## Status of Female Teachers

(A Case Study of Pokhara Sub-Metropolitan City)

# A Dissertation submitted to the <br> Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences Department of Sociology/Anthropology 

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Submitted by:

## Sabita Devi Gurung

Roll no. 145/2060
Prithwi Narayan Campus

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## CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background

It is evident that development of a country can not be possible without the participation of women. It is therefore accepted that women's socio-economic status plays a vital role in the development activities of a nation. But, unfortunately there is a large discrepancy in nonagriculture sector wage employment between females and males. Most of the females are deprived of wage employment in non-agriculture sector compared to males. It is because of larger involvement of females in household jobs like cooking for the family, washing dishes, cleaning the house, fetching water, caring the children, old age and sick members of the family equally, cleaning the shed, cultivating land without their ownership on it. Economically active population aged 10 years and above in 48.9 percent is females and 67.6 for males. It is lower by 18.7 percent for females compared to males. Among economically active population, 89.3 percent females and 92.6 percent males are employed (Census 2001) The population census of 2001 has highlighted and brought up some agenda related to household works as the economic activities of Nepalese females. They are as such "extended economic work", "ownership on land", "ownership on house", "ownership on livestock" etc for the first time in the census history of Nepal. Out of total 100 females not even one ( 0.8 percent) female had ownership on livestock, and slightly more than five ( 5.3 percent) females had ownership on land (CBS, 2003). The figures clearly indicate that females' economic status is extremely limited in Nepalese society although they work longer hours than males do everyday. To empower females, gender mainstreaming in development activities is a must in any society. The key issues of gender empowerment cannot be addressed in the real sense without placing females in decisionmaking positions. In all respects, from policy formulation to implementation and monitoring, the program needs to be more gender-responsive that needs gender inclusive participatory functioning mechanism of the Governance system in Nepal.

Women are forced to depend on men economically and their activities were restricted inside four walls of a house. Various legal arrangements were made to ensure their position. Despite this, the laws guaranteed men's right to property. As a result of many years oppression, the society and the conservative sections of population considered them as backward and set them aside. Engles suggested that the first premise of the emancipation of women is the reintroduction of the entire female population into public industry. (Marx \& Engles, 1973)

People at different parts of Nepal have praised for assertive impacts of recruiting female teachers. In Nepal, recruitment of female teachers is a common agenda nowadays. Issues of pro-female teacher have become burning topics presently. For attracting more girls' enrolment and empowering the women whose population is half of the country's masses, it is quite essential to recruit and train more female teachers in Nepal. There are some positive impacts of female teachers to create gender parity. Both boys and girls student participation seems to have increased at all levels of education, including primary schools. The total number of public and private schools has reached 28026 and at the primary level, female teachers account for 30.6 percent with Dalits 2.5 percent and Janajatis 17.8 percent thought their representation in high school is still low. (National Planning Commission, 2007)

Because of stereotyped society, female teachers have to face several mental and physical challenges and pressures from their bosses, colleagues, students and their family. Though the female teacher's performance is highly appreciated and female teachers are the best remodels for the girls, many of them have been struggling just to establish themselves as teaching professionals as the status of female teachers is not so high. A shortage of female teachers, lack of proper training, inadequate delivery of services and indifferent attitude combine to add to gender inequality in education in Nepal. As teaching profession was almost carried out by the males of centuries in Nepal, recent involvement of the females in it has made them sit on the hot tin roof.

### 1.2 Statement of the Problem

Despite the equality guaranteed by Nepal's constitution and the international commitments made by the Government of Nepal to uplift women and eliminate discrimination against them, nearly all indicators continue to show women's disadvantaged position in Nepalese society. Nepalese women have very limited involvement in decision-making from the household level through to high level legislative and bureaucratic positions. The political and bureaucratic structures also prevent the entry of women into the important decision making domains.

With the development of the modern concept, women had a chance to exhibit their ability in many walks of life and they had proved that they are as competent as men in any sphere of life. In spite of that the traditional women were not able to emancipate themselves from the age long inferiority complex, which they inherit and this had become a major hindrance in the allround development of women.

Women have always worked, and their labour plays a key role in the survival of millions of families but the work they do is often neither publicly nor privately acknowledged. Women are not in a minority group or special category and similarly, women's work is not just another issue. Although women have been subordinated and marginalized in different ways for much of history, their labour-and the exploitation of that labour - is the foundation of society's wealth. Women perform the vital function of producing society's producers, and yet this role is made to appear private, marginal and without economic value. Education, occupation and income are certain structural factors in the status of women, which have brought a change in their cognitive structure as well.

In order to uplift the status of women, it is very important to find the reasons behind their backwardness. It was also important to know the factors which could motivate the entire society for their upliftment. For this, a detail research work has to be undertaken. But it has not been possible due to the lack of strong will power and the part of the existing authority and the unavailability of adequate resources. On the one hand, it is often blamed that females are not equally capable to work in office because they can't render over-time seriously and on the other hand women themselves hesitate to take a greater responsibilities in same occasions. Other factors need to be found out through rigorous research and other study.

Teachers are supposed to be the extrinsic role models of hundreds of children and have very powerful impacts in the young minds. If there are female teachers, the young minds get molded right. After appointing female teachers, there are some positive results and apparently, girl's enrolment has boosted. However, in spite of all national and international efforts to eliminate gender disparity, female teachers in Nepal are still struggling with many odds even today. Because females are brought up differently, society treats them with prejudice and they are still unable to harness tremendous supports to develop their careers, inequality persist even today.

Based on aforementioned general problem, this study has attempted to answer the following questions:

1. Do female teachers enjoy social and economic freedom for their professional development?
2. What could be the major factor for empowering female teachers?
3. Do they experience any type of discrimination in their working area only for being women?
4. What is their attitude towards their job and for professional development?
5. Do their family members support them in creating working environment in their profession?

### 1.3 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study is to explore the status of socio-demographic characteristics of female teachers of Pokhara Sub-Metropolitan City.

The specific objectives are:

1. To find out the demographic status of female teachers.
2. To find the social and economic status of female teachers.
3. To explore their perceptions towards their job.

### 1.4 Limitation of the Study

This study has some limitations. It is an academic research which has been conducted for the partial fulfillment of a degree of Masters of Arts in Sociology. The research was conducted in various institutional schools of Pokhara Valley. The findings were based on the opinions expressed by primary level female teachers teaching in schools as sample drawn through random sampling. Therefore, the finding cannot be generalized in other parts of the country or world. The researcher being the student was bounded with the time and expenses constraints due to which a detailed study could not be carried out.

### 1.5 Importance of the study

This study as an academic study, aims to provide data on the status of female teachers in institutional schools of Pokhara Metropolitan city of Kaski.

It is expected that this piece of research work would serve as a helpful guidance for future research studies related to female teachers or educated working women. The study will also help the policy makers and development planners for planning and working with women development interventions.

## CHAPTER TWO

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

### 2.1 Literature Review

Kamla Bhasin, a well-known gender trainer states that gender division of labour or sexual division of labour, refers to the allocation of different roles, responsibilities, and tasks to women and men based on societal ideas of what men and women should do and are capable of doing (Bhasin, 2004). Gender division of labor operates not only in reproductive activities within the household but in productive and community activities as well, most of which take place outside the household. Women's work outside the home is often an extension of their work in the family. For example, a large number of women work as kindergarten and primary school teachers or nurses and airhostesses. Jobs which entail authority, power and control are considered men's jobs and jobs involving caring, nurturing, servicing are seen as women's jobs.

