows that respondents who have used family planning. Out of total 45.8 percent was used family planning and 52.1 percent were not using family planning.

Table 5.2 Current use of Family Planning

Response	Number	Percent
Yes	44	45.8
No	50	52.1
Not Stated	2	2.1
Total	96	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

5.3 Types of Contraceptive Use

A woman's desire and ability to control her fertility and her choice of contraceptive method are in part affected by her status in the household and her own sense of empowerment. A woman who feels that she is unable to control her life may be less likely to feel she can make and carry out decisions about her fertility. She may also feel the need to choose methods that are less obvious or which do not depend on her

husband's cooperation. The family program is important for fertility. Table 4.15 shows the highest percent of respondents were used of Dipo-provera 33.3 percent, male sterilization 4.2 percent, pills 3.1 percent , condom and female sterilization 2.1 percent.

Table 5.3 Distribution of respondents by types of contraceptives use

Contraceptives	Number	Percent
Male sterilization	4	4.2
Female sterilization	2	2.1
Pill	3	3.1
Condom	2	2.1
Dipo-provera	32	33.3
Total	44	45.8

Source: Field Survey, 2011

5.3.1 Reason of Respondents not to Use Contraceptives

It is showed that highest percent of respondents 13.5 percent had not used contraceptives due to desire of another child, 11.5 percent of respondents due to husband away, 9.4 percent afraid of losing health and 7.3 percent stopped used of Depo-provera due to side effect.

Table 5.4 Reason for not to using Contraceptives

Reason for not using contraceptive	Number	Percent
Due to long distance	2	2.1
Don't know the place	3	3.1
Husband away	11	11.5
Afraid of losing health	9	9.4
Desire of another child	13	13.5
Effect of Depo-provera	10	10.4
Not allowed by husband	2	2.1
Total	50	52.1

Source: Field Survey, 2011

5.4 Family Planning Use by Caste and Ethnicity

Table 5.5 showed that 27.3 percent of respondents were Rai ethnic group, followed by 18.2 percent are Tamang, 15.9 percent Limbu, 13.2 percent Gurung, 11.4 percent Chhetri, 4.5 Kami and 2.3 percent Damai.

Table 5.5 Percent Distribution of respondents by Caste

Caste	Contraceptive used						Total
	Male sterilization	Female sterilization	Pill	Condom	Dipo-provera	Not allowed husband	
Rai	25.0	50.0	0.0	50.0	28.1	0.0	27.3
Limbu	0.0	0.0	0.0	50.0	15.6	100.0	15.9
Gurung	25.0	0.0	33.3	0.0	12.5	0.0	13.6
Chhetri	25.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	9.4	0.0	11.4
Kami	0.0	0.0	33.3	0.0	3.1	0.0	4.5
Damai	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.1	0.0	2.3
Tamang	25.0	0.0	33.3	0.0	18.8	0.0	18.2
Barhmian	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.1	0.0	2.3
Newar	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.2	0.0	4.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

5.5 Family Planning and Poverty Status

Table 5.6 shows, used of contraceptives difference between poor and non-poor respondents, 58.1 percent respondents of poor group were used contraceptives and 41.9 percent respondents of non-poor groups used contraceptives. Percent of use contraceptives by poor group is higher than non- poor group.

Table 5.6 Percent Distribution of respondents by Family Planning and Poverty Status

Use of Family Planning	Poverty Status		Total
	Poor	Non-poor	
Male sterilization	4.3	4.3	8.6
Female sterilization	0.0	4.3	4.3
Pill	6.4	0.0	6.4
Condom	4.3	0.0	4.3
Dipo-provera	48.9	19.1	68.0
Other	2.1	6.3	8.4
Total	66.0	34.0	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

CHAPTER SIX

ANALYSIS OF POVERTY STATUS AND SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

6.1 Ethnicity and Poverty Status

The 2001 Census listed 103 diverse Ethnic/caste Groups, each with its own distinct language and culture. The percent breakdown by size of some of these major groups is as follows: Chhetri (16 percent), Brahmins (13 percent), Magar (7 percent), Tharu (7 percent), Tamang (6 percent), and Newar (5 percent).

