

CHAPTER: I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 background of the study

Land has been and continues to be the most significant form of property in rural area. It is a critical determinant of economic well-being, social status, and political power. However, there is substantial evidence that economic resources in the hands of male household members often do not benefit female members in equal degree. Independent ownership of such resources, especially land, can thus be of crucial importance in promoting the well-being and empowerment of women. Indeed, the issue is not just one of property ownership; it is also that of property control. Despite the gradual gender-progressive legislation, in practice few South Asian women inherit landed property, and even fewer control it. Research shows that there is a vast gap between law and its implementation and has demonstrated a number of factors constraining women in exercising their legal claims subsuming patrilocal post-marital residence and village exogamy, strong opposition from male kin (due to the prevalence of patriarchal ideology), the social construction of gender needs and roles, low levels of female education, and male bias and domination in administrative, judicial and other public decision-making bodies at all levels (Ghimire 2001).

Rudrapur is one of the developing dc of Rupandehi district, situated at the south part of western development region in Nepal. Rudrapur VDC located in 83.13 minute 15 second eastern to 83.17 minute 0 second in eastern longitude and 27. 35 minutes 0 second northern to 27. 17 minutes 0 second in second in northern altitude (survey depart Minhuwan Kathmandu) it covers total area 37.72 square kilometer. The total population of this study is 20649 whereas male 11588 and female 9061 of total household 4567(CBS, 2011)

Land and agriculture have played the leading pattern Nepal social, economic and political life through the centuries. almost 75 percent of working population of employed in agriculture the highest percentage among the centuries of south Asia trade manufacturing and other manufacturing and other occupations are important in particular regions or among particular communities, but the predominant importance of land and agriculture in Nepal's economy is reality which , no observe of Nepali scene can deny. Land has therefore traditionally represented

the principal source of economic political power. Ownership of land has met control over vital factor of production and therefore a position of affluence, and power. (Regmi, 1977)

According to Nepalese context, production from agriculture contributes 40 percent GDP and the large area of employment covered by agriculture. Nepal is agricultural country but due to the lack of modernization in agriculture, people take it only for livelihood.

It has been since long time that our government realized the necessity of agricultural reforms. The Land act 2021, concentration has increased and the tenants are not better than before. The effective tenancy system and the high rents received by owners imply insecurity of tenure, low income to the tenants is not better off than before. The effective tenancy system and high rent received by and owners imply insecurity of tenure, low income to the tenants and the lack of production incentives. But the aspect s of the land reform programs is also worth to appreciate. it abolished all sorts of privileged land ownership system(birtha , kiptat , jamindari, Rakam Ukhada and Guthi) and established at least " tenancy records and created the awareness of land tenure right by tenants and land less allures.

According to land survey act 2021, for the citizen of Nepal the government has provided the land owner certificate to give facilities to the commoners to consume the land and there is no operation, mutual relation between of different community and tribes, class for the use of land peasant has pay the certain amount of money to the government as tax and the government divides the land according to the productivity of land, has secured by the government of Nepal. Though, the land survey act 2063 has provided the facilities to consume sale, buy and exchange the land but almost all the parts of the places of Nepal has not been surveyed yet and the land has not been legally approved by the government and door to this condition what types of problem faced by the people and what are the difficulties arises in the course of development.

Rudrapur is one of the affected VDC among others in this case of land ownership legally. Though, the government had surveyed the land two tines in the past but still now the government had not provided the land ownership certificates to the people. in this study it has been analyzed land ownership and its impact on rural economy.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Land is basic natural resources that used for various used by human being. It had got its importance since ancient age. Therefore, the land has been occupied by people. The land is used for agriculture, for build housing and other various ac purposes. In the context of Nepal land became crucial issues because it has been taken as the main source of property and social dignity and economic strength of a person measured on the basis of his/her ownership of land.

It has secured the rights of citizen to use the land and the citizens have to pay the tax for utilization of land and registration, but in this case it is just opposite. Although, government has not provided land ownership and the issue become crucial in Nepal. people have been used land since many years and such land only the source of livelihood of these people though they have not own right on that land because government had not given certificate and registration card which is taken as the legal document for using land. In such cases people can't sell the land which they have used since long time , in the same way bank and financial institution can't accept such land as property of people it is invalid as security. So land ownership certificate play vital role for the enhancement of economic condition of people. In the study it has analyzed the situation of people living in Rudrapur VDC where people faced various problems due to the cause of the problem of land ownership. The main focuses goes on the questions as what is the socio economic impact of land ownership in the study area and how ownership play vital role to uplift economic situation of people living in study area. So, due to the lack of the land ownership it's directly affecting the livelihood of the local people.

1.3 Objective of the Study

General objective of this study is to explore the status of land ownership and its' impact on economic development. Specific objective are as follows;

- To access the impact of land ownership in agriculture.
- To evaluate the impact of land ownership on livelihood to the local people in Rudrapur VDC.

1.4 Significant of the Study

Nepal is agricultural country more than 70% population are depended in agriculture which has directly related to land. land ownership is one of the important for farmers because if they have no land certificate they should pay some part of the production to others like Guthi, and other institution because such so called social organization also claims on the land. This study is significant for those who want to study the impact of land ownership on local people's livelihood living in Rudrapur VDC. This is also significance for those NGOs/ INGOs and government who are working on land right issue. More than that such type of study has not been yet done in the study area so I select for the first time that is one of the significant research on that issue on particular geographical location.

1.5 Limitation of this Study

This study has been limited in the following limitations which are as follows

- This study has only covered Rudrapur area
- Only 90 respondents have been taken as the sample for this study
- The study has been only concentrated on the economic impacts of land ownership

1.6 Organization of the Study

This study is divided into five chapters. The first chapter is introductory which includes background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives, significance of the study, limitations and organization of the study. The second chapter deals with reviews of literature. Third chapter is concerned with methodology of the study, which included the research design, Rational of the study area, Nature and source of data, Universe and sample, data collection techniques tools and methods of data analysis and interpretation procedure. Chapter four mainly concerned with data presentation and analysis which includes social –economic condition of respondents and land ownership and its impacts on rural livelihood. In the last chapter summery conclusion and recommendation are included.

CHAPTER: II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Review of literature is a critical evaluation, analysis and synthesis of existing knowledge relevant to our own research problem. It is useful to develop new ideas and analytical methods in research. Through this, researcher should gain different kinds of information and experiences of others. To conduct this research some relevant literatures have been reviewed which help researcher to address research issue systematically. For this research study, following relevant studies have been reviewed

2.1 Theoretical Review

Land ownership can be a vital source of capital, which opens personal credit markets, leads to beyond the potential for a higher income, “[s]ecure access to land provides a valuable safety net as a source of shelter, food and income in times of hardship, and a family's land can be the last available resort in the instance of disaster (Adhikari, 2010).” Investments in the land, provides a social safety net, and transfers wealth to the next generation. Moreover, access to land affects a broad range of fundamental human rights. In both urban and rural areas, individuals rely on the availability of adequate plots of land for shelter and the availability of resources. In rural areas in particular, the realization of the right to food is intimately tied to the availability of land on which to grow crops. Additional rights, including the right to water, the right to health, the right to work, are all tied to access to land. Identity, particularly for indigenous groups, is also tied to land. In some domestic contexts, recognition of citizenship is also attached to ownership of land, limiting the ability of landless individuals to travel and participate in the political process. The problem of rural landlessness continues to increase as land in rural areas comes under multiple pressures, including population growth, fragmentation, and land use conversion, environmental degradation, and the impact of natural disasters.

Without secure land rights, individuals and communities live under the constant threat of eviction, impacting a range of fundamental human rights (Acharya and Sharma, 2004). Tenure security in land or secure usage rights in land, in the form of formal legal, customary or religious rights, can provide more predictability and secure access to fundamental rights, including to food, housing, water, and health. The right to housing and the prohibition against forced evictions, both of which relate to land access, have been defined in numerous international documents, but the rights to land, and the broader implications of access to land in the international human rights framework, remains imprecise.

The UNDP General Assembly adopted the Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, which states that “indigenous peoples have the right to the lands, territories and resources which they have traditionally owned, occupied or otherwise used or acquired (UNDP, 2007). The declaration, while not binding, states that indigenous people have a right to own and develop resources on their land, a right to legal recognition of indigenous lands by states, and a “right to redress” for the lands, territories and resources which they have traditionally owned or otherwise

occupied or used, and which have been confiscated, taken, occupied, used or damaged.” Both the Convention and the Declaration emphasize participatory dialogue and the need for free, prior, and informed consent with respect to decision-making about lands occupied by indigenous peoples, relocation of peoples from land is under consideration.

Land rights are also invoked in the international legal framework on women’s rights. The Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) requires that State Parties “shall ensure women the right to equal treatment in land and agrarian reform as well as in land resettlement schemes.” CEDAW also provides that both spouses must enjoy “the same rights in respect of the ownership, acquisition, management, administration, enjoyment and disposition of property” in marriage. Equal rights to inherit, purchase, and dispose of property also promote women’s rights more generally. While land rights are not explicitly developed more fully in this Convention or elsewhere in the core human rights treaties, however, the human rights framework clearly dictates that human rights be applied non-discriminatorily and the necessity of providing access to land in order to facilitate the realization of up to one quarter of the world’s population is estimated to be landless, including 200 million people living in rural areas, and approximately 75% of the world’s population living in extreme poverty (less than \$1/day) live in rural areas.

According to the Food and Agriculture Agency of the United Nations (FAO), “rural landlessness is often the best predictor of poverty and hunger (FOA Report, 2011).” “While not the only pathway out of poverty, ample evidence suggests that access to land is effective in helping rural households generate higher incomes” through the sale of crops and the money saved when the family feeds itself from the land. Yet, even though “land constitutes the main asset from which the rural poor are able to derive a livelihood millions of families, though they toil on the land, do not enjoy ownership rights over it and are considered landless.” Land is a cross-cutting issue, and is not simply a resource for one human right in the international legal framework. And yet, while rights have been established in the international legal framework that relate to land access for particular groups (e.g. indigenous people and, to a more limited extent, women), numerous rights are affected by access to land (e.g., housing, food, water, work), and general principles in international law provide protections that relate to access to land (e.g., equality and

nondiscrimination in ownership and inheritance), an explicit consideration of the legal implications of access to land for a broad range of human rights is necessary. The World Bank (WB), International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) and Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) have increasingly recognized women's land rights and the failure of land administration programs to protect them.

WB Policy Research Report (2004) argues that strengthening women's land rights is important for potential and gains agricultural productivity and for household level human capital investments such as nutrition and child schooling. It advocates legal measures, education and capacity building, as well as preferential treatment of women in public programs such as those dedicated to land titling and land reform. There is indeed importance of gender in land policy. Gender is the basic determinant of social relations and rights in households and communities.

Gender determines to a great extent a person's opportunities, aspirations, and standard of living, access to resources, status in the community, and self-perception (Baidya, 2010). In addition, women rights to resources influence their ability to produce and their behavior as producers. In developing countries, land is a critical asset and land rights whether customary or formal act as a form of economic access to key markets as well as a form of social access to non-market institutions such as the household relations and community-level governance structures.

There were gender discriminations in the ownership and access to resources, including land (Interim Constitution, 2007). The Hindu patriarchy was the overriding social code in prescribing the ownership of land to males through inheritance. But the existing Constitution has clearly written, "There will be equal rights to parental (ancestral) property for men and women". Other recent land policies also have the provision for 50 percent reduction in land tax for registration of land if the titleholder is woman and during land distribution, both spouses' names are to be written in land certificate as titleholders. Limited studies have shown that the land tax rebate measures have had the positive effect on the increase of land registration in the names of the women. Given the paucity of research on the issues associated with joint land ownership and land entitlement to women in Nepal, an empirical research is of paramount importance.

Land Rights Act and Policies of Nepal

Preamble: Whereas, it is expedient; to divert inactive capital and burden of population from the land to the other sectors of economy in order to accelerate the pace of economic development of the country; to bring about improvement in the standards of living of the actual peasants dependent on the land by making equitable distribution of the cultivable land and by making easily accessible the necessary know-how and resources on agriculture and to keep up the convenience and economic interests of the general public by providing encouragement to make maximum increase in

Definitions:

Unless the subject or the context otherwise requires, in this Act:

(a) "Landowner" means a person who has the land registered in his/her name, subject to the payment of land revenue to Government of Nepal under the prevailing law and has, by virtue thereof, the title to the land, and this term also includes the following person in respect of the following land:

(1) A person who is registered as a landowner in regard to the *Birta* land abolished pursuant to the *Birta Abolition*

Act, 2016 (1960),

(2) *Jimidar* in the case of the land with *Jimidari*,

(2a) In the case of *Kipat*, a person who possesses such land on payment of government revenue in accordance with the customs, traditions and practices or a person who possesses such land on making payment of revenue to such person,

(3) A person who, by virtue of being an heir or coparcener of such landowner or by virtue of the relinquishment by such landowner of his/her title in accordance with law, is entitled to get the land registered in his/her name,

(4) Where any other person has obtained the land of such landowner on usufruct mortgage or pledge and been possessing and using the land in accordance with law, that person so long as he/she so possesses and uses the land.