Researchers from a wide range of theoretical perspectives have shown an interest in women's participation in paid employment and its implications for other dimensions of women's position within the household and wider society. More recent empirical findings have further illustrated that earning an income through work is not necessarily sufficient to alter women's position fundamentally. Far from leading to empowerment, women's work may represent a further dimension of exploitation by both families and employers (Desai and Jain, 1992; Greenhalgh, 1991). Attention is drawn to the ways in which gender norms are embedded in diverse and resilient socio-cultural structures, both within and beyond the household, which act to constrain women's options and reinforce their subordinate identity regardless of their work status (Greenhalgh, 1991).

Female workforce is tremendously increasing all over the world. On the other side the proportion of women engaged in agriculture sector has gradually declined which is being compensated by the increase in employment in services, sales and production. This means more and more women are entering into formal sectors of employment i.e salaried employment. The shift from agriculture to non-agriculture, particularly, the service industry, provides more
opportunities for women employment. It is not just in Nepal, even in developed countries, there is a surge in female labor force. They ascribe this to factors like technological, economic and social changes. Economic changes like growing male unemployment and economic necessities also have pushed women to come out of their traditional role as housemaids. The social changes like the availability of contraceptives, girls' education, increase in the age of marriage and social acceptance that women too can work outside have all contributed to the increased inflow of women in labor market. But women are continued to be paid less than their male counter parts. Job discrimination is still there. (Manandhar, 2001)

World cannot afford to do without women's full contribution at every level of social, economic and political activity. The empowerment of women is an end in itself, because it is question of basic human rights. It also means to an end: the transformation of social structures so that they serve the needs of people rather than ignoring, suppressing or distorting them. Many other women are being threatened by a return to values and beliefs that promote the subordination of women in different ways. At the other side of the picture in spite of the fact that poverty forces many women to work, and in spite of the poor conditions under which they work, the impact of millions of women coming into the labour force-as farmers, secretaries, teachers, bus drivers, traders, doctors-has been overwhelmingly positive. Women have shown what they can do, and it has become more and more difficult to confine them to the home, or to certain occupations, as their 'rightful' place. Women are sustaining households all over the world, and cannot be ignored or marginalized. The immense economic contribution of women is being recognized, as well as their social role. Women are gaining confidence and self-esteem, and are increasing their control over their lives. Through workplace and other groupings, women are becoming stronger and more powerful. Giving equal value to women's outlook and experience, to the reproductive as to the productive role, offers possibilities of a more holistic and humancentered approach to the structuring and development of societies. While it is impossible to see the final outcome, and the struggle is far from over, we must believe that awareness has been created and a momentum built up that cannot be reversed. (Bullock, 1994)

So far as the discrimination against women was concerned, they feel discriminated while seeking employment and opportunity. (Barbara, 1980) Barbara Rogers had also pointed out that "the domestication of women in the terms of house work and children is closely linked with various forms of discrimination against women in the non-domestic sphere". She had further
explained that the restriction of educational opportunity was rationalized in terms of future domestic career as wives and mothers that await all girls. In hiring, promotion and wage structures, the arguments were similar, with the added rider that women do not need to work because they are supposed to have husbands supporting them and their children. Barbara has cited examples of the prevalence of discrimination even within the international agencies.

In the first survey carried out in FAO among 800 women 50 percent responded that they are treated as inferior whereas 315 of them demanded that they need an additional service. More that 50 percent respondents felt that they were discriminated in terms of promotions and grades although they work harder than men of the same level. Another survey conducted in The United States, among 900 women 57 percent of them felt that their career prospects had been greatly influenced by their gender. Likewise, 86 percent of the female professionals felt handicapped by being women. The areas of discrimination were in recruitment, promotion, work assignments, overseas travel, imposition of additional work outside the job description and sexual harassment. According to the highest proportion of discrimination was found to be in women who were in personal service.

In the context of Nepal, this sort of comprehensive study was lacking. However, limited studies had shown that more or less discrimination remained in all areas. A study carried out by TU on "Women in Teaching" states that majority of women employees were of opinion that the prevalence of discrimination was common in the form of power rather than the gender. On the other hand, a small section of women employees had no experience of discrimination regarding the career development between men and women. However, the question of career development of women had no bright picture as compared to men especially in higher level. (Shrestha, 1982)

In the 1991 census, if a person aged 10 and above worked for any length of time during the twelve months preceding the census date, s/he was treated as economically active (CBS, 1995). Similar definition was also used in the 2001 census. Out of total 63.4 percent of economically active population above 10 years males constituted 71.7 and females 55.3 percent only (Nepal Population Report 2004). In Nepal, classifying women as economically active or inactive has been a matter of dispute. Most women in Nepal are engaged in domestic unpaid works. If the definition includes gainfully employed than their contribution to the national economy is
minimized, labour force participation rate of Nepalese women in the Nepalese economy is quite high, however, employment of women are often confined to less productive sector of the economy. More often women's contribution to the national economy is ignored.

According to Devkota (2007), remarkably low percentage of the women are working in the high rank or better job and they do not get opportunities like training, participation in seminar, getting responsibility etc equal to men. However, the life status and pattern of life of the educated employed women has been totally changed after their involvement in the job. Moreover their involvement in social activities or social organization is found to be increased.

Men have ultimate authority over material resources in the household, such as land, and over the labour of women and junior household members. Women having no direct access to land or male labour, must request these resources from their husbands or from other males in the household to whom they are obligated. Despite the apparent subordination of a woman's social and political power to her husband and his family, she maintains considerable economic independence. (Sharma, 2001)

Sood, (1995) while mentioning some facts about women workers, discloses that the public sector is providing all kinds of facilities for women workers. But the same is not true about the private sector. In private sector, women workers face the problem of unequal wages. She says a remarkable rise in employment numbers was found in white-collar jobs such as teachers, nurses, clerks, typists, receptionists etc. However there is lack of vocational and occupational training for women and that is why the absolute number of educated unemployed women is on the rise.

According to Nepal Human Development Report 2004, Gender Development Index and Gender Empowerment Index are found to be 0.452 and 0.391 respectively. Furthermore, Human Empowerment Index is 0.463 for Nepal. Labour participation is 48.9 percent for females, and 67.6 percent for males. Most of the women are involved in informal, subsistence-oriented, domestic, and non-wage earning work. The weekly contribution of male and female to external economic activities is 42.6 and 36.3 hours respectively. On the other hand, weekly male and female contribution to household economic activities is 46.5 and 42.5 hours respectively. Consequently, weekly labor contribution of male and female to non-economic activities is 9.7
and 25.1 hours respectively. Similarly, the share of women in income is seen to be only 30 percent and in administrative services 12.7 percent.

The HDI of Nepal has improved in 2006 as it is 0.509 and GDI is 0.499 (Human Development Report 2009). The report says that whatever progress has been made, the discrepancies in the GDI and GEM values point to a persisting exclusion of women in decision-making and control over resources. Heritage lies at its root - the historic exclusion imposed by patriarchal society and exclusionary state policies.

To end gender disparities, a resolution to ensure 33 percent representation of women in all state mechanisms has been passed by the reinstated parliament. Beijing Action Plan, National Action Plan relating to International Convention to eradication of all kinds of discrimination against women, and a national plan of action on control of trafficking in women and children have been prepared. Some of the laws, discriminatory against women have been amended. Gender focal points have been established on all sectoral ministries in addition to establishment of National Commission on Women. Assistance has been provided for skill development for social and economic empowerment of single women. A mechanisms for gender budgeting has been set up in the Ministry of Finance. The tradition of compulsory participation of women in preparation and implementation of local development programs has been institutionalized. The awareness level of women has been increased as a result of active engagement of the nongovernmental sector and the civil society in protection of women's rights. However, it is felt that there has been inadequate improvement in the legal provisions, development programs and budget allocation for gender equality. (Three-Year Interim Plan, 2007)

Due to prevailing discriminatory traditions and lingering patriarchy in educational functionaries and state agencies girls and women are still devoid of right to education and training. All the maladies that lead to the subordination, subjugation and exploitation arise out of these conditions. The majorities are unpaid and those who are employed are generally unskilled and have to work in exploitative situation. On the other hand the various forms used in universities demand husband's consent to get admission. Thus there is indeed a de facto discrimination in education.