Table 6.1 shows the distribution of households by poverty status according to ethnicity of study area. The majority of households 68.70 percent are poor and 31.30 percent are non-poor according to their income of Rs.19261. It indicates that 68.70 percent of total population lives below poverty line. It is behind the national average of population who are living below poverty line. It's main cause may be the lack of fertile land. Most of the Janajati had only 3 to 6 month food sufficiency. They have to borrow the debt in high interest from money lender and businessman for additional food supply. Table 6.1b present information about poverty, 65.3 percent poor borrowed debt and 34.7 percent non-poor and the highest percent 56.6 percent range from Rs. 10001-50000 . Poverty was not limited in one group but had spread all the ethnicity; others were also suffering from poverty in study area. Out of 96 households highest 100 percent Brahmins were non-poor and then Chhetris 66.7 percent were non poor and all rest is poor.

Table 6.1 Percent Distribution of households by Ethnicity and Poverty Status

Caste & Ethnicity	Poverty Status		Total (percent)
	Poor	Non-poor	
Rai	11.7	7.4	19.1
Limbu	13.8	5.3	19.1
Gurung	12.8	5.3	18.1
Chhetri	5.3	10.6	16.0
Kami	3.2	3.2	6.4
Damai	1.1	0.0	1.1
Tamang	9.6	4.3	13.8
Barhmian	0.0	1.1	1.1
Giri	2.1	0.0	2.1
Newar	2.1	1.1	3.2
Total	68.70	31.30	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Table 6.2 Percent Distribution of Debt by Poverty Status

Debt	Poverty Status		Total (%)
	Poor (%)	Non-poor (%)	
<Rs. 10000	12.5	9.7	22.2
10001-50000	38.9	16.7	55.6
50001-100000	12.5	4.2	16.7
100001-500000	1.4	4.2	5.6
Total	65.3	34.7	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

6.2 Households Size and Poverty Status

It shows that a poor household tends to be larger number of family than non- poor households. Since poverty measured in the basis of per capita income, and increasing households size while keeping total income constant, will make households poorer. Hence, increasing household's size is also increase poverty.

Table 6.3 shows the distribution of poverty status according to the household size. Household size has been categorized in to less than 4 members, 5 to 8 members and 9+ members. There is considerable difference between poverty statuses according to the household's size. Out of 96 households 35.1 percent poor had households size of 5-8 members, whereas only 24.5 percent had the size of non- poor. The highest household's member 9+ had 4.3 percent poor and 3.2 percent non-poor households.

Table 6.3 Percent Distribution of Household by Size and Poverty Status

Family Member	Poverty Status		Total
	Poor	Non-poor	
< 4 members	22.3	10.6	33.0
5-8	35.1	24.5	59.6
9+	4.3	3.2	7.4
Total	68.70	31.30	100

Source: Field Survey, 2011

6.3 Toilet Facility and Poverty Status

Table 6.4 shows that 28 percent have no toilet among them 97.1 percent households have temporary toilet. Out of total households, 22.6 percent poor households have no

toilets. Lack of toilet facilities was more common in poor groups than non-poor groups. Only 2.9 percent households have toilet facilities in good condition.

Table 6.4 Percent Distribution of households by toilet facility and poverty status

Toilet Response	Poverty status		Total (%)
	Poor (%)	Non-poor (%)	
Yes	39.8	32.3	72.0
No	22.6	5.4	28.0
Total	62.4	37.6	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Table 6.5 Percent Distribution of households by Type of Toilet and Poverty Status

Type of Toilet	Poverty Status		Total (%)
	Poor (%)	Non-Poor (%)	
Temporary	52.9	44.1	97.1
Permanent	1.5	1.5	2.9
Total	54.4	45.6	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2011

6.4 Fertility and Poverty Status.

Table 6.6 shows that between the poor and non -poor households, CEB is slightly different, 3.95 in poor group and 3.58 non poor groups. It indicates that poor woman age 15-49 has had nearly 4 births and non- poor had more than 3 births. The mean CEB at study are is 3.80. Poverty and fertility are directly related to each other.