(b) "Tenant" means a peasant who holds the land that belongs to another landowner to till the same on any terms and cultivates the land by him/herself or his/her family's labour.

(c) "Family", in relation any person, means that person and only his/her relative in the following status: (1) husband or wife, irrespective of whether they are partitioned or not, (2) until the father or mother is alive, a son, (3) daughter who has not attained the age of 16 years irrespective of whether he has been partitioned,

(d) "Rent (*Kut*)" means any consideration in money or in kind or both payable by a tenant to the landowner on account of the occupation of House and premises (*Gharbari*)" means a dwelling house and the land appurtenant to such a house and this term also includes such a cattle shade, grain store (*Bhakari*), well, pond, garage, stable, fruits garden, bamboo bush, grass field, sports or recreation site and land used for other purposes similar thereto as is adjoined or not adjoined to the house. (f) "Main annual crop yield" in relation to any land means the yield of the crop having the highest yield among all the crops grown in that land throughout the year. (g) "Peasant" means a person engaged in cultivating the land. Provided, however, that, for purposes of the determination of a debt pursuant to Chapter-9, this term means a person who cultivates land by his/her or his/her family's labor. (h) "*Jimidari*" means a system of collecting the revenue under the law and depositing, or causing to be deposited, such revenue with

Government of Nepal, by making agent in the name of *Jimidar, Patawari, Talukdar, Jimmawal, Mukhiya, Thari, Dware* or in any other name, and includes the *Kipat* system.

(i) "Revenue" means the revenue or any other consideration equivalent thereto payable by a landowner to Government of Nepal under the prevailing law of Nepal.

(j) "Notified Order" means an order published by Government of Nepal in the Nepal Gazette.

(k) "Prescribed" or "as prescribed" means prescribed or as prescribed in

Date and place of commencement of the Act:

(1) Chapters 3, 4, 5, 6 and 9 of the Lands Act, 2021(1964) commenced vide the notices dated 2021-8-5 (20 November 1964), 2022-8-1 (16 November 1965) and 2023-8-29 (24 December 1966), and Chapter 2 of the Act commenced vide the notice dated 2024-12-19(1 April 1968) in (1) Katmandu, (2) Lalitpur, (3) Bhaktapur, (4) Bara, (5) Parsa, (6) Rautahat, (7) Bardiya, (8) Kailali, and (9) Jhapa Districts.

(2) The Act commenced vide the notice dated 2026-8-30 (15 December 1969) in (1) Kanchanpur, (2) Banke, (3) Nawalparasi, and (4) Sarlahi Districts.

(3) The Act commenced vide the notice dated 2027-5-29 (25 August 1970) in

(1) Morang, (2) Sunsari, (3) Siraha, (4) Dhanusa, and (5) Mahottari Districts.

(4) The Act commenced vide the notice dated 2029-5-20 (4 September 1972) in (1) Chitwan, (2) Rupandehi, (3) Kapilbastu, (4) Saptari, and (5) Dang Districts.

(5) The Act commenced vide the notice dated 2031-4-25 (9 Aug 1974) in (1) Ilam, (2) Udayapur, (3) Sindhuli, and (4) Surkhet Districts. (6) The rate of rent has been fixed in eight Districts since the crops of fiscal year 2031/032 (1973/74) vide the notice dated 2030-6-29 (15 October 1973). (7) Chapter 2 of the Lands Act, 2021(1964) commenced vide the notice dated 2035-4-21 (5 August 1978) in Panchthar, Dhankuta, Ramechhap, Tanahun and Mustang Districts with effect from 2035-4-1 (16 July 1978). (8) Chapter 2 of the Lands Act, 2021 (1964) commenced vide the notice dated 2035-11-28 (15 March 1979) in Dadeldhura, Tehrathum, Kaverplanchock, Dhading and Myagdi Districts with effect from 3036-1-1(14 April 1979). (9) Chapter 2 of the Lands Act, 2021 (1964) commenced vide the notice dated 2036-8-15 (1 December 1979) in Makawanpur, Nuwakot and Kaski Districts. (10) Chapter 2 of the Lands Act, 2021 (1964) commenced vide the notice dated 2038-5-1 (17 August 1981) in Rasuwa District. (11) Chapter 2 of the Lands Act 2021(1964) commenced forthwith vide the notice dated 2040-4-1(17 July 1983) in Salyan, Baglung and Bhojpur Districts. (12) Chapter 2 of the Lands Act 2021(1964) commenced forthwith vide the notice dated 2040-4-1(17 July 1983) in Gorkha, Gulmi and Syangja Districts. (13) Section 3 of Chapter 2 of the Lands Act, 2021(1964) commenced vide the notice dated 2043-4-6(16 July 1986) in Parbat, Arghakhanchi and Darchula Districts on 2043-4-1(11 July 1986) (14) Section 3 of Chapter 2 of the Lands Act, 2021(1964) commenced vide the notice dated 2045-2-3(16 May 1988) in Lamjung and Khotang Districts on 2045-4-1(16 July 1988). (15) Chapter 2 of the Lands Act, 2021(1964) commenced vide the notice dated 2051-4-1 (16 July 1994) in Bajura and Dailekh Districts on that date. (16) Chapter 2 of the Lands Act, 2021(1964) commenced vide the notice dated 2052-5-1 (17 August 1995) in Sankhuwasabha District on that date. (17) Chapter 2 of the Lands Act, 2021(1964) commenced vide the notice dated 2053-7-1 (17 October 1996) in Solukhumbu District on that date.

Amended by the Lands (Sixth Amendment)

Ordinance, 2062 (2005)

1. In the Section 26D1 the word "within Six months of the commencement of this Section" has been amended by "within the time limit specified by Government of Nepal by a notification in

the Nepal Gazette." 2. In the Section 26D3 the word "within Two years of the commencement of this Section" has been amended by "within the time limit specified by Government of Nepal by a notification in the Nepal Gazette." 3. In the Sub-section (1) of Section 53 the word "Sections 4 and 6 of Special Court Act, 2031" has been amended by "Sections 10, 11 and 12 of the Special Court Act, 2059(2002)."

2.2 Review of Past Study

Upreti (2009), Land is a means to alleviate poverty and symbol of power and prestige but legal and policy measures are not successful to ensure rights of tenants and security of peasants in Nepal. Land has been a constant source of potential conflict and symbol of feudalism. However, land based local power structure has been changing over time with political changes and increased level of organisation of peasant farmers to establish their rights.

Legally regulated land management system should have led to socially benefited effects to peasant farmers. It should also have prevented absentee landlordism, ensure tenural security and increase productivity of lands. However, these expectations remain only distant hope. Given the economically and socially highly stratified Nepalese society, extremely skewed land distribution and ambiguous role of bureaucracy it is very difficult for the poor people to get benefit from land reform programme. Legally regulated land reform measures are not effective and heavily manipulated by powerful land holders by influencing bureaucratic and judiciary decision making process.

Land based livelihood options overwhelmingly predominate in an agrarian society like Nepal because non-agricultural sectors, namely, trade, commerce and industry have not flourished and also have not been able to generate employment opportunities to a large number of people (Nepali & Pyakuryal, 2011). This paper is based on a survey research conducted in the Far Western Region of Nepal during July 2007-Nov 2008. The study reveals that food is barely enough for 0-3 months for the majority in the region. In fact, the poor engage themselves in wage earning in agriculture and non-agriculture sectors, they move to India as seasonal labor migrants, supplement their earning by cutting and sale of fire wood, and engage themselves in

caste based occupation etc (true for Dalit) as livelihood options. The paper argues that this situation is a product of, and also regulated by, various local age long feudal social institutions like Khalo Pratha (System), Haliya Pratha (System), Land Mortgage System (Mate Bandaki), Share cropping, etc which exhibit positive and negative relationship. It is also because of structural constraints in land holding pattern (class), existing caste system, and gender disparity. By and large, the most of these institutions have been found as discriminatory and exploitative to the land poor by giving them unfair wage, debt burden, and treating them inhumanly like semi-slavery and social discrimination.

The history of land tenure in Nepal is very old. It is conceptually based on Hindu culture (Aryal, 2004). Land is still considered as the wealth and the prime indicator of social prestige. Land is not only the main source of livelihood but is also full of traditional sentiments. In Nepal, land management and administration has been influenced by such sentiments. It is imperative that, one should understand the history and culture of land tenure of the country for proper management of land. In this context, attempt is made to analyze the history of land tenure provisions and put on record the present system of land tenure and land registration in Nepal.

Adhikari (2008) focuses on the main source of income and consumption for Nepalese people. This study analyses the economic relationship between access to land and poverty in Nepal by establishing the link between land and consumption as well as land and income. A generalized additive model and OLS (Ordinary Least Squares) demonstrate that greater access to land for the poor increases income and consumption and thereby reduces poverty. The significant marginal value of land of both consumption and income implies that an elective land reform policy could well be the most elective approach to alleviate rural poverty. However, land reform must come as part of a larger overhaul. Cluster analysis shows that land reform should target appropriate subgroups within the community in order to differentiate those who would make use of the extra land from those who would not and so applying strategies to each one. It reveals the importance of subgroups in determining an appropriate strategy for tackling poverty. Three distinct groups are found within the dataset that explain most of the variation.

In smallholder farming, women play an important role and their contribution to the farm income is often disproportionately high. The study aimed to understand the role and perceptions of women farmers in land management and conservation, and to identify possible pathways for better representation of women's needs in on-farm land management and conservation. The study was conducted in a typical watershed in the Middle-Hill region of Nepal, with a high diversity of age, caste and education amongst the women. All farms in the area are subsistence-oriented. The study is based on semi-quantitative surveys of farming families. There are marked divergences in the types of farm work between men and women, but also between different groups of women. Caste was not found to be an important criterion in defining the work of women, but rather education and age. Over the past years, more girls are being sent to schools and this inevitably limits their availability for farm work. This trend has also led to a loss of local knowledge on land management with girls and young women. Women without school education obtain their knowledge principally from older women and by practical experiences. Women with school education are able to understand extension messages more easily and they usually have a more 'scientific' approach to understanding things. These differences lead to different perceptions of farming and to problem solving. There are also noted divergences between more remote villages and the villages closer to the road network and with better access to extension. Women in villages that are more easily accessible have generally a better understanding of modern technologies. These women also have better access to markets for better cash income, which in turn gives them more influence on farming decisions.

Baidya J. (2010) assesses the current situation of the Internally Displaced Person (IDP), with respect to seized Housing, Land and Property (HLP), analyses the national IDPs policies with respect to HLP and explore various issues related to HLP. Although issues of HLP are ardently defined in political arena the issues has so far received much less attention to its gravity. Since the signing of the 12- Point understanding between the Seven Party Alliance (SPA) and the UCPN (M), they have made many commitments aimed at resolving HLP issues, but these promises have not been fulfilled. Despite various commitments and agreements, no significant progress on HLP protection of restitution has been achieved. Non compliance of the UCPN (M) party and lack of strong government policy on repossession and compensation are to be blamed. The problems of the IDPs in the region have neither been lack of a regional legal framework nor

limited involvement by international actors but rather endemic leadership problems at national level. Although various agreements and commitments were made at the central government level, proper implementation at the field level has not been satisfactorily materialized. Consequently, IDPs' lack of access to the durable solutions, the gaps in National IDP policy implementation and monitoring and pending unapproved Procedural Directives are all revealing that government of Nepal is not taking the issues of IDPs seriously. Such tendency is impeding the process, as sustainable solutions to the problem.

The demographic basis for a land dispute between two Tibetan villages in Nubri, Nepal, is examined in relation to family systems (Childs, 2001). Despite close proximity and socio-culturalities, the villages experience divergent population growth rates resulting from different frequencies of marriage. In one, old-age security concerns induce parents to retain female labor within the household by designating daughters to be nuns, a practice that has the unintended consequence of limiting aggregate population growth by barring many women from marriage and reproduction. In the other village the slightly different family system results in fewer nuns, faster population growth, and a need for more land. Comparisons with family systems and demographic outcomes in Europe and Asia reveal this to be a case in which preventive checks can exist in a context of early marriage and high marital fertility and demonstrate how concerns for old-age security can act as a restraint on aggregate.

Nepal has been experiencing a permanent rural-to-rural migration of households from the central hill zone to the Terai region (Dignan et. al. 1989). Migrant households, due to the structure of the Terai economy, are impelled to acquire control of land for subsistence agriculture by squatting, purchasing, or receiving a grant. A household's ability to maximize subsistence opportunities is partly a function of the means by which land is acquired and whether land is acquired at all. Factors which determine the chances of acquiring land reflect the role of institutional rigidities such as the distribution of wealth and the caste structure, state imposed and reform policies, and such household characteristics as family size and risk aversion. A multinomial logit model is used to empirically assess the importance of these elements in the outcomes of migrant households' resource acquisition decisions.