Equality in positions of power and decision-making is important in government which accurately reflects the society it governs. In Nepal, decision-making has traditionally been regarded as a male domain. A wrong perception about the lack of decision-making power of women is deep rooted in tradition, in the community as well as the state where male government officials maintain control over decision making. This tradition follows through to the highest levels of national legislature and parliaments. Therefore the participation of women in power and decision-making is very low. Increasing women's participation in all sectors is still a challenge.

MWCSW is the national machinery working for the advancement of women. It is responsible for mainstreaming gender into policies and plans of all sectoral ministries. Importantly it is also responsible for monitoring the activities of the sectoral ministries. However, the Monitoring and Evaluation Division of the MWCSW lacks technical support to carry out such functions effectively. Generally, MWCSW lacks financial and human resources to carry out all its programmes. Establishment of a Gender Unit in all ministries was also identified as a need, but has not yet become a reality and some major ministries lack a gender unit.

Many activities have been carried out regarding recommendations given in Outcome Document adopted at the Beijing Plus Five in 2000, such as establishment of women commission, reformations of discriminatory laws, research, awareness programmes etc, all to improve the status of women in Nepal. The empowerment of women is imperative for the development of the nation. Legal reforms are one of the preconditions for gender equality. Without eliminating or reducing discriminatory laws, the uplifting of women's social, economical and political status is not possible. Though there have been number of initiatives taken for the empowerment of women, such as mainstreaming of gender in the process of national development, a scholarship programme and a gender sensitization programme. These programmes and activities should be continued and improved over the years. Many programmes and activities have suffered the ill fate of slowing deterioration and collapsing bringing no output. Apart from this poverty, traditional social barriers and lack of realization about women's rights are the major constraints in implementing the provisions to secure the rights of the women. Unless these challenges are resolved, and appropriate actions are taken, women's concerns remain peripheral, and gender considerations are unlikely to be integrated into the mainstream of development.

### 2.2 Conceptual Framework of the Study

General characteristics of professional women denote age, caste, marital status, education, family background, experience, husband's occupation, age at marriage and so on. These factors influence the status or empowerment level of women. For example higher the education, higher is the empowerment level, family background with rich and educated family can be a major factor for better status of working women. Moreover if an employee has a positive and learning attitude then $\mathrm{s} / \mathrm{he}$ can feel much empowered through their profession. On the other hand those who don't seek the ways for improvement feel powerless and lack confidence in conducting work.

Figure 2.1: Conceptual framework of status of female teachers

### 2.3 Overview of Relevant Concepts, Models and Theories

The service sector is not homogeneous; it provides services from the personal to the international level. With rapid globalization, the demand for services is changing and has considerable impact on the nature of employment and the status of employees in the service sector. There are increase numbers of women entering the labour market for paid employment almost all the world. The growth in female labour force participation is due to a number of push and pull factors in the social and economic arenas.

From the supply side, increasing women to higher level of education, skills and training; greater control over their fertility/sexuality; availability of domestic appliance to help in household chores; changing social attitudes towards female employment; increasing gender awareness; changing self perception and increasing poverty pushing them to ensure the survival of their families, are some of the factor influencing the rate of women's participation in the labour market. From the demand side factors include increasing global economic integration; relocation of manufacturing from developed to developing countries; the flexibilization; cansulisation and information of the labour market; greater job opportunities for women; and the changing nature of world economic that prefer a female labour force (Bullock, 1994)

There are a number of theories put forward from different disciplines to explain women's unequal position in the labour market.

### 2.3.1 Neo-classical theories

These theories locate the disadvantage of women outside the labour market and argue that market forces climate discrimination because of competition in the market economy. The neoclassical formulation is based on the assumption that human agents are essentially motivated by self interest and make rational choices to maximize individual utilities. It also assumes that there is perfect competition in the labour market. Any sex related differences in the labour market are explained through the differential productive capacities of individuals. The human capital approach which is one of the most prominent variants of neo-classical theory argues the since women accumulate a lower of stock of human capital than men do, they therefore have lower productivity, which results in inequalities in the market place.

### 2.3.2 Segmented labour market theories

The central point of the dual labour market theory is that the structure of the labour market is segmented into primary and secondary sector between which mobility is restricted. Primary sector jobs offer high earnings, job security, better working condition and opportunities for advancement. Secondary sector jobs are usually unskilled or semi skilled, more insecure, have poor working condition and low wages with little chance for advancement. Some dual labour market theorists argue that women's low level of commitment to work due to their identification with their primary roles and 'home-makes' their high turnover, low level of solidarity with trade unions and low level of aspiration for economic mobility make them a part of the social group which fill secondary sector jobs.

### 2.3.3 Marxist Theories

There is no coherent or systematic Marxist theory, which can explain sex inequalities in the labour market, Marxists analyze women's position primarily in relation to production and have failed to treat gender as an analytical category. The major flaw in Marxist analyses of women's position in the labour market is that they could not incorporate women's domestic labour as a specific and distinct part of the production process. Attempts have been made by MarxistFeminist to develop Marxist theory and integrate domestic laour in the analysis of capital production. They have also tried to feminize Marx's concept of the reserve army of labour in capitalism. Beechey claims that women, because of their domestic roles in the family, occupy a particular position in the labour market where they can easily be made disposable accounting to the changing demands of the labour market and thus become a part of the industrial reserve army.

### 2.3.4 Feminist Theories

There is no homogeneous body of feminist theory on the position of women's subordination in the labour market. This absence of a unified feminist theory is due to differences in emphasis on certain points. The key point on which all feminist theorists agree is the role of familial ideology and the need to problematize the sexual division of labour in determining women's position in the labour market. Radical feminists argue that patriarchal ideology and men's control over women's sexuality is a fundamental reason for women's disadvantage in the labour
market. Socialist-Feminists criticize radical feminists for neglecting economic structures and in turn emphasize the link between patriarchy and economic structures. The position of women defined by radical feminist theories is unacceptable for black feminists also as the radical feminist position ignores the specificity of the experience of black women in the labour market.

Like the theories on unequal position in the labour market, since the 1970's. Different approaches have evolved to address the problem in the development process. General development theory and practice made no distinction between the sexes, but generalized the norms of male experiences to females, assuming that both men and women would benefit equally as societies advanced and economic growth took place. Empirical evidence, however, showed that women were invisible in the development scene and more serious, that intervention strategies and programmes worsened their position in virtually all spheres of life. The feminist movement and the UN Decade for Women, 1976-85, played a crucial role in highlighting the roles of women in economic and social development and the plight of low income women in the Third World. To explain their invisibility, feminist scholars and development theorists initially developed the concept of 'women in development' (WID) in 1970.

WID had a profound influence worldwide at both the international and national levels. It was understood as the 'integration' of women into global process of economic political and social development. Its basic premise was that since women per se had been left out of development process, integrating them into development would automatically ensure gender equity. Nonetheless, unequal development between the sexes persisted. WID therefore gave way to first to 'women and development' (WAD) and 'gender and development (GAD) as means of providing alternative approaches to ensure women's equitable participation in mainstream development. The WID perspective, based on the theory of modernization and strongly supported by American policy-maker and the World Bank, assumed that industrialization and technological advance would improve standards of living in developing countries; economic growth and mass education would transform agrarian societies and the benefits of such modernization would 'trickle down' through market mechanisms to all segments of the society, including women. By the late 1970s and early 1980s, the WID approach came seriously into question. The relative position of women and improved very little over the two decades. In
fact, women were found to be relegated into secondary position and low-paying occupations as formal industrial sectors developed.