Table 6.6 Distribution of respondents by Poverty and Fertility

Poverty status	Children	woman	CEB
Poor	229	58	3.95
Non poor	129	36	3.58
Total	358	94	3.80

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Table 6.7 shows Pearson correlation between CEB and income of household is (–0.005). The negative sign shows inverse relation between the CEB and income of households. This shows that lower the income level higher the CEB.

Table 6.7 Pearson correlation between Income and CEB

Correlations			
		Children Ever Born	Total Income
Ever birth	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.005
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.0	0.959
	N	96	95
Total Income	Pearson Correlation	-0.005	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.959	0.0
	N	95	95

Source: Field Survey, 2011

6.5 Mean CEB of woman by Age at Marriage and Poverty

Low age at marriage of woman have longer exposure to child bearing than late married woman. So, they are more likely to have larger number of CEB. Table 6.8 presents the distribution of mean CEB to a woman by their age at marriage and poverty status. The mean CEB to a low age at marriage of woman is found highest 4.6 among women from poor group of the households than that of non-poor groups of households 4.5. As expected, mean CEB to women from poor group is higher than non-poor group except age of age group 20-24 of non-poor group. Within poor group households, mean CEB to a woman at age group less than 15 is higher 4.67 than non-poor group 2. Age group 15-19 at poor households was 4.61 than non- poor group 3.5 CEB, 3.78 CEB of household's age 20-24 poor group and 4.5 in non -poor group. Age of 25-30 was 3.4 at poor households and 3 in non- poor households, in age of 30+ the CEB is slightly lower than other groups.

Table 6.8 Distribution of mean CEB of respondents by Age at Marriage and Poverty Status

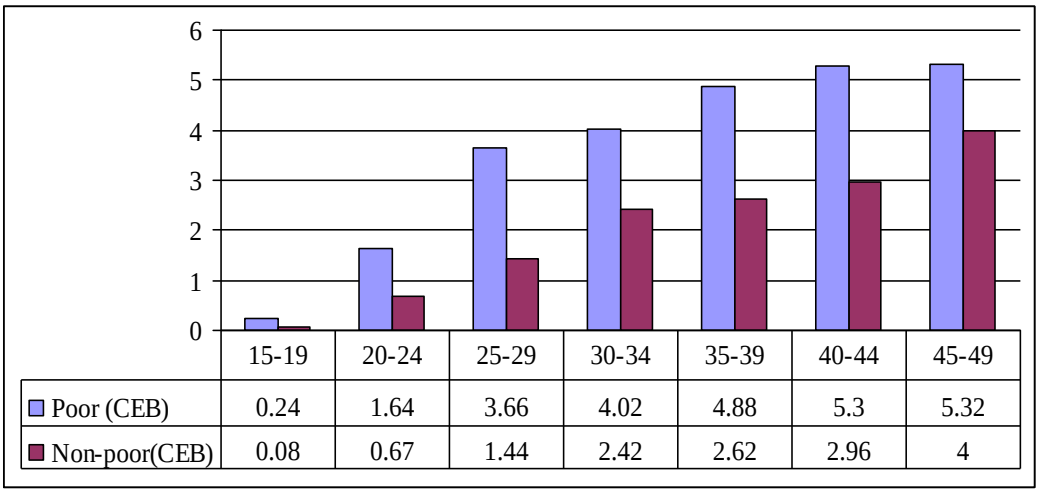
Age at Marriage	Poverty Status				Total
	Poor		Non poor		
	No of woman	CEB	No of woman	CEB	
Less than 15	3	4.7	1	2.0	4
15-19	13	4.6	10	3.5	23
20-24	23	3.8	16	4.5	39
25-30	5	3.4	1	3.0	6
30+	4	2.5	0	0.0	4
Total	48	Mean = 3.8	28	Mean = 2.6	76