The Kangchenjunga Conservation Area (KCA, Nepal) was the subject of a comparative study on land use/land cover change, using the maps and air photographs available for 2 different years (1978/79 and 1992) (Khanal, 2006). Digitized land use maps for 1978 (LUM78) and topographical maps for 1992 (TOPO92) were first interpreted using a Geographic Information System (GIS); this was followed by comparative interpretation of black and white air photographs from the same years. Lelep, Sekhathum-Amjilela, Syajunma and Ramsyampati were the 4 areas selected for analysis. The initial map interpretation of LUM78 and TOPO92 implied that considerable changes in land use/cover had occurred between 1978/79 and 1992. Forestland was shown to have decreased by 62.5% (23.15 km²), agricultural land to have increased by 35.7% (1.49 km²), and shrubland to have increased by 238.2% (30.16 km²). Grazing land, with an area of 22.57 km² on the 1978/79 and 1992 imagery, appeared to have disappeared completely by 1992. An interpretation of air photographs for the same period, however, revealed that the actual changes were far smaller than those inferred from the map interpretation: decrease in forest and grazing lands by 14.9% (5.45 km²) and 77.9% (2.75 km²), respectively, and increase in agricultural and shrublands by 4.9% (0.21 km²) and 19.7% (4.41 km²), respectively. The results of a questionnaire survey of the local inhabitants confirmed that no significant changes had occurred. The discrepancies identified highlight the problems inherent in assigning land categories. In particular, distinctions made on the LUM78 material between shrub, grazing land, and barren lands were inappropriate. Similarly, forest and shrub lands were incorrectly assigned in TOPO92. Caution must be exercised when using such information; verification from other sources is needed.

The yet unpublished and latest report of High Level Commission for scientific Land Reform (2010) has multi dimensional coverage such as abolishing feudal land ownership and its associated labour relation, ensuring land ownership by equitable distribution, ensuring safe housing of squatters and landless, ensuring production and productivity of land etc. The report claims that one of its purposes of scientific land reform is to bring change in the unequal relations, more specially, feudal land ownership in the land and distribute the land to the tillers. As for the change in land relations, the report suggests for a provision of land ceiling that is no one shall own the amount of land more than the fixed ceiling. The fixed ceilings on land for housing/settlement is 6 *ropani* (0.3 hectares) for each household and for agriculture it is 4 *bigas*

(2.71 hectare) in Terai, 10 *ropanis* (0.5 hectares) in city areas, 55 *ropanis* (2.80 hectares) in hill region and 70 *ropanis* (3.56 hectares) in mountain region.

The land above this ceiling would be seized by the state and distributed to the landless and squatters. And, there would be no compensation for the land above the ceiling made in 2058 B S. The report suggests for giving land to the landless farmers, Haliyas, Haruwas, Charuwas and Kamaiyas and housing land for squatters. Regarding tenancy rights the report suggests for establishing tenancy rights who have not been registered.

Historically, Nepal has demonstrated a "great turnabout" trend, in which initialimmigrati on from the low land areas to the mountains has been replaced by accelerate ngmigrati on from the hills to the plains. The reason for this reversal has been a rapid growth in population on within the confines of limited availability of potentially cultivable land. Given Nepal's slow economic development, the overwhelming majority of increases in population on have to be accommodated within the agricultural sector, on which 83% of Nepal's households are dependent. Fundamental land use issues in Nepal include rapid achievement of the finallimit of land suitability for culti vat ion and the speed at which land can be brought into cultivation. The Government of Nepal has developed the objectives of increased food production to provide a satisfactory diet for the population, increased per capita income, improved regional balance in income and development, conservation of natural resources such as land and forests, and overall development of the economy through income generation, export earnings, and release of agricultural labor to other sectors. Three perspective studies have identified a number of policies and programmes that could bring Nepal closer to these goals. These studies analyzed potential land use development, agricultural production, and food availability by the year 2005. Most essential is the need to intensify land use not only in crop agriculture, but also grasslands and forest use. Land must be allocated to uses that represent the most productive use of that land without being degraded. Technologies are available for land use in each of the main types of uses-crop agriculture, livestock, and forests-that can provide protection against land degradation. Finally, irrigation is a key element in raising agricultural output. Close cooperation between the government and the people is crucial for the success of the task of finding a balance between population growth and its demand for services of the land.

Land degradation is one of the greatest challenges facing mankind and Nepal is no exception. Anthropogenic causes such as deforestation, excessive use of chemical fertilizers, overgrazing, construction works and unscientific farming in the hills have resulted in the loss in the flora and fauna, erosion of top soil, occurrence of landslides in the hills and flooding in the plain areas. This has led to severe environmental degradation leading to poor socioeconomic condition. On and disruption of natural ecosystems in Nepal. In this paper the aspects related to land degradation, extent and severity of damages and causes and consequences of land degradation are discussed. Various measures for restoration of degraded lands undergoing in Nepal have also been explained. The empirical study reveals that the rate of degradation outweighs the restoration processes.

Rijal (2007) examines the extent, causes, and consequences of abandonment of agricultural land near the village of Skills in the Nepal Himalaya. Socioeconomic information was collected in a household survey. Abandoned agricultural land and geomorphic damage were mapped at plot level for an area of 149.6 ha. Plot-level analysis showed that nearly 49% of all khet land and 37% of all bari land had been abandoned. About 10% of all khet land had been completely damaged by landslides and floods. Nearly 41% of all abandoned plots were subjected to deferent forms of geomorphic damage. The amount of geomorphic damage on plots abandoned earlier is greater than that on plots abandoned recently. Abandonment of agricultural land does not automatically lead to plant colonization because geomorphic damage is intensified prior to colonization. Abandoned land requires further management for plant colonization as well as for reducing the risk of geomorphic hazards. Prevailing government policies and acts are not effective in managing abandoned land. The phenomenon of abandoned agricultural land observed in the Nepal Himalaya is not unique:

It is common in many mountain areas in the world. However, this phenomenon has recently led to pronounced socioeconomic and environmental problems in Nepal and is indicator of broader socioeconomic status in agrarian society like Nepal. It is fundamental productive asset, principal sources of livelihood and power, means of pride, dignity, and prestige and symbol of prosperity. Here, access to land means right to ownership and entitlement of land that over or ensures full

utilization of enjoyment of its virtues i.e. socioeconomic security and other forms of security and social justice. Indeed, access to land resource of Dalit (which account about 13 % of total population) is very nominal because average land holdings of Dalit group are 0.12 ha of khet (irrigated land) and 0.225 ha of Pakho (dry up land). Especially terai Dalit is synonym to landless. Most of Terai Dalit has only infertile land suitable for residence. HDR 2004 reveals that 15.32 % Hill Dalits and 43.98 Terai Dalits are landless. There are about 3 lakhs Dalit Haliya. In such context, they are bound to be agricultural laborer, tenant culti vator, Haliya, Haruwa, Charuwa. Few of them are still continuing their traditional caste based occupation. Dalit remains at very bottom of Nepali caste hierarchy. The per capita income and HDI of Dalit is 39.6 \$ (against national 210\$) and 0.239 (against national 0.325 Livelihoods of Dalits is miserable due to landlessness. In brief, landlessness, marginal and small landholdings and food deficiency for more than six months of the year are typical feature of economy of Dalits or untouchable.

Land based livelihood options overwhelmingly predominate in an agrarian society like Nepal because non-agricultural sectors, namely, trade, commerce and industry have not flourished and also have not been able to generate employment opportunities to a large number of people (Niroula & Thapa, 2007). This paper is based on a survey research conducted in the Far Western Region of Nepal during July 2007-Nov 2008. The study reveals that food is barely enough for 0-3 months for the majority in the region. In fact, the poor engage themselves in wage earning in agriculture and non-agriculture sectors, they move to India as seasonal labor migrants, supplement their earning by cutting and sale of fi re wood, and engage themselves in caste based occupation etc (true for Dalit) as livelihood options. The paper argues that this situation is a product of, and also regulated by, various local age long feudal social institutions like Khalo Pratha (System), Haliya Pratha (System), Land Mortgage System (Mate Bandaki), Share cropping, etc which exhibit positive and negative relationship. It is also because of structural constraints in land holding pattern (class), existing caste system, and gender disparity. By and large, the most of these institutions have been found as discriminatory and exploitative to the land poor by giving them unfair wage, debt burden.

Ghimire (1992) examines the growing concern about agricultural underdevelopment in developing countries, this study addresses the causes and trends of land fragmentation. It

analyses the impact of land fragmentation input use efficiency, crop yield and production efficiency, especially with reference to a mountain district in Nepal. Necessary information was obtained from discussions with groups and individual land users and a questionnaire survey covering 184 households representing deferent degrees of land fragmentation. The analyses focused on two staple crops, namely, maize and paddy. The analysis revealed an increasing trend in the number of land parcels and a decreasing trend in the size of land parcels, primarily due to the heredity tradition of equal division of land among the inheritors. Other factors such as land purchase have also contributed to land fragmentation. Yield analysis revealed that small parcels are more productive than large parcels, because of higher applications of inputs. Consistent with this, small parcels also appeared to have a higher production efficiency than large parcels - considering both benefit and cost of purchased inputs - indicating a positive impact of land fragmentation on farmers' income. However, an analysis considering also the cost of inputs produced on the farm revealed an opposite trend, that is, on large land parcels, production is more efficient than on small parcels. In view of the need to also recover the cost of the inputs produced on-farm, it is concluded that land fragmentation - leading to small plots - has a negative impact on production efficiency, thereby constraining agricultural and use planning is the process of assigning land for agriculture, forestry, settlement/urban uses, grazing and other uses and using accordingly to implement national programmed of solving problem of food security and environment and implementation of international conventions like UN Frame work Convention on Climate Change, Agenda 21. Spati al data are required to plan at national and lower levels and to implement the assigned land use categories by cadastral parcels. Before launching Land Use Planning Programme, appropriate legal system and administrative infrastructures required to be arranged which are partially arranged in Nepal. Spatial data for planning at national and district levels may be topographical, land utilization, land system (land form and soils), geological, climatologically, land capability, other infrastructural data and various master plans collected to form maps at the scale of 1:25,000 - 1:50,000 and converted into digital form. The spatial

In Nepal due to secured life and opportunity for employment people are migrating from rural area to urban area (Paudyal, 2006). The price of land is rising very high in urban and periurban area of Nepal. There is importance of one inch of face length of a parcel of land which is near the

road or highway. The existing cadastral maps cannot reflect the real situation of parcel boundary on the ground as they are very old (in some place island maps), have of small scale and the parcel boundary on map and field is different . Land owners are not satisfied with these cadastral documents and asking for reliable cadastral information. It is worthless to make the digital database with these erroneous documents. Hence Cadastral Survey Branch of Survey Department has started Numerical Cadastral Mapping (NCM) method for data acquisition in urban areas for the creation of digital cadastral database. During NCM, it was found that the boundary of parcel on land and map is different in most of the places. People are occupying and constructing houses without caring much on these cadastral documents.

This has become an accepted norms and value of the society and people are satisfied with their occupied land. In re-cadastral mapping works, if surveyor follows the existing cadastral maps it will take lots of time to adjudicate a single parcel boundary on the ground. Hence for the land adjudication, an innovative approach has followed for numerical cadastral mapping in Nepal. This paper begins with introduction and describes about the evolution on Nepalese cadastre starting from rudimentary cadastre to digital cadastre. It then describes about the existing institutional framework for cadastral mapping and land registration as well as cadastral processes in Nepal. It then elaborates the piloting of digital cadastre and an innovative approach for land adjudication in Nepal for numerical cadastral mapping. It also describes some typical cases of norms and values of the society which the authors have noted during field survey. Finally, this paper concludes with some conclusions and Recommendations.

Taxation in agricultural sector has been a matter of hard and complex practice. Since this sector contributes significant to the total GDP and provides major exportable items, yet its contribution in national treasury is negligible (Pokhrel, 1989). After evaluating whole components of revenue administrative structure of Nepal, it was suggested to make the revenue related Acts and Laws practical and lawless so that no chance of tax evasion may arise and a systematic tax payment and collection can follow. Other suggestions relate with training of the personnel and establishment of a separate revenue service. The study comes to the conclusion that land tax alone cannot achieve the target of tapping adequate resources from agricultural sector. Therefore, all agricultural taxes should be jointly planned. Likewise, the reintroductions of PDLT with some

medication, completion of survey as early as possible, etc. are other suggestions. To conclude, the tax revenue is one of the important means for economic development. In order to collect the tax according to the country's needs, a fair revenue policy and smooth and clean administration must be linked with vertical and horizontal linkage on the path of economic development. Then alone Nepal can succeed in fuelling national aspirations of breaking the vicious circle of poverty and giving a "big push" to the economy so as to move towards the take-off stage.