During the later 1970s, the concept of 'WID' was put forward by neo-Marxists Feminist Movement to explain the sources of discrimination against women. This theory sought to explain sexual inequality structurally and dialectically, as it relates to the social class inequality and to the uneven and unequal development of capitalism globally. In contrast to WID School, the neo-Marxists Feminists criticized the capitalist development model and stated that the elimination of capitalism was a necessary, but not sufficient condition for the overthrow of the patriarchy. However, they did not consider the social relations of men and women within class, races and ethnic groups-although they did point out the social construction of production and reproduction as the basis of women's subordination and began examining why women have been systematically assigned inferior or secondary roles. In doing so, they question the sexual division of labour between women and men and their socially assigned roles. However, the WAD approach also does not adequately analyze the social relations of gender within the class structure. If focuses mainly on how the class structure and capitalist mode of production negatively impact women. It also stresses women's productive roles. Although the WID perspective offers a more critical view of women position than does WID, the policies and intervention strategies are not very different from the WID approach. The underlying assumption is that improvement in women's position will come about only when international economic structure becomes more equitable.

The GAD approach emerged during the 1980s, from frustration with the lack of progress of WID policy in changing women's lives and influencing the broader development agenda. The GAD approach aims to meet women's practical, productive, and strategic needs by changing the existing division of labour and power relations. It draws much of its theoretical base from socialist feminism, but concentrates primarily on why women's work is systematically devalued in all aspect of their lives, based on their experiences. In attempting to answer this question, social feminist combine an analysis of the impact of patriarchy with some aspects of a more traditional Marxist approach. GAD takes a holistic view, looking at the 'totality of social organization, economic and political life in order to understand the shaping of particular aspects of society. It focuses on both men and women and analyses the social construction of gender and the assignment of specific roles, responsibilities and expectations of women versus men,
showing the nature of women's contributions inside and outside the household, and recognizing the household as an economic unit itself. The major thrust of GAD is that the subordination of women is rooted in the social and structural inequalities and the ideological value system emanating from patriarchal structure. The approach perceives women as agents of change, rather than as passive recipients of development countries. They see the true challenge as the transformation of subordination structures through the empowerment of individual women enhancing women's techniques to resolving household conflicts to much broader areas of conflict, including disputes between nations. (Pradhan, 2006)

The case of economic institutions is different from that of the family. Comparable attention has not been given by political scientists to the labour market in sense to the selection and promotion of individuals of groups of individuals who sell their labour services. Rendel says the most serious omission of political science in its treatment of women has been its failure to deal with women in the political system as a whole. By political system is meant, for the purposes of the study, the ways in which power and powerlessness are distributed in society and all that flows from that distribution, as well as the institutions and processes traditionally thought of as forming the political system. The power of the powerful rests, after all, on the powerlessness of the powerless, and on the labour and resources that power can extract from them. Universal suffrage has, in principle, made the adult individual he smallest political unit. However, legally and economically, the family, consisting of husband wife and dependent children, tends in practice to remain the basic unit. This unit is in many ways made to replicate the hierarchical structure of the state. The state's attitude to the status of women in the family is ambivalent. The state both reinforces the authority of the husband and recognizes the rights of the wife/mother as an individual citizen. The ambivalence to some degree corresponds with the separation of state and society. Women are recognized as citizens for the purposes of public life, but in society generally and by the state as wives/mothers who are subject to the authority of their husband. Women's emancipation can be seen as an attempt to break up the family as a political unit and to replace it with a direct relationship between the individual women and the state. Women have not been more successful than elsewhere in reaching positions of power. (Rendel, 1981)

The absence of women at the politically powerful and socially visible leadership positions have also been responsible for the lack of proper understanding of women's issues and energetic
articulation of their interest at suitably high levels, the myopic approach and aspects in women oriented policies and the failure to reach out to the leadership positions have also been responsible for the increasing devaluation and the consequent atrocities against women. To get more and more women to the political positions so as to enable them to collectively influence and direct the laws, policies and programmes in their favor, there is a need to have some additional measures, beside what is already available by way of the constitutional provisions for political rights. Political empowerment hence is a process of equipping women with more fuel and power to emerge in position of decision making. In case of women, all the negative forces combine at time to make them politically the most powerless section. It is then that an external set of measures like affirmative or protective action and 'positive discrimination' is evolved. Reservation or quota system in the political bodies is one such affirmative action that is being suggested for making the constitutional gender equality a reality. Others could be training and capacity building. (Kaushik, 2001)

It is true that education and economic prosperity alone cannot determine the status of women, but still are the most basic and easily measurable indicators of the degree of equality accorded to women in particular society. Ina patriarchal culture like ours, women have "stakes in the patriarchy" as an obedient wife can expect life long economic support from the husband as well as better social status than widows or unmarried women. In such a cultural framework, women may not even desire to realize their strategic gender interest like participation or decision making at national or community levels or control over level of power in the society, they may be more concerned about their practical day to day needs like child care, water supply or efficient cooking methods for fear of loss of economic support from either side of the family. However, in all societies, the first step towards equality can be taken only with the torch of education. This is followed by the demand for recognition and proper rewards for all the productive work done by women. Unless demanded women's work go unnoticed due to subjective cultural interpretations of gender and social roles. (Clerk 2003)

It is generally accepted that inequality between men and women sterms from attitudes, prejudices and assumptions concerning the different roles assigned to men and women in society. These roles, which are learned, e.g., Those of parent, housekeeper, provider of basic needs, etc. largely determine the type of work men and women do Furthermore, because of their assigned role as dependent members of the household women tend to be relatively more
active than men in uneconomic activities and in the informal sector; to be considered by others and even by themselves as economically inactive; to receive less education, and thus to be more confined in occupations requiring lower skills and paying less well; to be considered as secondary workers in their family enterprise even when they have equal responsibility; and, in times of economic downturn or structural adjustment, to be amongst the first dismissed from their paid jobs. In addition, women find it hard to break through the 'glass ceiling', which blocks their access to managerial or decision-making positions. Given structural constrains due to family responsibilities, women who are available and willing to work tend actively to seek work much less than in the same situation, and employers tend to be reluctant to employ women outside typically female occupations. (Loutfi, 2001)

### 2.4 Review of Empirical Studies

Men have ultimate authority over material resources in the household, such as land, and over the labour of women and junior household members. Women, having no direct access to land or male labour, must request these resources from their husbands or from other males in the household to whom they are obligated. Despite the apparent subordination of a women's social and political power to her husband and his family, she maintain considerable economic independence. (Sharma, 2001)

A study carried out by Shrestha (1995) to understand the levels and patterns of literate and educated females' economic participation in Nepal especially in Kathmandu city, and the factors facilitating and impeding it found out that there is a positive association between level of education attained and participation in economic activities of women. The study also showed the positive relationship between the husband's education level and their wives employment but it the wives' own educational qualification which helped them more to participate in workforce and with every occupation do not significantly influence in the economic and social empowerment of those women. The findings of the study show that involvement in a credit program does have the potential to empower women and after the involvement in saving and credit groups, women developed self identity and status. Income generating activities raised women's decision making power in the household and community. However women are not completely autonomous in decision making because they still consult with men who claim to confer with their wives on important issues.

According to Koirala, (2005) in the context of employed women of Pokhara valley the employment status is very pathetic as low percent of the women are involved in decision making level. Consequently no equal opportunity is awarded among male and female coworkers. Female are not given job according to their education level and practically deprived of equal access on the property.