Source: Field Survey, 2011

Mean CEB of women by household size and poverty status in National level

The mean numbers of children ever born (CEB) among married Nepali women of reproductive age and among women aged 40-49 were three and five children, respectively. There are considerable differentials in the average number of children ever born according to women's demographic, socio-economic, and cultural settings. Regression analysis revealed that age at first marriage, perceived ideal number of children, place of residence, literacy status, religion, mass media exposure, use of family planning methods,

Figure 6.1 Mean CEB of women by Poverty Status to their Age Groups



Source: Adopted by NLSS data file, 2003/04

6.6 Children ever born

The highest number of women (64) has 0-4 CEB, followed by 25 who have CEB 5-9 and 4 numbers of women have CEB 10 or more. Similarly, between poor and non-poor group, highest number of woman 43 have 0-4 CEB and 21 non poor woman groups have 0-4 CEB followed by 18 poor group and 7 non poor group.

Table 6.9 Distribution of mean CEB of respondents by Poverty Status

CEB	Poverty status		Total
	Number of Poor	Number of Non-poor	
0-4	43	21	64
5-9	18	7	25
10+	3	1	4
Total	64	29	93

Source: Field Survey, 2011

CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Summary of Findings

The study about poverty and fertility is based on primary data collected from 1-9 wards of Surumkhim VDC of Taplejung district. The study has used selected secondary data published from different sources. In this study, a random stratified sample method was used for data collection. The study covered 96 households from Surumkhim VDC and out of these households, 91 women were currently married at aged 15-49 and 5 widows were interviewed. The basic objective of this study was found out the income based poverty; analyze the relationship between the household size as well as poverty to the study area and examined its relationship with fertility behavior in basis of CEB. The poor and non-poor households were segregated on the basis of income; the poverty line was calculated at Rs.19261 per person per year to meet the expense on daily average of 2220 kilo calories from food basket and non-food item requirements.

Data processing and analysis was done using SPSS, mainly numerical tools e.g. percent, mean etc. and correlation (as analytical tool) were used. From 96 households a total of 515 people were enumerated consisting 253 males (49.13 percent) and 262 female (50.87 percent). The population Rai 19.4 percent is slightly higher than other. Literacy rate of total male was 91.9 percent and female was only 75.1 percent. Among 515 populations, agriculture is 41.7 percent followed by foreign employer 4.1 percent . Out of 96 households, 68.70 percent households were poor per capita income less than Rs.19261 per year and only 17.7 percent have access to food for a year. The average household's size is 5.36 per family.

Highest person of respondents were 35-39 aged groups women and the highest percent 44.8 percent at age first marriage was from15 to 19 aged groups. The mean age at marriage was 19.02 years. The highest percent 43.7 of age group 20-24 reported that they had their first birth during this period and the mean age at first birth 21.14 years.

In the study area, out of 96 respondents, 85.10 percent of women have information about family planning 38.5 percent were used family planning and 52.1 percent were

not using family planning due to desire of another child of respondents due to husband away, afraid of losing health and side effect of Depo-provera.

Out of 96 households 68.70 percent are poor and 31.30 percent are non- poor and 35.1 percent poor had households size of 5-8 members. In study area 97.1 percent households have temporary toilet they were not in good condition 28 percent of households have no toilet facilities. Between poor and non-poor groups the mean CEB is 3.95 and 3.48 respectively. According to NLSS (2010/11), 25 percent live below the poverty line Nepal. The average income of a households is Rs.89007.29 (lesser than national average Rs.202374) per year in study area with per person income Rs.16591.65 (lesser than national average Rs.19261) per year and average income of per person Rs.45.45 per day.