According to Rai (2008) Land is more than just a physical entity for an agricultural society where access to and control over it determines the socio-economic structure and identity. The objectives of this study are to examine the investment-production function in different land tenancy, affect in the productivity and the power relation between land owners and the user. The study showed that an alteration in input variables could produce more. But, the land owner was least interested for extra investment and the tillers lacked capital. Thus, study showed that sharecropping tenure system, though produces more in the land due to fear, is feudal in nature, in which the tillers are exploited, discriminated and bound to live insecure life.

Regmi (1977) describes and analyzes the traditional Nepali land holding system. This was complex, ever-evolving and variable with respect to the rights and obligations of the state, of the beneficiaries of state land bequests, and of tenants and cultivators. Regmi delineates his subject in fine detail, and explains how the system contained within itself the seeds of its own demise. Second, he analyzes the present state of land reform, achieved through the 1957 and 1964 Land Acts, the outstanding features of which involve ceilings on individual land holdings, security of tenancy rights, controls on land rents, and compulsory savings and credit provisions. Finally, he offers proposals for future action. Regmi believes that existing reforms have neither converted the agricultural surplus into productive capital nor sufficiently benefit the peasant class. To achieve these goals, he proposes "a new form of landownership under which every local Panchayat is the owner of lands used for agriculture and other productive purposes in the areas under its jurisdiction".

Rijal (2007) analyzes land holding pattern and its consequences in rural livelihoods especially of Modi Khola watershed located in Western Development Region, Nepal. The study is mainly

based on primary data collected from 360 households selected randomly from Modi Khola watershed during September-October, 2002. Land is an important natural asset, has greater implications on people's livelihoods. The distribution of land among households is uneven in this area. The implications of unequal distribution and access of land can clearly be seen on household income as well as level of food sufficiency. The average household income increases with the increase in land holding size. Likewise, the percentage of household reporting sufficient food production for household consumption increases with land holding size. Thus, the well-being of local people is largely tied-up with size of land owned by the household.

Land is a very strategic socio-economic asset in an agrarian economy where wealth and survival are measured by control of, and access to, land. It is also the source for inequity, power struggle and conflict (Shrestha, 2009). This study is thus carried out with an objective to examine the inter-relationship between access to land and human security in post conflict situation. It is found that policy and power plays a significant role in creating land based inequities. The role of migrant landholders is found to be more significant in the armed conflict than the indigenous groups. The sole reason for armed conflict is found to be the land based inequities and power relation between the large and marginal landholders. However, the real actors are not satisfied with the outcome of the armed conflict as land based inequities are left unaddressed. As a consequence, they feel there are chances of another form of armed conflict.

As land is a prime factor of production for the agricultural country like Nepal, access to it has been the major source for the livelihoods of small and medium farmers (Silpakar, 2008). But access to land is governed by the tenure arrangements which in turn affect the production and productivity of the farm. Gaining access through renting in of land has had various implications with some studies indicating a positive outcome while others indicating a negative outcome. In Nepal, renting in of land in the form sharecropping is widely practiced in Mid Western Region, but there is a gap in the academic study as to whether this benefits the farmers and makes them food sufficient. In this context, this study attempts to find out the implications of land tenure concerning agricultural households on food sufficiency. The sampled area of study was one ward each from two VDCs, one from the Tarai, where sharecropping is practiced, and the other from the hills, where there is prevalence of owner cultivation, of Dang District. The research was

designed basically following a qualitative approach in which respondents from proportionate samples from each representative area were interviewed using schedules constituting a total sample size of 50. The major findings of the study were that even though secure land tenure affects the household food sufficiency in a number of ways, unless the secured land is productive enough or sufficient environment to make it productive is created, land tenure issue alone would address the issue of food security to a much lesser degree. Family size, land size, type of land and type of tenure were the major factors governing land tenure such that these were found to have a tremendous impact in household food sufficiency. Bigger family size with less economically active population working in big rented in land without irrigation would not result in better yield. For increased productivity and production, all of the major factors governing land tenure system must be balanced such that this study concluded that bigger family size alone does not lead to food sufficiency nor does bigger land size alone. In addition, type of tenancy and type of land also does determine the household food sufficiency in a more generic way. The findings from this research led to the calculation of per capita requirement of land which would ultimately lead to food sufficiency.

2.3 Concept of Livelihood

The term “Livelihood” simply means “the means for living” (Oxford Dictionary, 1998). The word “Livelihood can be used in many different ways. The following definition captures the broad notion of livelihoods understood here: ‘a Livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base (Chambers, et.al.1992).

2.4 Meaning and Definition of Rural Livelihood

A person’s Livelihood refers to their ‘means of securing the basic necessities-food, water, shelter and doing of life. Livelihood is defined as a set of activities, involving securing water, food, fodder, medicine, and clothing the capacity of acquire above necessities working either individually or as a group by using endowments(both human and material)

For meeting the requirements of the self and his /her households on a sustainable basis with a dignity (www.wikipediya.com).

In 1992 Robert chamber and Grodon Conway purposed the following composite definition of a sustainable rural livelihood, which is applied most commonly at household level: “A Livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets and activities required for a means of leaving: a livelihood is sustainable which can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance is capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation and which contribute net benefits to others livelihoods at the local and global level and in the short and long term”.

CHAPTER: III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology is an important component of the study. It involves decision about the research design, sources of data information, sampling design if primary data is to be collected and survey tools for data collection.

3.1 Rational of the Selection of study Area

The present study was carried out in Rudrapur VDC of Rupandehi district, which is located in the Western Development Region in Lumbini Zone. The economic status of this district is normal. Agriculture is the main occupation of this VDC. The study area was selected for this study because it is accessible for the researcher and such kind of research has been done in this area before.

3.2 Research Design

The study has used exploratory and descriptive research design. The objective of the study related to the impact of land ownership in the study area that has been fulfilled by using exploratory cum descriptive research design.

3.3 Sources of Data

The study has based on both secondary and primary data and information. Secondary data were used to present the background of the study and supplement and complement the findings of the

study. Secondary data were collected from various sources such as books, journals, previous theses on the subject and government publications.

3.4 Sample Size

Rudrapur VDC of Rupandehi district was selected for the study, where Total population 20689 and 4567 households are remained d in 2068 data. Among them 90 household were selected by using purposive randomly section techniques. Personal interview has been taken from the selected household. From each household one respondent was selected for the interview.

3.5 Tools and Techniques of Data Collections

Structured questionnaire, FGD, key informant interview and observation were used for collecting data from the selected households. The field survey was conducted after passed this proposal.

Household Survey

The household survey has been conducted in order to collect qualitative and quantitative facts about impact of landownership on rural economy people living in the study such as situation and the role of agriculture in upliftment.

Observation

Certain information has been collected observation method. Researcher observe agriculture activities such as farming, selling goods, house pattern etc and guess the situation of economic status.

3.5.3 Key Informant interview

Key informant interview is also used using checklist. The key informants of this study were local leader, cooperative manager, VDC secretary etc.

3.6 Method of Data Analysis

Collected data and information were presented by using simple mathematical and statistical tools such as table graph percentage etc.

CHAPTER-IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

In this chapter it analyzes the economic impact of land ownership and its significant role in rural economy. This chapter is based on the primary data which is collected by researcher from the field by using different tools and techniques of data collection mentioned in chapter three.

4.1 Socio-Economic Characteristic of the Respondents

In this section it analyzes the socio economic situation of the respondents which play important role to meet objective of this study.

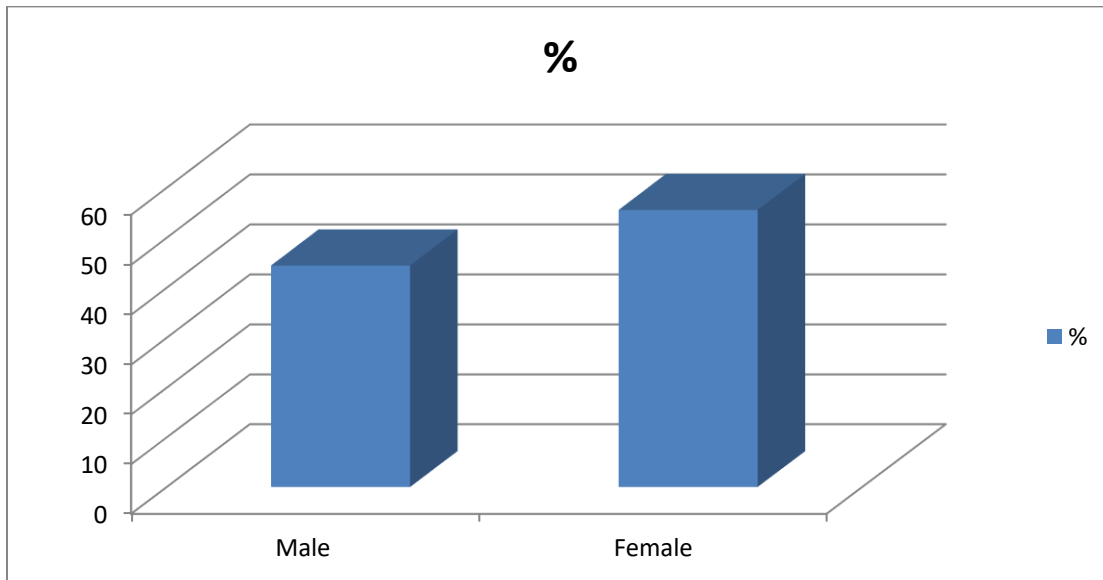
4.1.1 Respondents by Sex

Table: 4.1
Respondents by Sex

Sex	No.	%
Male	40	44.44
Female	50	55.56
Total	90	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.1
Respondents by Sex



Above table and figure show the respondents by sex. Out of the 90 respondents 44.44% are male and remaining 55.56% are female. In the study area female respondents are more than male respondents.

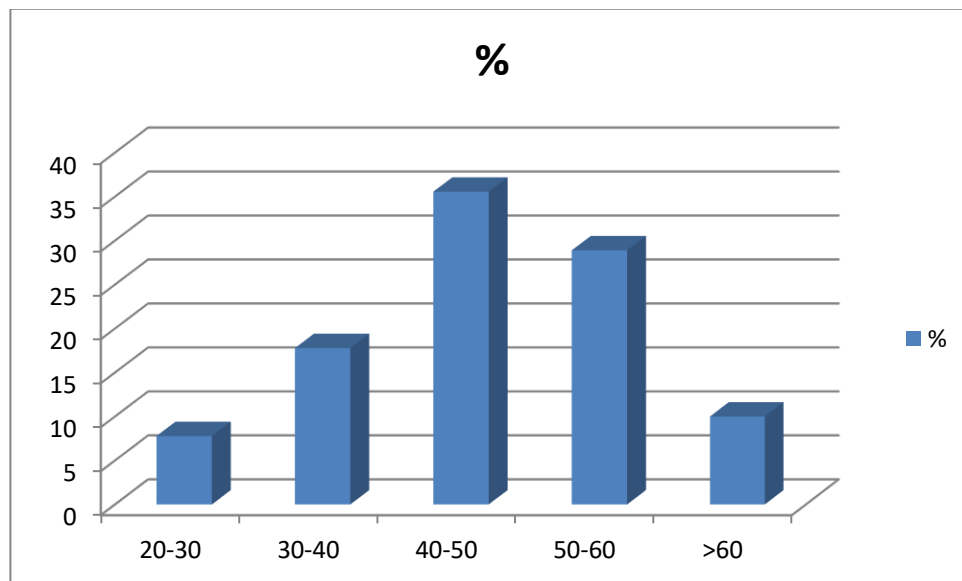
4.1.2 Respondents by Age Group

Table: 4.2
Respondents by Age Group

Age Group	No.	%
20-30	7	7.78
30-40	16	17.78
40-50	32	35.56
50-60	26	28.89
>60	9	10
Total	90	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.2
Respondents by Age Group



Above table and figure explain the respondents by age group. Data show that 7.78% are between 20 to 30 years old age group. Similarly 17.78% are between 30 to 40 years old age group, 35.56% are between 40 to 50 years old group, 28.89% are between 50 to 60 years old age group and remaining 10% are more than 60 years old. According to data high number of

respondents is between 40 to 50 years old age group and low number of respondents is between 20 to 30 years old group.