Lamichhane, (2008), studied about the determinants of maternal health care services utilization based on Nepal Demographic and Health Survey, 2006. While segregating maternal health care service into antenatal care service utilization and place of delivery, she found that caste, education and occupation of husband and decision making in large household purchases has significant influence in case of antenatal care service utilization and place of residence and education of husband has association in case of place of delivery.

Bhatta, (2007) reveals that there is gender biased distribution of power and resources in the family as only a few percentages of women possess land on their own name and mobility of women is also not quite flexible. But when women are involved in income generation and play the role of a bread winner in the family, participates in decision making matters equally to men.

According to Khanal, (1998) the main motivational factor for women to be involve in job is to utilize their educational qualification. Working women are not much involved in other social and professional organization beside their work due to their lack of interest and dual work load. However, most of women are of opinion that they are as efficient as men decision making but again some women think they are less capable to do so and can't take quick decision as compared to their male counterparts.

Sood, (1995) while mentioning some facts about women workers, disclose that the public sector is providing all kinds of facilities for women workers. But the same is not true about the private sector, in private sector, women worker face the problem of unequal wages. She says a remarkable rise in employment numbers was found in white-color jobs such as teacher, nurses, clerks, typists, receptionist etc. However there is lack of vocational and occupational training for women and that is why the absolute number of educated unemployed women is on the rise.

Till 2001 census, women appear to have replaced men in laobur intensive and low-paid occupations, while men moved on to dominate technical/professional and higher production-
oriented occupation. This suggests that Nepal is following the world trend of the feminization of flexible, cheap wages labour, more so as it slowly integrates into global economic processes. Moreover, women are visibly concentrating in subsistence agricultural occupations, as men increasingly leave the land. Although the percentages of female participation is still lower than that of males in these occupation, this supports a trend of encouragement of private sector enterprise that hires women because they accept lower wages than men and are more submissive otherwise, especially with regard to longer hours and unattractive working condition, including sudden, unannounced terminations. (Pradhan 2006: 112)

It was reported that female teachers tend to move to towns soon after they are hired to teach in rural schools. Unlike many other countries in the west where female teachers are paid less as compared than that of their male counterparts, there is no discrimination in the salary of teachers in Nepal. However, in terms of number of trained male teachers, female teacher's fraction is quite a small. In Nepal, women continue to have fewer rights, lower education and health status, less income and less access to resources and decision making than men. Nevertheless women's critical roles in food production, income generation and management of natural resources, community organization and domestic responsibilities are essential for sustainable development. But inequality between men and women and gender discrimination prevails in the society from family to the national level. Women remain marginalized economically, socially and politically, which is the crux of the problem. Investment which is vital necessity for the economic and social progress of women, who are marginalized and povertystricken, especially in the rural areas, has remained stagnant. Against this drawback, achieving gender equality and raising the representation of women in the policy-making level to 33 percent was an uphill task. But it has come true now out of 601 Constitutional Assembly Members about 200 are women. Female teachers have a huge influence on the well being of the students, particularly girls in Nepal. When a school educates its girls as well as boys, economic productivity rises, maternal and infant mortality rates fall, fertility rates decline, and the health and educational prospects of the next generation are improved. Since 1970s, dozens of pro-female programs have been endorsed by the government of Nepal. The main goal of such programs is educating girls and creating gender equality in the society. 'One school one female teacher' was implemented for the same reason and now gender mainstreaming has been
implemented. For promoting female teachers, several political and legal bills have been passed in Nepal.

The total numbers of teachers in schools in 2001 was 96,659 at the primary level, 26,678 at lower secondary level and 18,846 at the secondary level. Female teachers as proportions of total teachers constituted 25.5 percent of teachers at primary level, 14 percent of teachers at lower secondary level and 7.9 percent of teachers at secondary level in 2001. (CBS, 2003)

During the period 1996-2001, the number of primary teachers increased by 8.1 percent number of lower secondary teachers by 35.4 percent and number of secondary teachers by 14.7 percent. The increase in number of lower secondary and secondary teachers is evidently higher than that of primary teachers over the period 1996-2001, there was steady increase in proportion of female teachers at the primary level, about 25 percent of the teachers in primary schools are female teachers at the primary level, about 25 percent of the teachers in primary schools are female teachers and the proportions of female teachers reached around 14 percent at lower secondary and about 8 percent at secondary level in 2001.(CBS, 2003). Only 11.6 percent of female teachers at primary level were found to be trained out of 3250 teachers in kaski district in Nepal.

## CHAPTER THREE

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the methodology followed for this research study. The methods applied in the collection of different types of data and information have been described in this chapter. It includes study site, research design, nature of data, universe and sampling, data collection techniques and methods for presentation and analysis of data.

### 3.1 Study Site

The empirical research for this study was carried out in Pokhara. Pokhara is a sub-metropolitan municipality divided into 18 wards. It lies in central Nepal and is located at $28.24 \mathrm{~N}, 83.99 \mathrm{E}, 200$ km west of Kathmandu, the capital city of Nepal. It is the Headquarters of Kaski District, Gandaki Zone and the Western Development Region. It is also one of the most popular tourist destinations in Nepal. According to Nepal Human Development Report 2004, Kaski District occupies the third position in the country in 2001, regarding Human Empowerment Index Kathmandu being the first and Lalitpur being the second. In the context of Gender Empowerment Measure, Kaski ranks the $6^{\text {th }}$ position. Pokhara as the major city of Kaski, we can find with rapidly growing educational institutions especially schools. Hence, with such a good performance in HDI and GEM, researcher wished to explore the situation among female teachers in Pokhara Valley to find whether such background matches in private schools or not. Thus, this rational guided the researcher to select this particular site.

### 3.2 Research Design

This research study is a descriptive research where there is identification of characteristics affecting the status of educated working women especially the female teachers of institutional schools. It has explored the relationship between various influencing factors and the status of women including their attitude towards their job. Thus the research design includes the study of explorative, descriptive and explanatory types.

### 3.3 Nature and Sources of Data

In this study, both primary and secondary sources of data are used. The information provided by the respondents through questionnaire and FGD is the primary and major source of data. References from various publications are used as secondary data. This study therefore applies mixed method in data collection. From the questionnaire schedule quantitative data and from focus group discussion qualitative data gathered.

### 3.4 Universe and Sampling

A study carried out by CERID, 2004 on 'Female teachers in primary schools' revealed that some of the stakeholders held the view that female teachers are not as competent as the male teachers. But the reality tells us a different story. Female teachers are working very hard to establish themselves in the community and in the school. The female teachers in the rural areas are mostly perceived as housewives and mothers rather in the role of a professional teacher.

The total numbers of teachers in schools in 2001 was 96,659 at the primary level, 26,678 at lower secondary level and 18,846 at the secondary level. Female teachers as proportions of total teachers constituted 25.3 percent of teachers at primary level, 14 percent of teachers at lower secondary level and 7.9 percent of teachers at secondary level in 2001. The data shows that women employment is more representative in the teaching field.

Not enough study has been made about gender situation in the case of educated and professional women especially women teaching at primary level in the institutional schools.

The total number of currently ever married female teachers teaching at primary level in institutional schools of Pokhara Sub-metropolitan city is the population of this study. According to the latest information collected from District Education Office, Kaski, there are around 132 registered institutional schools in Pokhara sub-metropolitan city. Approximately 25 percent of the schools ( 32 schools) were taken as sample for the study. The sample schools were selected on lottery method of random sampling.

The respondents from these schools were selected on first come first basis on the day of data collection. The respondents were the currently married female teachers. 189 female teachers from 32 schools were interviewed for data collection.