7.2 Conclusions

The result of analysis shows that the communities of Surumkhim focused in cash crop i.e cardamom cultivation and gave low priority in food grain. So they (76.04 percent) had to spend more money in food purchasing. Out of 96 households 73 (76.04 percent) households borrowed debt among 43 (58.90 percent) households bought food in credit from businessman. They had to face three types of disadvantage i.e. first high price in credit in purchasing food items, second high interest (30-36 percent) of debt and low price in selling cardamom to the money lender or businessman. That is one of the reasons of poverty in study area.

One common perception of the population problem starts with observation that poor households tends to be larger member than non-poor households. It is showed those poor households have larger family size compare to non-poor households but slightly. The bigger the poverty, the higher is the fertility. The mean CEB to a woman was found to higher in poor groups than non-poor groups. It shows that poverty and fertility are directly related to each other. Pearson correlation between CEB and income of household showed that lower the income level higher the CEB.

7.3 Recommendation

Based on the research study my recommendations are as followings;

- The government agency and NGOs have to adopt programme for eradicating poverty, establishing modern income generating activities through

employment creation and productivity, labour intensive public works, access to basic services, social funds, anti-discrimination activities and sensitization activities in participatory approach.

- The villagers need to co-operative groups or micro- finance in order to save from high interest rate from the money lender or the businessman.
- The fertility in study area is found higher than national level. Status of women plays important role in reducing fertility as well as poverty. The involvement of women in policy making bodies and porgamme implementation should be emphasized.
- This study is confined to a VDC level only. A large research covering with different part of nation is essential.
- Income based variables is used for measuring poverty. So, other measurement tools (Human poverty index, human development index, social exclusion, access of resources etc.) Should employ to explore the facts.

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Appendix - I

A Study on the Existing Relationship between Poverty and Fertility

QUESTIONARE SCHEDULE

2011

H.H. No.
Language:
Religion:
Date:

Ward No:
Name of Household:

A. House Hold information

I Education, Occupation and Martial Status Caste:

1. S.N	2.House Hold member name	3.Religion House hold	4.Sex	Age complete year	5. Marital status	Person 6 year and older				10.Occupation for person 15 years and older	For all those aged
						6.Can she/he read and write 1.yes 2. No	7. Has she/he ever attain at school 1.yes 2. No	8.Highest level of grade completed	9.Why she/he did not go to school		
1											
2											
3											
4											
5											
6											
7											
8											
9											
10											

Code for Question No

Code for Q. No 3	Code for Q. No 5	Code for Q. No 8	Code for Q. No 9	Code for Q. No 10
Kirat 1	Married 1	Primary 1	Guardian death 1	Farmer 1
Hindu 2	Unmarried 2	Lower Secondary 2	Far from home 2	Student 2
Buddhist 3	widow 4	Secondary 3	Not admitted 3	Herder 3
Christian 4	Divorce 5	Intermediate 4	No interest 4	Businessman 4
		Diploma 5	Sibling cure 5	Foreign employer 5
		Masters 6		Teacher 6
				Other service 7

ii) Economic Status of Household

11.Type of land ownership	12.Khet (Ropani)	13.Pakha Bari(Ropani)	14.Cardamom (Ropani)
Self-cultivation			
Cultivated by other			
Cultivated to other			

15. Have you get enough to eat from a year from your total crops production?
    a. Yes □ b. No. □
16. If no how many month does it last?
    a. less than 3 month □ b. 3 month to 6 month □ c. 6 month to 1 year□
    d. more than 1 year□
17. Does your own any livestock?
    a. Yes □ b. No □
18. If yes, the numbers of each type of livestock owned?