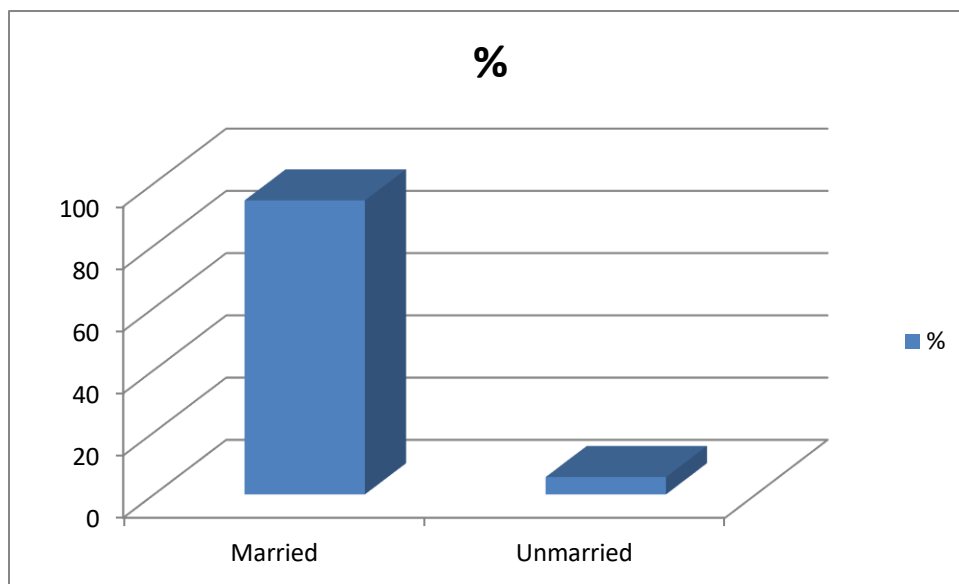
4.1.3 Respondents by Marital Status

Table: 4.3
Respondents by Marital Status

Marital status	No.	%
Married	85	94.44
Unmarried	5	5.56
total	90	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.3
Respondents by Marital Status



The table and figure beyond present that respondents by marital status. Out of the 90 respondents 94.44% are married and remaining 5.56% are unmarried. Most of the respondents are married.

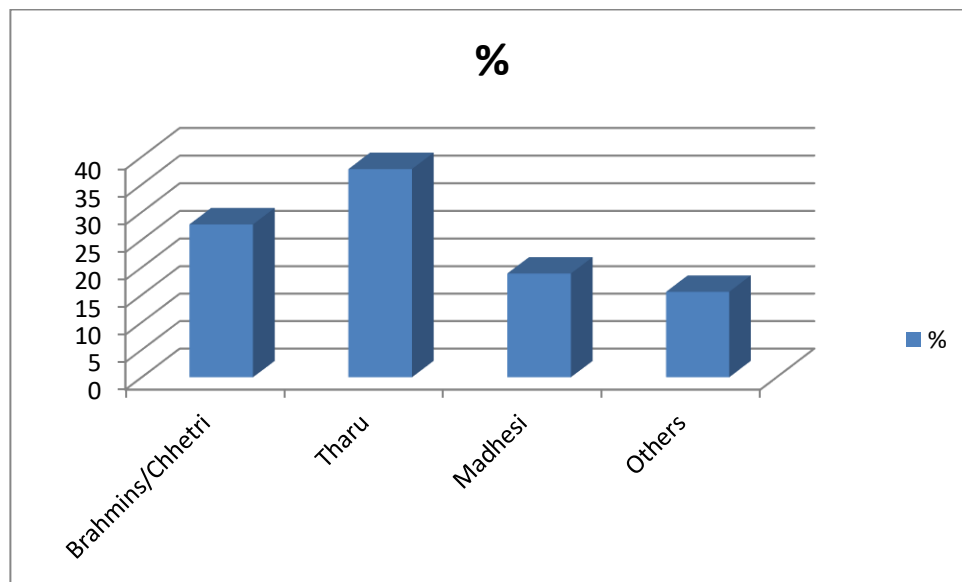
4.1.4 Respondents by Caste and Ethnicity

Table: 4.4
Respondents by Caste and Ethnicity

Caste/Ethnicity	No.	%
Brahmins/Chhetri	25	27.78
Tharu	34	37.78
Madhesi	17	18.89
Others	14	15.56
Total	90	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.4
Respondents by Caste and Ethnicity



Above table and figure demonstrate the respondents by caste and ethnicity. Out of the 90 respondents 27.78% are Brahmins/Chhetri, 37.78% are Tharu likewise 18.89% are Madhesi and remaining 15.56% are others like Dalit, Magar, Gurung etc. In the study area high numbers of respondents are Tharu and low number of respondents is other caste.

4.1.5 Respondents by Religion

Table: 4.5

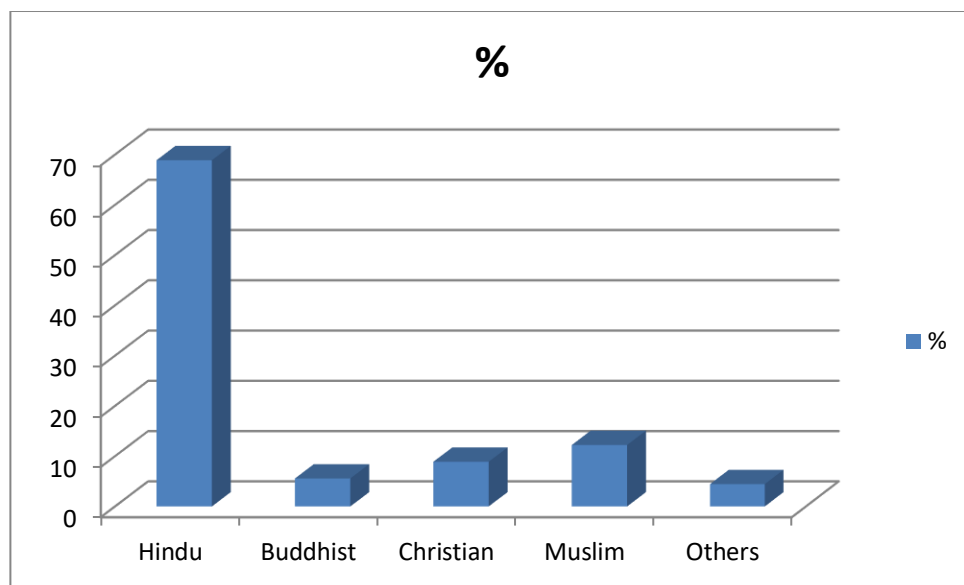
Respondents by Religion

Religious	No.	%
Hindu	62	68.89
Buddhist	5	5.56
Christian	8	8.89
Muslim	11	12.22
Others	4	4.44
Total	90	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.5

Respondents by Religious



Above table and figure show the respondents by religious. Data show that 68.89% are Hindus, 5.56% are Buddhist, 8.89% are Christian, 12.22% are Muslim and remaining 4.44% are other religious. According to the data most of the respondents are Hindus.

4.1.6 Respondents by Occupation

Table: 4.6

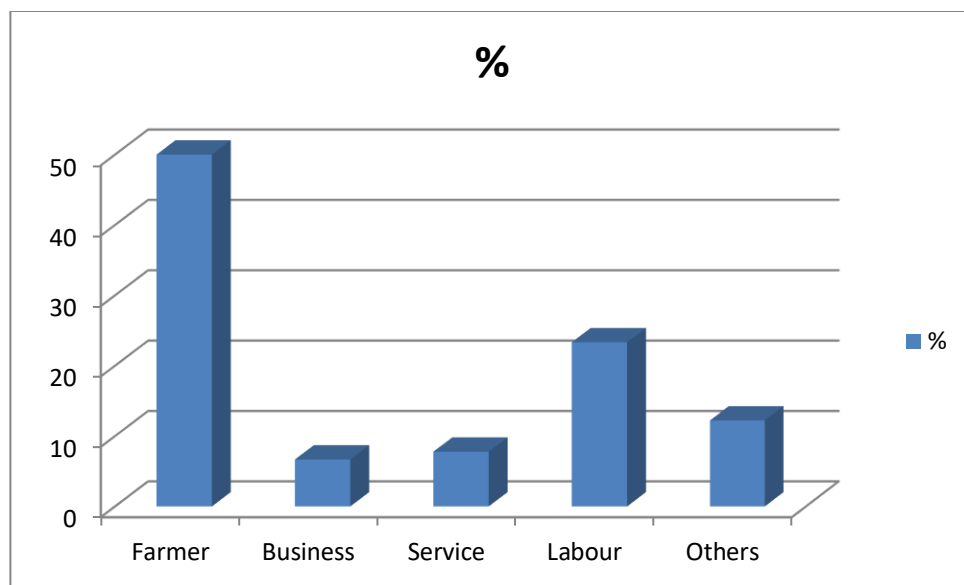
Respondents by Occupation

Occupation	No.	%
Farmer	45	50
Business	6	6.67
Service	7	7.78
Labour	21	23.33
Others	11	12.22
Total	90	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.6

Respondents by Occupation



Beyond Table and figure explain the respondents by Occupation. Out of the 90 respondents 50% are farmer, 6.67% are involved in business. Similarly 7.78% are involved in service, 23.33% are involved in labour and remaining 12.22% are involved in other business. In the study area most of the household are involved in Agriculture (farmer).

4.1.7 Respondents by Having Family Members

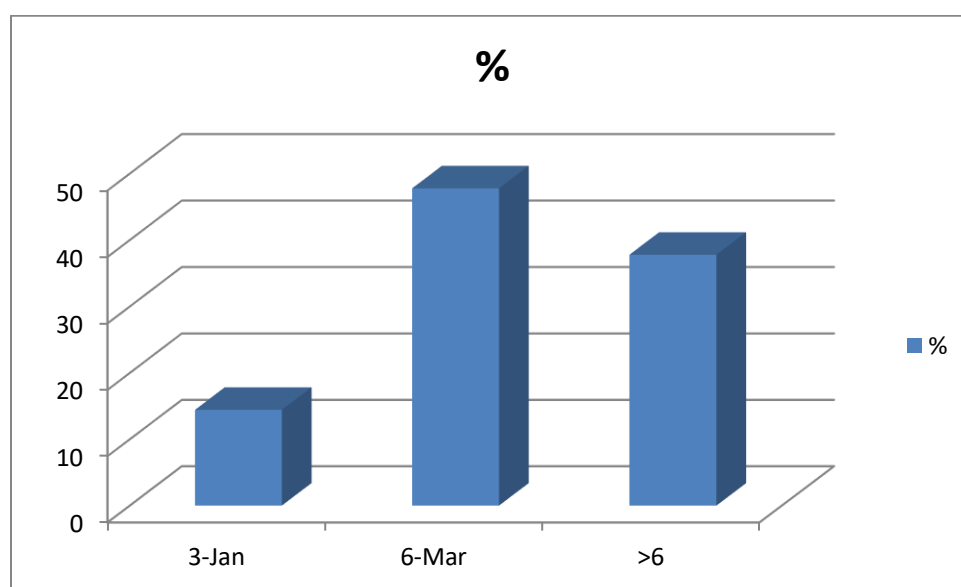
Table: 4.7

Respondents by Having Family Members

No. of family Members	No.	%
1-3	13	14.44
3-6	43	47.78
>6	34	37.78
Total	90	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.7
Respondents by Having Family Members



Above table and figure demonstrate the respondents by having family members. Out of the 90 household 14.44% household have 1 to 3 numbers of family member, 47.78% have 3 to 6 numbers of family member, and remaining 37.78% household have more than 6 numbers of family member. In the study area most of the household have 3 to 6 numbers of family members.

4.2 Impact and Status of land ownership

In this section it has been analyzed various impacts of being land owner because land is the main property of Nepalese rural people. Land is using as the main source of livelihood

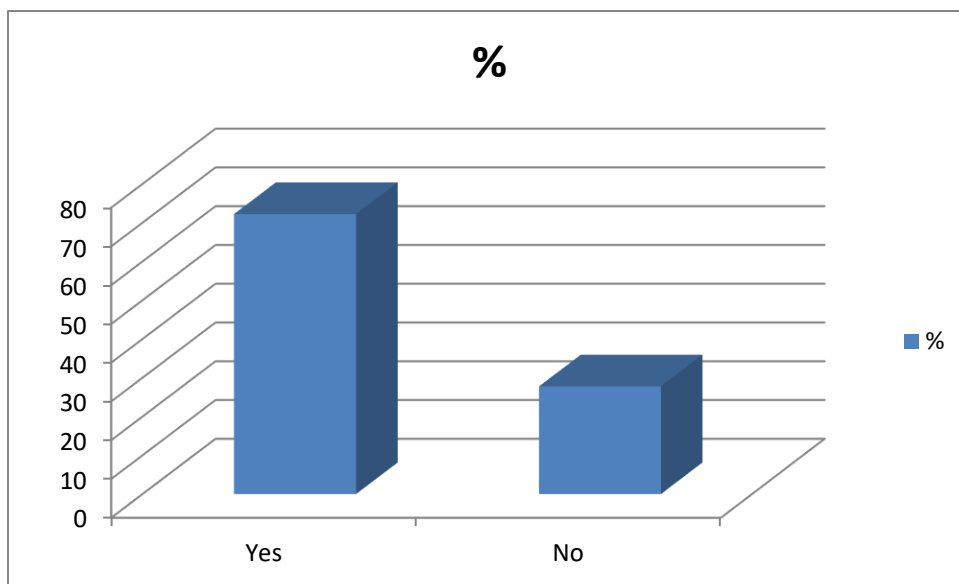
4.2.1 Respondents by having own Registered Land

Table: 4.8
Respondents by having land

Having land	No.	%
Yes	65	72.22
No	25	27.78
Total	90	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.8
Respondents by having land



Above table and figure illustrate the respondents by having land. Data show that 72.22% have their own land and 27.78% have not their own land. In the study area most of the respondents have their own land.