### 3.5 Data Collection Techniques

The methods adopted in the study to generate relevant data were guided by research objectives, questions and the type of data required for the study. Appropriate tools and techniques such as questionnaire schedule and Focus Group Discussion (FGD) is applied to gather important and essential information in this research study. In the process, teachers involved in the profession for many years were brought together for discussion in FGD. To test the applicability and feasibility of the questionnaire schedule, pretest of the questionnaire was also employed. The main sources of secondary data and information were collected from Nepal Human Development Report 2009, Regional Library of Prithvi Narayan Campus and District Education office-Kaski.

### 3.6 Method of Data Analysis and Presentation

All the data gathered from the primary and secondary sources are analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively. The collected information was edited, coded, tabulated and classified according to the objective of the study. Then descriptive data was analyzed by using computer software (SPSS) which is Statistical Package for Social Sciences. The descriptive statistics has been drawn using SPSS.

## CHAPTER FOUR

## INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

This chapter has been divided into three sections according to the objectives of the study. In the first section, percentage distribution of demographic status of female teachers is described. Second part of the chapter includes the analysis of the social and economic status along with the relationship of independent variables with the status of female teachers of Pokhara city. The last or third section describes the perceptions towards their profession.

### 4.1 Demographic Status

### 4.1.1 Age wise Distribution of the Respondent

The study has found out that all the women teaching in private schools are within the reproductive age $15-49$ years. The minimum age was 21 years while 47 were the maximum age found among the respondents. The mean age was 32 years with the standard deviation of 5 years. The distribution of age in the figure 4.1 discloses that approximately half (42.9\%) of the population are of $26-30$ years age group. About one fourth ( $24.3 \%$ and $23.3 \%$ ) of the population were of age group 31-51 years and above 35 years age group. Women below 25 years constituted the least percent i.e 9.5 years.

Figure 4.1 Age wise Distribution of the Female Primary Teachers
(Source : Field Survey, 2010)

### 4.1.2 Religion wise Distribution of the Respondents

Though Nepal's interim constitution 2063 has declared the country as a secular state, majority of the Nepalese people follow Hinduism from the time immemorial. Previously the country was a Hindu Kingdom and thus most probably the percentage of Hindus were high. Similar circumstance is revealed from the table 4.1 which shows that more than three-fourth (78.3\%) of the respondents are Hindus, followed by Buddhists and Christians with 20.1 percent and 1.6 percent respectively.

Table 4.1 Religion wise Distribution of the Female Primary Teachers

| Religion Followed | Number | Percentage |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Hindu | 148 | 78.3 |
| Buddhist | 38 | 20.1 |
| Christian | 3 | 1.6 |
| Total | 189 | $\mathbf{1 0 0 . 0}$ |

(Source : Field Survey, 2010)
4.1.3 Caste and Race wise Distribution of the Respondents

Caste/ethnicity is also one of the major identity of a person in the society. The caste wise distribution of the respondents has been divided into 7 groups which are mainly Brahmin, Chhetri, Gurung, Magar, Newar, Dalit and others. The figure 4.2 depicts that most of the female primary teachers in institutional schools of PSMM are Brahmin which constitute of the one-third (33\%) of the total population. Pokhara valley is inhabited mostly by Gurungs, thus in the study Gurung women occupy the second positon with 28 percent among various caste. The respondents belonging to caste like Chhetri, Magar, Newar and Dalit are 15 percent, 10 percent, 7 percent and 2 percent respectively. Dalit female teachers are found to be least in their general participation. Others which is of 5 percent include respondents of other caste like Tamang, Thakali, Rai and Malla.

Figure 4.2 Caste wise Distribution of the Female PrimaryTeachers

Regarding race wise distribution the respondents belonging to Brahmin, Chhetri and Dalit caste are kept under Indo-Aryan race and Janjatis were included under Tibeto-Burman race. In race wise distribution not much difference is observed. There are 50.3 percent respondents belonging to Indo-Aryan race and 49.7 percent belonging to Tibeto-Burman race.

Figure 4.3 Race wise Distribution of the Female Primary Teachers
(Source : Field Survey, 2010)

### 4.2 Socio-Economic Status

### 4.2.1 Percentage Distribution of the respondent according to their age at marriage

Age at marriage is the most important demographic factor for determining the socio-economic status of women and one of the important variables in this study to influence the status of educated working women. Regarding the marital status since the respondents were all married, this section presents the pattern of age at marriage only. Lower the age at marriage, lower will be their status and higher the age at marriage, higher will be the status. The respondents are found to be married at the age of 14 years as lowest age to 30 years as highest age. The mean age at marriage within them is 21 years with Standard Deviation 2.8. Table 4.2 shows that majority (54.5\%) of the female teacher's age at marriage is from 19 to 22 years followed by 25.9
percent of 23 to 26 years. The percentage of respondents marrying below 18 years is 16.4 percent while only 3.2 percent of female teachers' age at marriage is above 26 years.

Table 4.2 Percentage Distribution of respondent according to their age at marriage

| Age at Marriage | Number | Percentage |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Below 18 years | 31 | 16.4 |
| $19-22$ years | 103 | 54.5 |
| $23-26$ years | 49 | 25.9 |
| Above 26 years | 6 | 3.2 |
| Total | 189 | 100.0 |

(Source: Field Survey, 2010)

### 4.2.2 Qualification wise Distribution of the Female Teachers

Every teachers needs to fulfill at least minimum level of formal education i.e S.L.C (School Leaving Certificate). Such requirement is needed whether it is a public or private school. Therefore in this study all the respondents are literate and have passed the minimum education to become a teacher. This part, therefore presents the variation in their level of higher studies. The distribution of education level in the figure 4.4 reveals that most of the respondents has passed intermediate level which is 37 percent followed by respondents who have passed bachelor, S.L.C and Master degree with 34 percent, 25 percent and 4 percent respectively. Most of the female teachers in spite of their high academic qualification are teaching in primary level.

Figure 4.4 Qualification wise Distribution of the Female Teachers
(Source : Field Survey, 2010)

### 4.2.3 Salary Distribution of the Respondents

Though women have started to work in productive activities, still there exists wage discrimination towards them. They are still not much aware of their rights guaranteed by the government policies. The table 4.3 shows that 52 percent of female teachers are not paid salary equal to government scale which is the minimum standard and some private schools seemed to not implement the rule. They are working as cheap workers either by their ignorance or negligence. When these women are were asked whether they get salary equal to their male colleagues in the same workplace, then majority (56.1\%) of them replied 'yes' and about 44 percent of them said 'no'. The study found less wage discrimination in teaching profession but the things to be considered is that there are less women working in high-paid job.

Table 4.3 Salary Distribution of the Respondents

| Response | Equal Government Salary Scale | Equal Salary to their Male |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |


|  |  |  | Colleagues |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Number | Percent | Number | Percent |
| Yes | 91 | 48.1 | 106 | 56.1 |
| No | 98 | 51.9 | 83 | 43.9 |
| Total | 189 | 100.0 | 189 | 100.0 |

(Source: Field Survey, 2010)

### 4.2.4 Economic Status of the Family

### 4.2.4.1 Annual Household Income

Annual Household Income of the respondent's family income which is considered in cash only. Figure 4.5 illustrates that one-fourth of the family have annual income from Rs 50 thousands to Rs one lakh followed by the family having annual income from one lakh to one lakh and fifty thousands (23 \%), above two lakhs (21\%), below fifty thousands (20\%) and from one lakh and fifty thousands to two lakhs (11\%).