SN	Domestic animals	No.
1	Cow	
2	Buffalo	
3	Sheep	
4	Goat	
5	Chicken	
6	Yak	
7	Pig	
8	Others	

19. If you want to buy or sell your own a domestic animal. How much would it cost?
20. If you want to buy or sell your own a domestic animal. How much would it cost?
21. Could you tell me, is your dwelling owned or rented?
    a. owned □ b. rented □
22. What is the main type of materials used in the roof of this house?
    a. Tin □ b) Khar□ c. bamboo□ d. Others□
23. Is you have fixed latrine for household?
    a. Yes □ b. No□
    If yes what type of
    a. Temporary, Kachchi□b. Permanent, Pakki□
24. What is the main source of drinking water?
    a. Public tape □ b. Household tape□ c. well □ d. Khola□ e. others□
25. What is the main source of light in your home?
    a. kerosens □ b. solar power □ c. electricity □ d. others□

Income resources

26.Does your household make any income from the following sources during the past 12 month?

SN	Resources	Income in Rs	Types
1	Agriculture Agronomy Livestock Horticulture		
2	Salary wage		
3	Land lease		
4	Income from land		

5	Foreign employment		
6	Trade and other business		
7	Interest and bonus		
8	Pension		
9	Other		
	Total		

iii) Expenditure

SN	Item of Expenditure	Approximate Rs
1	Food expenses grain/pulse/vegetable/oil/ghee/milk	
2	Medical	
3	Education	
4	Clothes	
5	Water sanitation	
6	Travel	
7	Other (fuel, tobacco, drink.)	
	Total	

27. How much food grain you produce from your own land?

SN	Item	Total Production
1	Paddy	
2	Maize	
3	Wheat	
4	Barley	
5	Millet	
6	Others	
	Total	

28. Have got any case corps?

SN	Item	Total Production
1	Cardamom	
2	Tobaco	
3	Chiraita	
4	Other	
	Total	

29. Have you got any credit from anyone within this year?

a. yes □ b. No□

If yes, What is source

SN	Source	Amount	Interest	Rate
1	Money lender			
2	Co-operative			
3	Relative			
4	Business man			
5	Others			
	Total			

Individual Information

Fertility, Mortality and Family Planning (for only 15-49 currently married women)

30. How old are you when your first got married? age□

31. Have you ever given birth? Yes □ No. □
32. How many children have you ever born alive? □
    a) How many son and daughter are still living with you at home?
    b) How many are not living with you but still alive and living elsewhere?
    c) How many have died?
33. How old were you at the first of birth? age □
34. Has any member of your family died during the 12 month?
    a. Yes □ b. No. □

If yes tell me please

Member	Male	Female	Age
1			
2			
3			
4			

35. Have you ever lost your children? Yes. □ No □
36. How many children died before their first anniversary? Number□
37. How many children died before 5 years? Numbers□
38. If total number of children ever born, how many children are a live in your family?

Living children		Death after live birth		Total CEB	
Son	Daughter	Son	Daughter	Son	Daughter

39. Are you pregnant at present? Yes □ No □ Unsure□
40. If yes .Do you know any kind of family planning method?
    a. permanent □ b. Temporary□

41. Have your couple use any family planning method at present ? yes□ No□
    If yes, which family planning method did use your couple?

Name of Contraceptives		Duration
Male sterilization	1	
Female sterilization	2	
Pill	3	
Condom	4	
Dipo-provera	5	
others	6	

If not, why didn't you use any family planning method?

a. Due to long distance available□ 1
b. Don't know the place available□ 2
c. Husband away□ 3
d. Due to afraid of losing health□ 4
e. Due to desire of another child□ 5
f. Others□ 6
g. Due to effect Dipo-provera □ 7

LIST OF PHOTOGRAPH

The women carring Doko in their daily work. Doko is commonly used in carring wood, grass and other harvested crops.

The children of Poor household carring load. School aged children have to carry the load to live

Dwelling of a family in Surumkhim. There no toilet, drinking water tap and other basic facilities.

A girl weaving a mat using straw. The straw mat is common in this area.

The main cash crop of Surumkhim is Cardamom. Among 332 households, 95 percent household have Cardamom farm.

The herder is milking the Chauri. The yaks and sheep are kept in high grass land.

Looking the data collection questionnaire in their farm where they are working.

The researcher is discussing with households member during Sampling