4.1.2 Respondents by Own Registered Landholding Size

Table: 4.9
Respondents by Own Registered Landholding Size

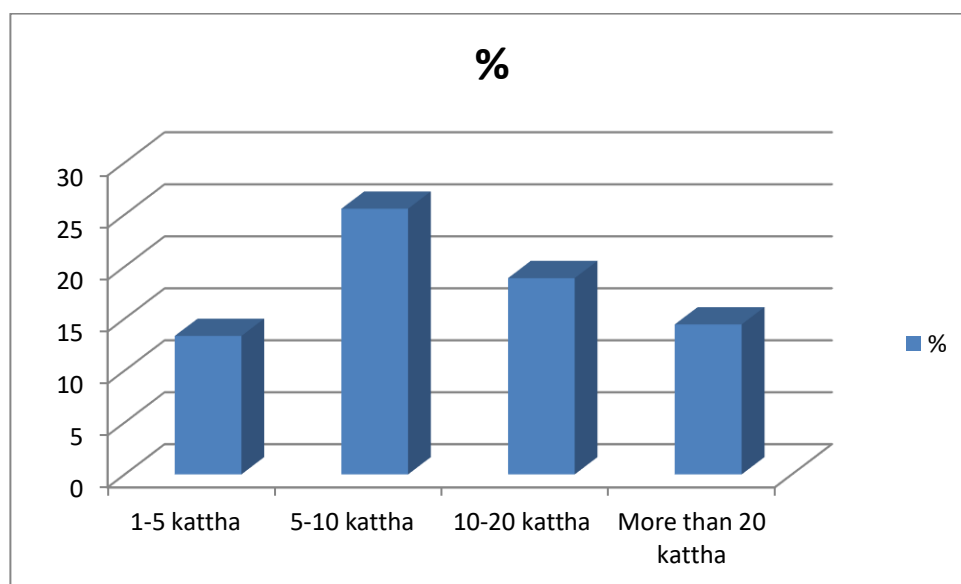
Landholding size	No.	%
------------------	-----	---

1-5 kattha	12	13.33
5-10 kattha	23	25.56
10-20 kattha	17	18.89
More than 20 kattha	13	14.44
Total	65	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.9

Respondents by Own Registered Landholding Size



Above table and figure explain the respondents by land holding size. Out of the 90 respondents 65 household have their own registered land. Among 65 household 13.33% have 1 to 5 Kattha land, 25.56% household have 5 to 10 Kattha land, likewise 18.89% have 10 to 20 Kattha land and remaining 14.44% household have more than 20 Kattha (1 Bigha) land. According to data most of the respondents have 5 to 10 Kattha land.

4.2.3 If no their Own Land, Respondents by Living Land

Table: 4.10

Respondents by Living Land

Living land	No.	%
-------------	-----	---

Non-registered land (Aeilani)	15	60
Landlord	7	28
Public Land	3	12
Total	25	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.10
Respondents by Living Land



Above table and figure show the respondents by living land of the landless household. Out of the 90 respondents 25 household have not their own registered land. Among those 25 household 60% living their own non-registered (Aeilani) land, 28% living in landlord's land and 12% household are living public land. In the study area most of the registered landless households are living in their own non-registered (Aeilani land).

4.2.4 Respondents satisfaction with land size

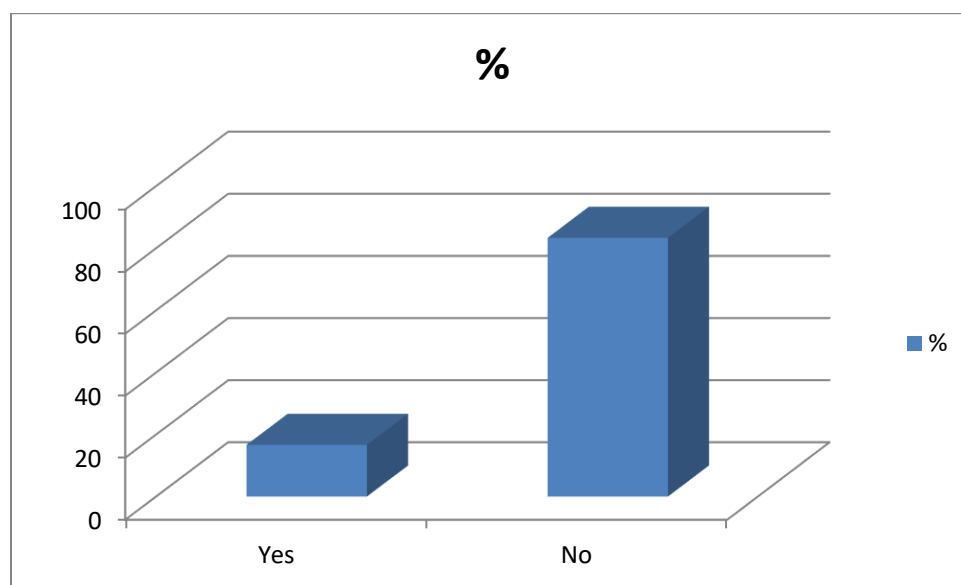
Table: 4.11
Respondents by Satisfied with Land Size

Satisfaction of land size	No.	%
Yes	15	16.67

No	75	83.33
Total	90	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.11
Respondents by Satisfied with land size



Above table and figure show the respondents by satisfied with their land size. Out of the 90 respondents who's having their own registered land as well as having non-registered land 16.67% are satisfied with their land size and 75% are dissatisfied with their land holding size. In the study area majoring of the respondents are dissatisfied with their land holding size, since it is not sufficient to support their family member.

4.2.5 Perception of Respondents by Necessary to Maintain Livelihood

Table: 4.12

Respondents by Necessary Land size To Maintain Livelihood

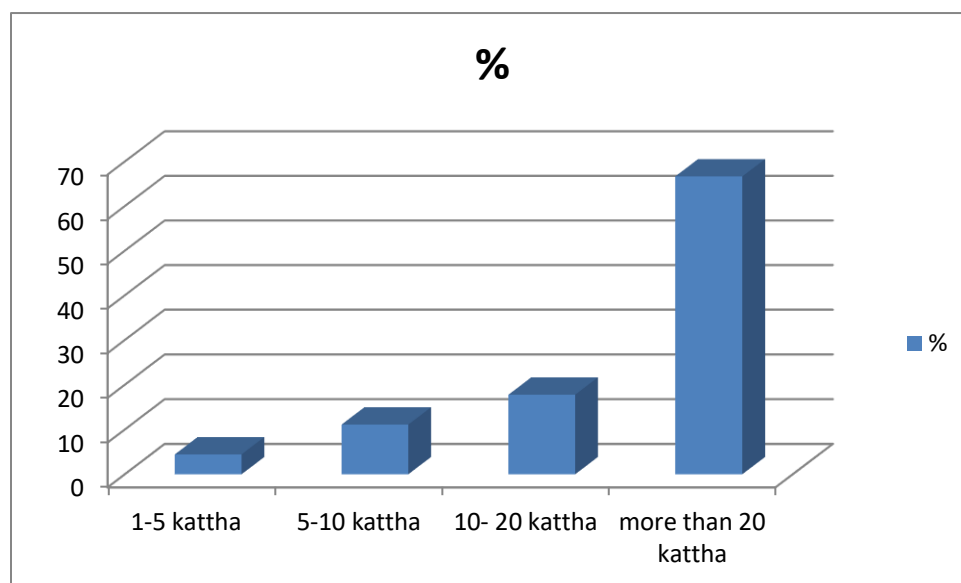
Necessary land	No.	%
1-5 kattha	4	4.44

5-10 kattha	10	11.11
10- 20 kattha	16	17.78
more than 20 kattha	60	66.67
Total	90	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.12

Respondents by Necessary for Maintain Livelihood



Above table and figure show the respondents by necessary land holding size for maintain their livelihood. Out of the 90 respondents 4.44% are necessary 1 to 5 Kattha land for maintain their life hood, 11.11% need to 5 to 10 Kattha land, 17.78% need 10 to 20 Kattha land and 66.67% household need more than 20 Kattha land for maintain their life hood. According to data most of the respondents need more than 20 Kattha land for maintain their livelihood.

5.2.6 Respondents by having Land Types

Table: 4.13

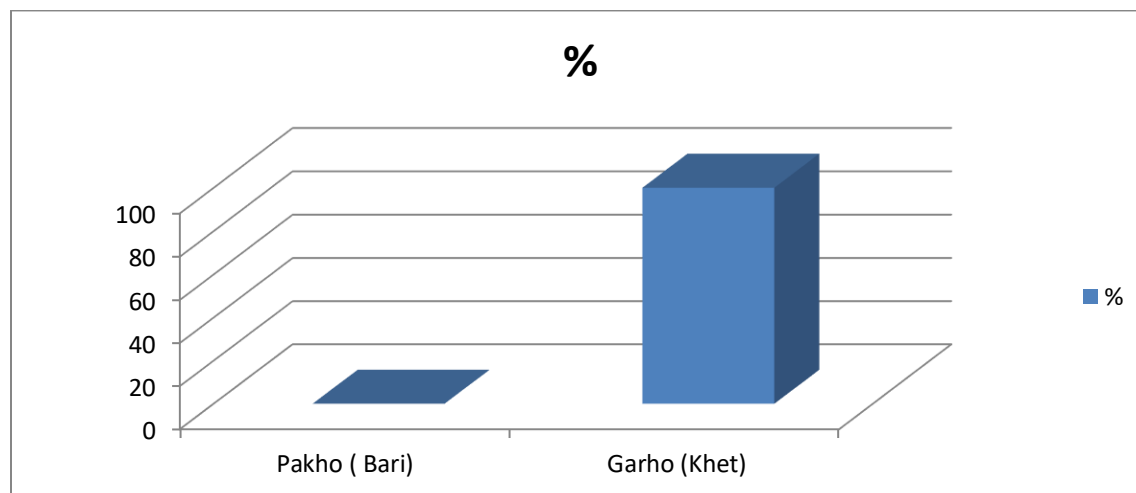
Respondents by having Registered Land Types

Land types	No.	%
Pakho (Bari)	0	0
Garho (Khet)	65	100

Total	65	100
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Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.13
Respondents by having Land Types



Above table and figure show the respondents by having registered land types. Out of the 90household, 65 household have registered land. Among those respondents 100% household have Khet. In the study area there no Pakho or Bari.

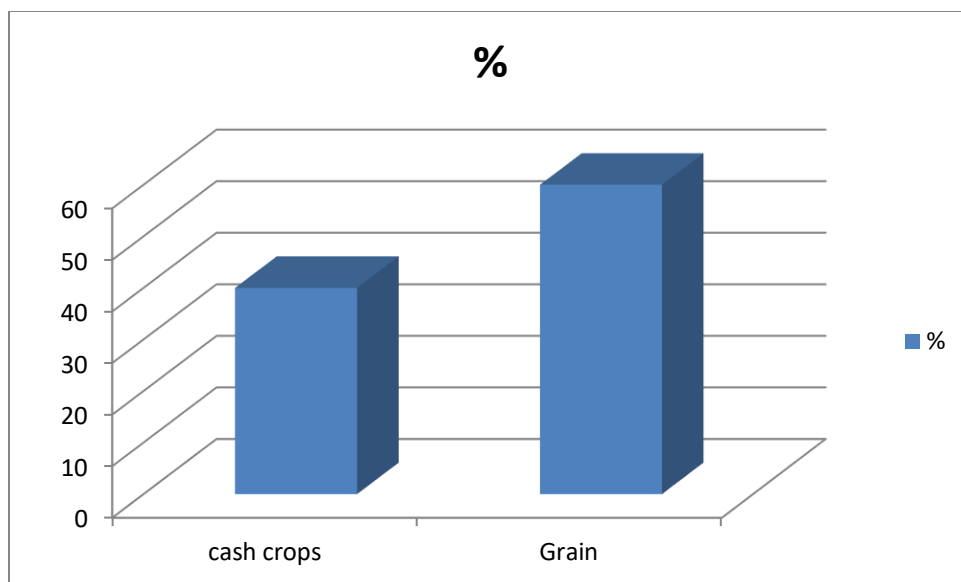
4.2.7 Respondents by type of crops cultivate in land

Table: 4.14
Respondents by Type of Crops Cultivate in Land

Types of crops	No.	%
cash crops	36	40
Grain/ cereal crops	54	60
Total	90	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.14
Respondents by type of crops cultivate in land



Above table and figure explain the respondents by types of crops cultivate in land. Data shows that 40% household cultivates cash crops and remaining 60% cultivate Grain. In the study area most cultivate grain.