Figure 4.5 Percentage Distribution of the Family by Annual Household Income.
(Source: Field Survey, 2010)

### 4.2.4.2 Physical Assets of the Family

The economic status of the family is determined by the physical assets of the family which is the achievement beside the annual income. In this section physical assets which can be converted into capital are considered. Most importantly the land, house and automobiles are counted as physical assets. The rationale behind it is that the economic value of asset in urban values more than of rural area. Moreover the value of land and house is increasing every year. In table 4.4 more respondents ( 94 cases) reported to have house in Pokhara, 68 respondents have land and 77 of them have motorbike or scooter. Among them 43 respondents reported to have no such physical assets.

## Table 4.4 Physical Assets of the Family

| Ownership of Physical Assets | Number | Proportion |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Land in Pokhara Valley | 68 | 36 |
| House in Pokhara Valley | 94 | 49.7 |


| Car/Bus/Van/Truck | 4 | 2.1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Motorbike /Scooter | 77 | 40.7 |
| None | 43 | 22.8 |

(Source: Field Survey, 2010)

### 4.2.4.3 Ownership of Household Appliances

Better living standard generally denotes better status of a person. To have standard life, one normally owns various accessories like mobile, television, refrigerator etc. Due to the job features too, teachers need to take care of their living standard through outlook, personal hygiene, technology, facilities and updated knowledge. Table 4.5 shows that more female teachers are using mobile either due to necessity or due to desire. Television has become the second priority and landline telephone, the third. There are average number of respondents using CD/DVD player and refrigerator. Least number of the respondents gave priority to own a computer at home.

Table 4.5 Living Standard of Female Teachers

| Appliances owned | Number | Proportion |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Landline Telephone | 108 | 57.8 |
| Computer | 68 | 36.4 |
| Television | 155 | 82.9 |
| Refrigerator | 90 | 48.1 |
| Mobile | 160 | 85.6 |


| CD/DVD Player | 93 | 49.7 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |

(Source: Field Survey 2010)

### 4.2.4.4 Husband's age, qualification, occupation and monthly income by respondents

In a patriarchal social setting of Nepalese society, girls are expected to marry and live whole of their life with their husband and in-laws. In such context a woman who has lost her husband faces lots of challenges in life and her rights are being curtailed. Thus their life is directly or indirectly influenced by the presence of their husband and husband's socio-economic status. If the husband is very cooperative, educated and earn a lot of money then, the wife too is able to enjoy a high living standard. Therefore it is necessary to study the general background of respondent's socio-economic status.

In the table 4.6 most ( $43.9 \%$ ) of the respondent's husband are above 35 years followed by the age group 30 to 35 years (38.6\%). Only approximately 16 percent of the husbands are of 25 to 30 years age and 1.6 percent below 25 years. Regarding the qualification about one-third (33.3\%) of them have passed Bachelor level and nearly 31 percent passed Master's level or higher than that. The table also shows that all the husband's of female teachers are involved in some kind of occupation in which working in INGO/NGO or private companies counts the highest (36.5\%). The percentage of males engaged in different occupations like self-employed, abroad and government employee were 23.3 percent, 21.7 percent and 18.5 percent respectively. Further the table illustrates the monthly income of the husbands of the female teachers. It is observed from the table that nearly 47 percent of the males earn from ten to twenty thousands rupees per month, one third (33.3\%) of them earn less than ten thousands and 20 percent above twenty thousands rupees per month.

Table 4.6 Number and Percentage Distribution of women by their husband's age, qualification, occupation and monthly income

| Husband's Age | Number | Percentage |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |


|  | Below 25 years | 3 | 1.6 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 25-30 years | 30 | 15.9 |
|  | 30-35 years | 73 | 38.6 |
|  | Above 35 years | 83 | 43.9 |
|  | Total | 189 | 100.0 |
| Husband's Qualification |  |  |  |
|  | S.L.C | 37 | 19.6 |
|  | Intermediate Level | 31 | 16.4 |
|  | Bachelor Level | 63 | 33.3 |
|  | Master Level or Higher | 58 | 30.7 |
|  | Total | 189 | 100.0 |
| Husband's Occupation |  |  |  |
|  | Self Employed | 44 | 23.3 |
|  | Government Employee | 35 | 18.5 |
|  | INGO/NGO/Pvt. Ltd | 69 | 36.5 |
|  | Abroad | 41 | 21.7 |
|  | Total | 189 | 100.0 |
| Husband's Monthly Income |  |  |  |
|  | Less than Rs 10,000/- | 63 | 33.3 |
|  | Rs10,000-20,000/- | 88 | 46.6 |
|  | More than Rs 20,000/- | 38 | 20.1 |


| Total | 189 | 100.0 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

(Source: Field Survey, 2010)

### 4.2.4.5 Family-type wise Distribution of the Respondents

Regarding the types of family in this study, only two major types are considered which are joint family and nuclear family. Out of 189 total populations in this study, 102 respondents mentioned to be living in nuclear type of family which occupies the majority (54\%) and rest 87 (46\%) respondents reported of living in joint family. With the influence of modernization we can find the increasing number of small or nuclear family mostly in urban areas. Regarding the family size, the number of family members ranged from 3 as minimum to 20 as maximum members. In average the families consisted of 5.5 members which is approximately 6 members. The table 4.8 shows that majority ( $50.8 \%$ ) of the family had 4 or 3 members while 31.2 percent respondents reported to have 5 to 7 members in their family. The larger family having 9 or more than 8 members marked 18 percent in whole. Moreover as all the married women with children were taken as respondents, all of them had children and they vary only in number and sex of the children. Majority of women have two children (51.3\%) with one daughter (49.7\%) and one son (47.1\%). Very less number of the mothers have three sons (1.1\%) and three daughters (2.1\%) but the percent is little more (5.8\%) of women have three children in total. The norms to have only two children for the happy family seemed to be followed by these women.

## Table 4.7 Family type wise Distribution of the Female Teachers.

| Family Type | Number | Percentage |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nuclear | 102 | 54.0 |


| Joint | 87 | 46.0 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Total | 189 | 100.0 |

(Source: Field Survey, 2010)

Table 4.8 Number and percentage distribution of women by their family size

| Family Size | Number | Percentage |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 4 or below 4 members | 96 | 50.8 |
| 5 to 7 members | 59 | 31.2 |
| 8 or above 8 members | 34 | 18.0 |
| Total | 189 | 100 |

Source: Field Survey, 2010)

### 4.3 Job satisfaction

### 4.3.1 Work Experience in Teaching Profession

A person can improve his or her status of life with the experiences gained in their profession. More experienced people have more knowledge how to make life better personally and professionally. Therefore work experience can be taken as one of the important factor for determining the status of a person. In this study the working experience of the respondent in teaching profession is divided into three groups of 5 years interval. Table 4.10 portrays that many (34.9\%) female teachers have been involved in the profession from 5 to 10 years, followed by above 10 years (33.3\%) and 5 or below 5 years (31.7\%). As there are not much significant differences observed in three categories but there is much variation of women engaged in this profession as from only one month minimum experience to 25 years of maximum years of experience. The mean years of working experience is 9 years of standard deviation 5.09.

Table 4.9 Distribution according to Work Experience in Teaching Profession

| Work Experience | Number | Percentage |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 5 or below 5 years | 60 | 31.7 |
| $5-10$ years | 66 | 34.9 |
| Above 10 years | 63 | 33.3 |
| Total | $\mathbf{1 8 9}$ | $\mathbf{1 0 0 . 0}$ |

### 4.3.2 Important Job Characteristics according to Female Teachers

It is a natural phenomenon that people's perception towards work changes from time to time due to various factors. There have been a lot of changes in women's status in Nepal from the centuries ago till the present time and so the changes have occurred in women's perception or attitude towards the work. Before women had restricted mobility which acted as a barrier for them to work outside home or participate in productive work but now in present days women especially in urban areas are easily participating in productive work for various reasons. Our society too has accepted this fact and policies are made to improve the women's participation as no development can be sustainable while leaving the better half of the population aside.