4.2.8 Respondents by Food Sufficiency

Table: 4.15

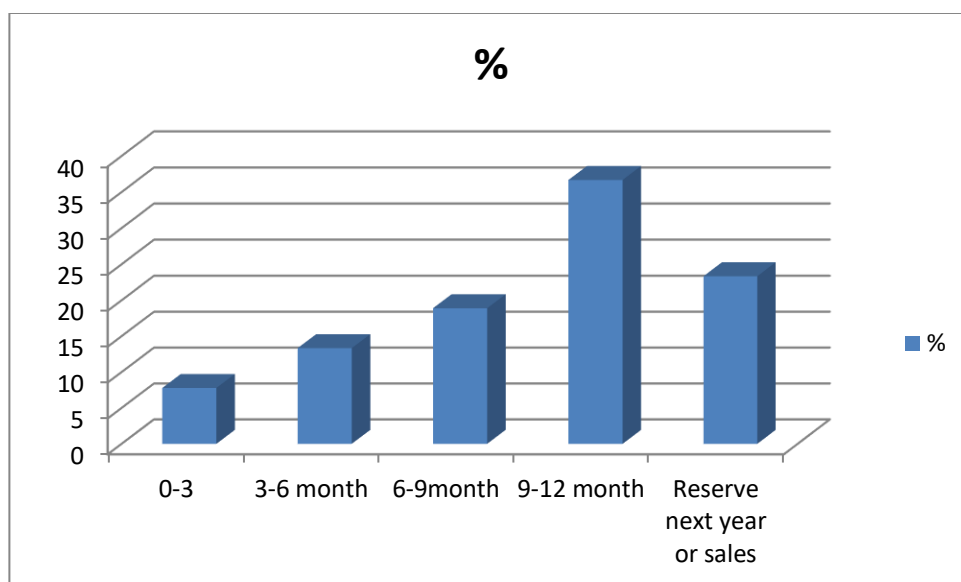
Respondents by Food Sufficiency

Food sufficiency	No.	%
0-3	7	7.78
3-6 month	12	13.33
6-9month	17	18.89
9-12 month	33	36.67
Reserve next year or sales	21	23.33
Total	90	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.15

Respondents by Food Sufficiency



Above table and figure illustrate the respondents by food sufficiency. Out of the 90 household 7.78% sufficient only up to 3 months from their own production, 13.33% have food sufficiently for 3 to 6 months from their own production, 18.89% have sufficiently for 6 to 9 months from their own production, 36.67% sufficient 9 to 12 months from their own production and 23.33% households have production of food sufficiently for more than 12 months. According to the data most of household have sufficiently for food their own production for 9 month to 12 months.

4.2.9 Alternative Source for Livelihood

Table: 4.16

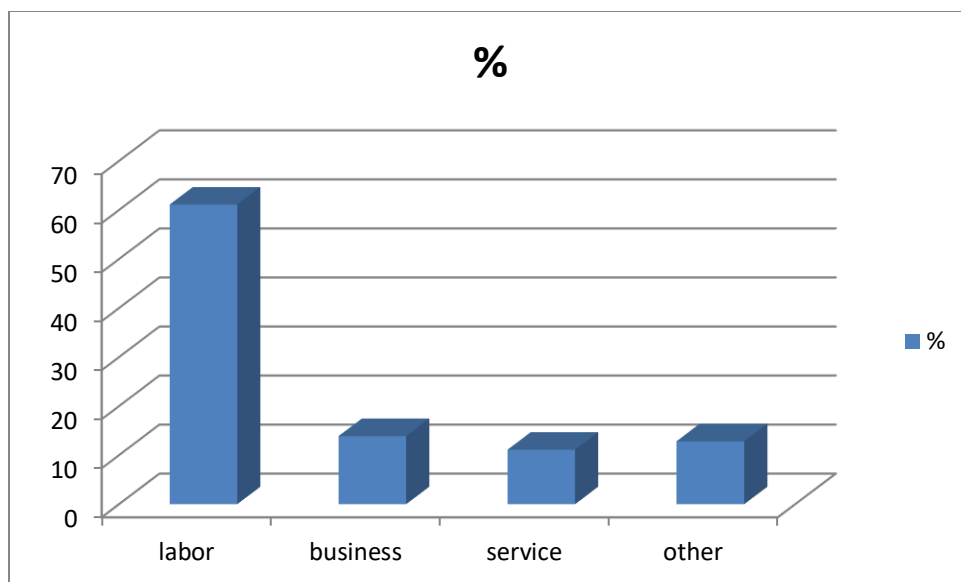
If Lack from which sources do you fulfilled?

Sources	No.	%
labor	22	61.11
business	5	13.89
service	4	11.11
other	5	12.82
Total	36	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.16

If Lack, in which sources are you fulfill?



Above table and figure explain the respondents by fulfill their food, if there have lack of food. Out of 90 household 54 household produce sufficient food for whole year and 36 household could not produce food for whole year. Among 36 household 61.11% fulfill their food from labour, 13.89% fulfill from business, 11.11% fulfill from service and 12.82% household fulfill their food from other activities. In the study area most of the household fulfill their lack of food from labour.

4.2.10 Respondents by Receiving Facilities from Government for Agriculture

Table: 4.17

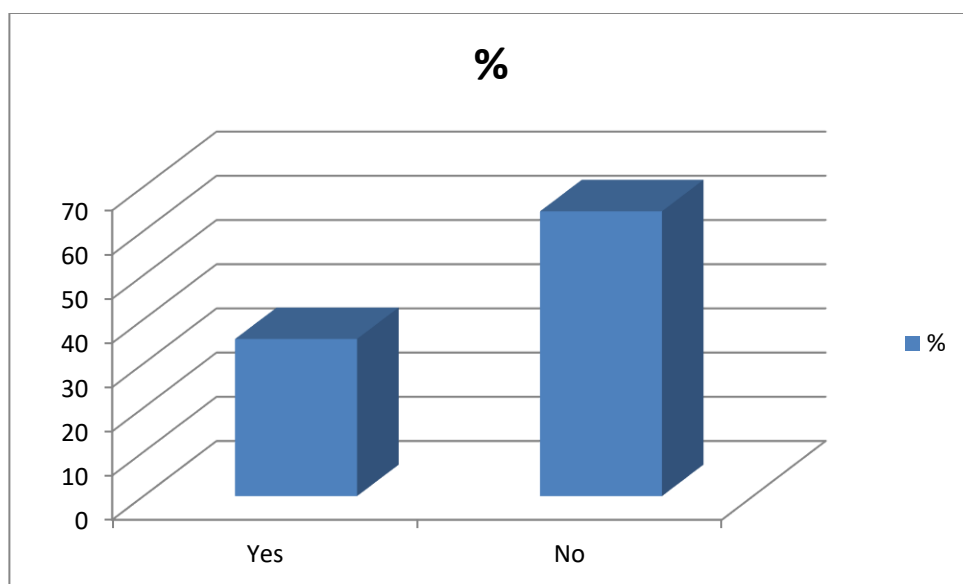
Respondents Receiving Facilities from Government for Fertilizer.

Receiving Facilities from Government for Fertilizer	No.	%
Yes	32	35.56
No	58	64.44
Total	90	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.17

Respondents by Receiving Facilities from Government for Fertilizer



Above table and figure show the respondents by taking facilities from government for fertilizer. Out of 90 household 35.56% are taking fertilizers and 64.44% are not taking any facilities from government sectors for agriculture. Most of the household of study area are not taking facilities from government for agriculture.

4.2.11 Respondents Feeling After being Land Owner

Table: 4.18

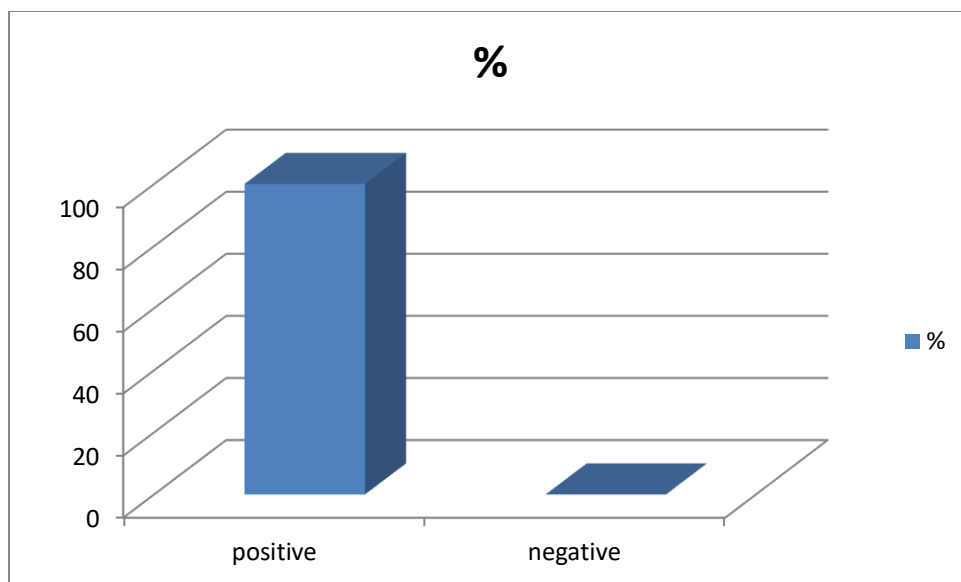
Respondents Feeling After Being Land Owner

Feeling after being land owner	No.	%
positive	65	100
negative	0	0
Total	65	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.18

Respondents feeling after being land owner



Above table and figure show the respondents feeling after being land owner. According to the data 100% respondents are feeling positive response after being land owner.

4.2.12 what kind of facilities you get after being land owner?

Table: 4.19

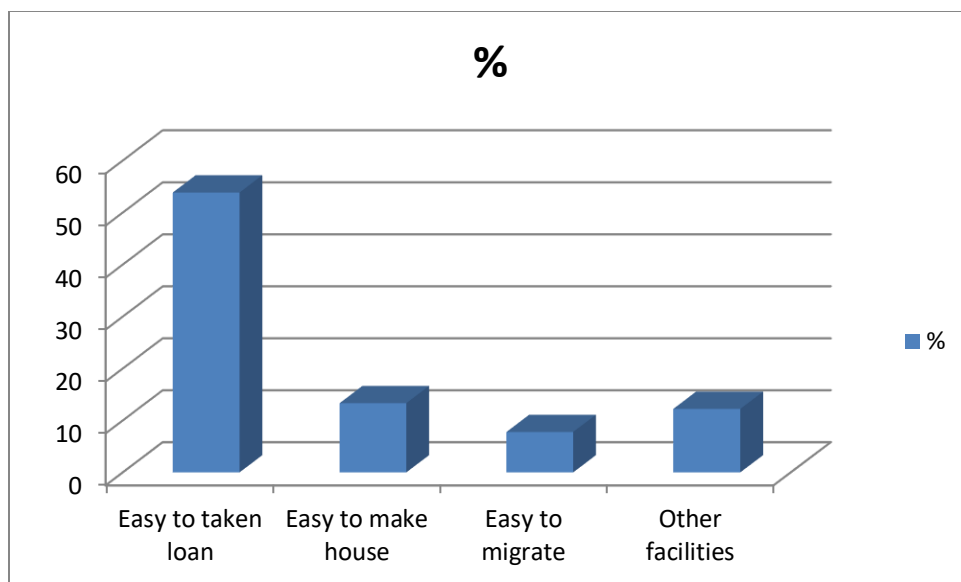
What kind of facilities you get after being land owner?

Facilities	No.	%
Easy to taken loan	35	53.85
Easy to make house	12	13.33
Easy to migrate	7	7.78
Other facilities	11	12.22
Total	65	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.19

What kind of facilities you get after being land owner?



Above table and figure demonstrate the respondents' perception to get facilities after being land owner. According to data 53.85% household feel easy to take loan after being land owner, 13.33% feel easy to make house , 7.78% feel easy to migrate to another place and 12.22% feel others facilities after being land owner.

4.2.13 Impact on economic status after being land owner?

Table: 4.20

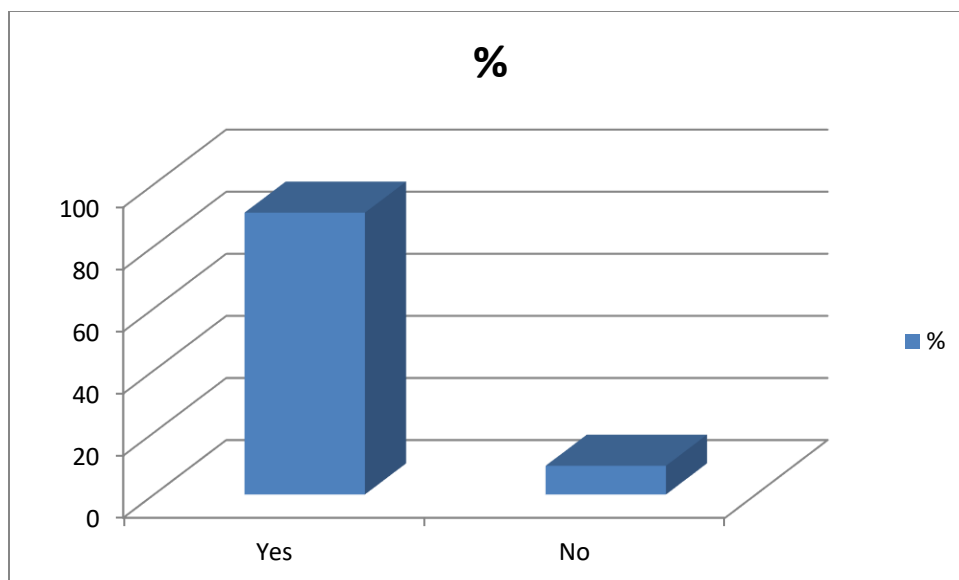
Do you feel any economic impact on your economic status after being land owner?

Impact on economic status	No.	%
Yes	59	90.76
No	6	9.23
Total	65	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.20

Do you feel any economic impact on your economic status after being land owner?



Beyond table and figure show respondents by feel economic impact after being land owner. Data shows that 90.76% are feel change of their economic status after being land owner and remaining 9.23% are not feel economic change after being land owner. Most of the respondents feel change economic status after being land owner.

4.2.14 Economic benefit after being land owner

Table: 4.21

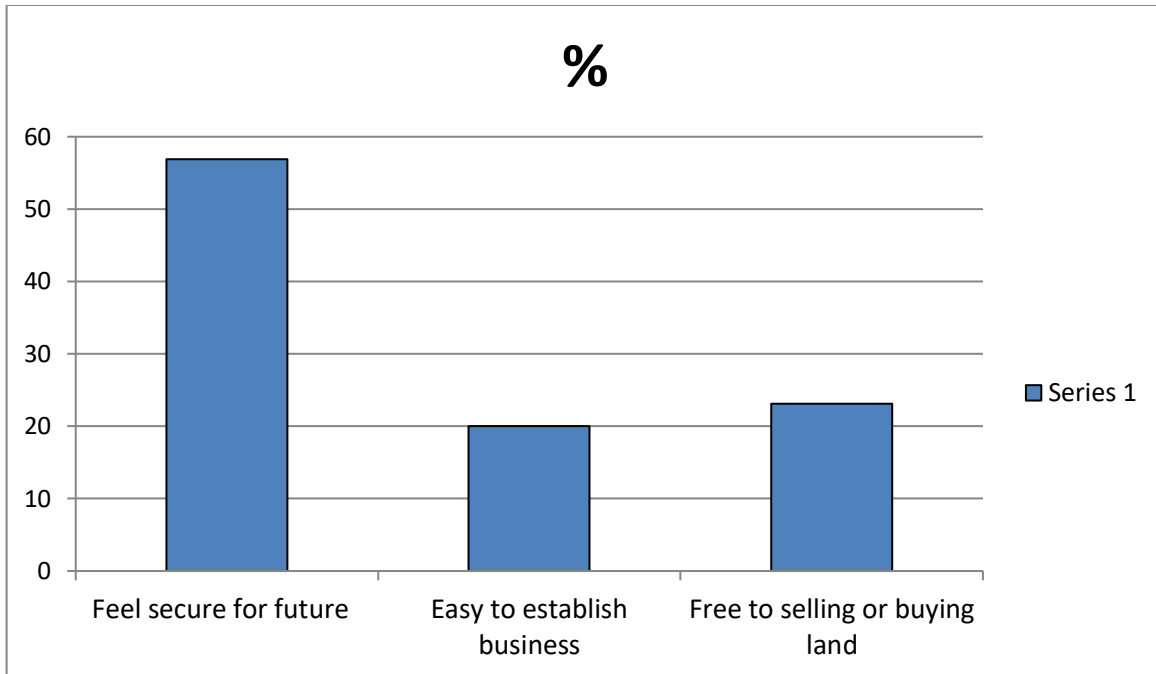
What Type of Economic Benefit You Get After Being Land Owner?

Benefit	No.	%
Feel secure for future	37	56.92
Easy to establish business	13	20
Free to selling or buying land	15	23.07
Total	65	100

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.21

What type of economic benefit you get after being land owner?



Above table and figure show the respondents by feel economic change after being land owner. According to data 56.92% are feeling secure for future, 20% feel easy to establish business and 23.07% feel free to sell or buy their land. Most of the respondents feel secure for future.

4.2.15 Other Impact of Being Land Owner

Table: 4.22

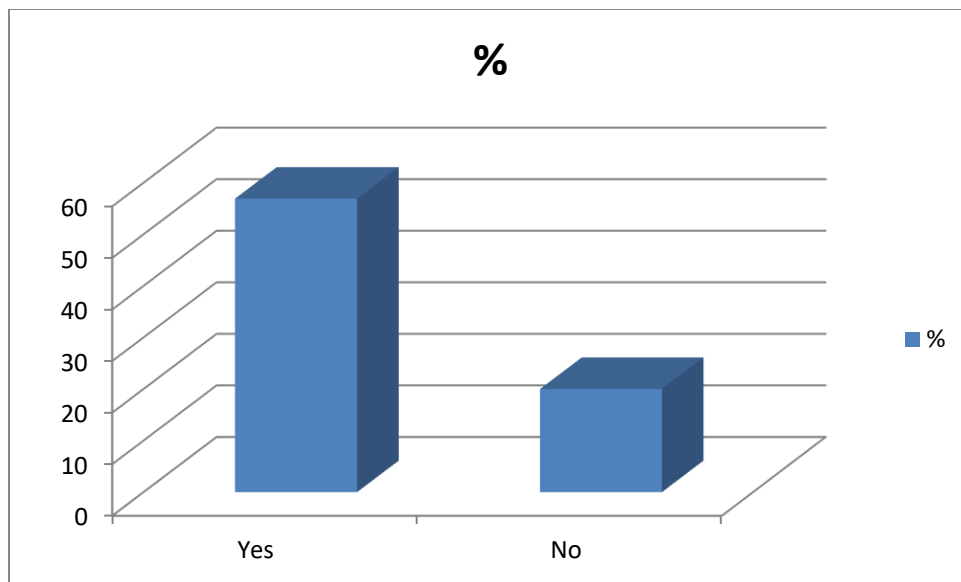
Have You Any Other Impact of Being Land Owner

Have other impact of being land owners	No.	%
Yes	90	56.92
No	0	20
Total	90	23.07

Sources: Field survey 2015

Figure: 4.22

Other Impact of Being Land Owner



Above table and figure show that all the respondents feel benefit while they have own land for cultivation.

CHAPTER: V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 Summary

The thesis entitled, "Status of Land Ownership and Its Impacts on Rural livelihood in Nepal: A Case Study of Rudrapur VDC, Rupandehi District)" focuses on the impact of having land and its role of economic enhancement of rural people. The objective of this study is to analyze the status of land ownership and its' impact on economic development; access the impact of land ownership in agriculture and evaluate the economic impact in local people due to land ownership certificate in Rudrapur VDC. The present study was carried out in Rudrapur VDC of Rupandehi district, which is located in the western development region in Lumbini Zone. The economic status of this district is normal. Agriculture is the main occupation of this VDC. The study area was selected for this study because it is accessible for the researcher and such kind of research has been done in this area before. The study is used exploratory and descriptive research design. The objective of the study is related to the impact of land ownership of people living in the study area that has been fulfilled by using exploratory cum descriptive research design. The study has been based on both secondary and primary data and information. Secondary data were used to present the background of the study and supplement and complement the findings of the study. Secondary data were collected from various sources such as books, journals, previous theses on the subject and government publications.

Rudrapur VDC of Rupandehi district was selected for the study where the total population is 20689 and 4567 households (census 2068 BS). Among them 90 household were selected by using Random Sampling Techniques. Personal interviews have been taken for the selected household. From each household hold one respondent was selected for the interview.

Structured questionnaire, FGD, key informant interview and observation were used for collecting data from the selected households. The field survey was conducted after passed this proposal.

The household survey has been conducted in order to collect qualitative and quantitative facts about impact of landownership on rural livelihood of the people living in the study area such as situation and the role of agriculture in their upliftment. Certain information has been collected by observation method. Researcher observe agriculture activities such as farming, selling goods, house pattern etc and guess the situation of economic status. Key informant interview is also used using checklist. The key informants of this study were local leader, cooperative manager,

VDC secretary etc. Collected data and information were presented by using simple mathematical and statistical tools such as table graph percentage etc.

Nepal is agricultural country more than 70% population are depended in agriculture which has directly related to land. landownership is one of the important certificate for farmers because if they have no land certificate they should pay some part of the production to others like Guthi, and other institution because such so called social organization also claims on the land. This study is significant for those who want to study the impact of landownership on local people living in Rudrapur VDC. This is also significance for those NGOs/ INGOs and government who are working on land right issues. More than that such type of study has not been yet done in the study area so researcher selected for the first time that is one of the significant research on that issue on particular geographical location.

5.2 Conclusion and Findings

On the basis of primary data the following conclusion and finding has been drawn by the researcher which are as follows:

While analyzing the socio economic status of the respondents it found that 44.44% are male and remaining 55.56% are female. In the study area female respondents are more than male respondents. 77.78% are between 20 to 30 years old age group. Similarly 17.78% are between 30 to 40 years old age group, 35.56% are between 40 to 50 years old group, 28.89% are between 50 to 60 years old age group and remaining 10% are more than 60 years old. According to data high numbers of respondents are between 40 to 50 years old age group and low numbers of respondents are between 20 to 30 years old group. 94.44% are married and remaining 5.56% are unmarried. Most of the respondents are married. 27.78% are Brahmins/Chhetri, 37.78% are Tharu likewise 18.89% are Madhesi and remaining 15.56% are others like Dalit, Magar, Gurung etc. In the study area high numbers of respondents are Tharu and low number of respondents is other caste. 53.85% household feel easy to take loan after being land owner, 13.33% feel easy to make house, 7.78% feel easy to migrate to another place and 12.22% feel others facilities after being land owner. 90.76% are feel change of their economic status after being land owner and remaining 9.23% are not feel economic change after being land owner. Most of the respondents feel change economic status after being land owner. 56.92% are feeling secure for future, 20%

feel easy to establish business and 23.07% feel free to sale and buy land. Most of the respondents feel secure for future. Out of 90 household 54 household produce sufficient food for whole year and 36 household could not produce food for whole year. Among 36 household 61.11% fulfill their food from labour, 13.89% fulfill from business, 11.11% fulfill from service and 12.82% households fulfill their food from other activities. In the study area most of the household fulfill their lack of food from labour. On the basis of findings it has been drawn following conclusion which are as follows most of the respondents faced various problems in their life because of not having own land such as they could not draw loan from financial institution and Banks . They felt humiliation while other people behave them as Sukumbashi though they have land since their ancestor time. Sometime Jamindar and government forest department create threaten to them. More than that they are being landless by the state in this or that cause.

5.3 Recommendations

On the basis of primary and secondary data the following recommendation has given which are as follows

- Government made various commission to solve the problem though the problem is same in the study area it should be solved as soon as possible
- Getting land in one name is human right so human rights activist should think about the issue and should advocate
- Government forest department and land department should work in collaboration and solve the problem
- Government should make one independent commission to solve the problem
- Political parties should be conscious about the problems
- People of Rudrapur are being suppressed by land ownership as soon as land reform act should be implemented
- New land reform act and land back should be established in Nepal
- People should be conscious about their right and continue to persevere till they have not get land on their land
- Land is important for poverty reduction so poverty reduction program should invest in this field

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- Annex: A

Questionnaires

Demographical information of the respondents

Name:

Sex:

- i. Male
- ii. Female

Age Group:

Marital Status:

Caste/Ethnicity:

Religious:

Occupation:

Numbers of Family Members

Status of land ownership

- 1) Do you have own name land ?
a)yes b)No
- 2)if yes, how many kattha /bigha land have you got ?
a)1-5 kattha b)5-10 kattha c)10-20 kattha d) more than 20 kattha
- 3)if no ,whose land you are living ?
a) landlord b) sarkari land
- 4) Do you satisfied with your land size ?
a) yes b) No
- 5) how many kattha /bigha is necessary for you to maintain your economy?
a)1-5 kattha b) 5-10 kattha c) 10- 20 kattha d) more than 20 kattha
- 6)which type of land do you have ?
a) pakho b) garho c)
- 7)what type of crops do you cultivate in your land ?
a)cash crops b) corn crops
- 8)Does your production is sufficient to food for whole year?
a)3-6 month b)6-9month c)9-12 month
- 9)if not, lack in which sources do you fulfill ?
a) labor b)business c)service d)other
- 10)Do you take any facilities from government for agriculture ?
a)yes b)No
- 11)what impact do you feel after being land owner?
a) positive b)negative
- 12) What kind of facilities you get after being land owner ?
a) easy to taken loan b) easy to make house c)easy to migrate d) other

13) Do you feel any economic impact on your economic status ?

a) yes b) No

14) what type of economic benefit you get after being land owner/

a) feel secure for future b) easy to establish business c) free to exchange land

15) have you any other impact of being land owner ?