Female teachers who are educated and involved in productive work have their own perception towards their job. According to them as shown in figure 4.6 more percentage (32.8\%) of the female teachers feel that the important feature they prefer for their job in workplace is their job security which is having no danger of being fired. The other important job characteristics according to them is to have opportunities for advancement, flexible hours to work and enjoying or pleasant environment to work which counts 22.2 percent, 20.6 percent and 19.6 percent respectively. According to the respondent's opinion survey high income is kept in least priority than others which is only about 5 percent. This figure shows that women prefer such job or work where they can adjust with their family responsibility and play the dual role equally. As females find teaching profession more suitable to work due to the above mentioned reason, beside that majority (58.7\%) of them said that they decided to work to utilize their qualification and skill whereas 30.7 percent of female teachers decided to work for income and 20.2 percent to gain status and recognition in the society.

Figure 4.6 Percentage Distributions on Important Job Characteristics.
(1)
(Source : Field Survey, 2010)

Table 4.10 Distribution according to the decision made to work by female teachers.

| Decision for work | For income |  | To utilize qualification |  | For status and recognition in the society |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | Number | Percent |
| Yes | 58 | 30.7 | 111 | 58.7 | 38 | 20.1 |
| No | 131 | 69.3 | 78 | 41.3 | 151 | 79.9 |
| Total | 189 | 100.0 | 189 | 100.0 | 189 | 100.0 |

(Source: Field Survey, 2010)

Regarding the perception of female teachers towards their present work, as shown in table 4.12 more than three-fourth (75.1\%) of the respondents are satisfied with their job and 83.6 percent are proud to work at the present school. From the study, it is found that the married respondents have gathered experience in teaching of average 8.7 years having minimum 1 year to maximum 25 years. Therefore when they were asked whether any changes have occurred in their life status or improve in confidence, then 94.7 percent women gave the positive response. According to them the major change was increase in confidence and self-reliance as 76.2 percent reported. Other changes were improvement in skill, increase in the life standard and dignity in the society; feel more responsible towards family and organization, respect from friends, relatives co-worker and family members, able to take part in decision making of domestic matters and become qualified to be promoted for higher post. Less than half (47.6\%) of the respondents feel that gender inequalities exist in teaching profession as female candidates do not get equal opportunities to male. The male: female ratio in private schools is 1.2: 1 where female are less in number but the ratio is not similar in primary level of the private schools which is 0.3 : 1 . This means in overall male gets more opportunity in teaching profession but males are less in primary level. This shows that female teachers are hired usually for primary section and they are given less chances to teach in higher classes. However it is better to do something than nothing to empower women of teaching field. Hence 92.1 percent of the women think that doing job in labor market is highly necessary for the improvement or any positive changes to occur in life status of women. Participating in productive work is thus one of the important factors for women to achieve better status in life.

It is mentioned above that 95 percent of women felt that some changes have occurred in their life status while gaining experience in teaching field. When they were questioned what types of changes have occurred in them, 144 respondents reported of increase in their confidence level and self reliance. 112 women felt increase in life standard and dignity while 102 said their skill has improved. About 100 female teachers are of opinion that they have become more responsible towards their home and organization. The respondents of getting respect from friends, relatives and co-workers, able to take decisions in domestic matters and qualified to be promoted were respectively 87,84 and 50 . Female teachers though feel gaining confidence with the experience still doubt themselves to be qualified for teaching in higher classes and being promoted with more responsibilities in the workplace.

Table 4.11 Distribution according to the Perception towards job

|  | Satisfaction with the present job |  | Proud to work in the current school |  | Changes in confidence and status of life |  | Female get equal chances to male in this profession |  | Job isessential toimprove theirlife status |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | N | \% | N | \% | N | \% | N | \% | N | \% |
| Yes | 142 | 75.1 | 158 | 83.6 | 179 | 94.7 | 90 | 47.6 | 174 | 92.1 |
| No | 47 | 24.9 | 31 | 16.4 | 10 | 5.3 | 99 | 52.4 | 15 | 7.9 |
| Total | 189 | 100 | 189 | 100 | 189 | 100 | 189 | 100 | 189 | 100 |

(Source: Field Survey, 2010)

## CHAPTER FIVE,

## SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 5.1 Summary

This study is an attempt to explore the status of women in teaching profession especially in institutional schools of Pokhara Sub-Metropolitan City. The study has been carried out selecting

32 schools on random sampling and interviewing 189 respondents on first come first basis. The researcher has applied structured questionnaire as the major tool for the study. The result of the study has been descriptively analyzed for which frequency distribution and percentage has been used.

Some of the major findings of the study are as follows:

- The mean age of the respondents is 32 years and most of the female teachers (42.9\%) are of $26-30$ years age group. More than three fourth (78\%) of them follow Hinduism.
- Brahmin caste constitutes one-third (33\%) of the total population and Gurungs being the second with 28 percent. Female teachers from Dalit community are found to have least participation (1.6\%). In race wise distribution not much differences is observed.
- The mean age at marriage is found to be 21 years ranging from 14 years to 30 years. Majority (54.5\%) of the female got married between 19 to 22 years of age.
- Majority of the women (37\%) have education qualification up to Intermediate level and then followed by S.L.C (34\%), while only 4 percent of them have passed Master's degree.
- 52 percent of female teachers are not paid salary equal to government scale. However majority (56.1\%) of them gets salary equal to their male colleagues.
- One-fourth of the families have annual income from Rs 50 thousands to Rs one lakh. More respondents (94 cases) reported to have house in Pokhara. More female teachers are using mobile as their life style.
- Majority (43.9\%) of the female teachers' husband are above 35 years, one-third (33.3\%) have qualification of Bachelor level, 37 percent work in INGO/NGO or private companies and 47 percent of them earn from Rs ten thousands to twenty thousand per month. It shows that female teachers are of low age than their husbands, their husbands have better qualification and most of them have job having good income.
- 54 percent of the respondents live in a nuclear family and in average there are 6 members in their families. Majority of females have two children (51.3\%) with one daughter (49.7\%) and one son (47.1\%)
- Many (34.9\%) female teachers have been involved in the profession from 5 to 10 years, followed by above 10 years (33.3\%) and above 5 or below 5 years (31.7\%). There is
much variation of women engaged in this profession as from only one month minimum to 25 years of maximum experience gained with mean 9 years of working years of standard deviation 5.09.
- Approximately 33 percentages of the female teachers feel that there should be job security than others like having opportunities for advancement, flexible hours, pleasant environment in workplace and high income. Majority (58.7\%) of them decided to work (join the profession) to utilize their qualification and skill.
- More than three-fourth (75.1\%) of the respondents are satisfied with their job, 83.6 percent are proud to work at the present school and 94.7 percent women feel that after joining the profession some positive changes have occurred in their life. However 47.6\% women feel that gender inequalities exist in teaching profession in terms of getting equal opportunity.
- The male to female ratio is 1.2 : 1 in overall and 0.3: 1 in primary level of teaching in the schools. The number of male teachers exceeds the number of female teachers in the total number of teachers. The scenario is more pitiable as the majority of female teachers are teaching in primary and pre-primary level. They are given less opportunity to work according to their qualification and experience. More than 90 percent women think that job is necessary for women to improve their life status.
- More women felt that after gaining experience in teaching profession, they have found increase in their confidence level and self reliance. However very few think that they have become qualified to be promoted with more responsibilities in higher classes for teaching.


### 5.2 Conclusion

The study has found that women of highly reproductive age involved in teaching profession. Though the participation of women is encouraging in the profession, the plight for them is that they are engaged in the low paid, low ranked and less challenging task in comparison to their male colleagues irrespective of their qualification and work experience. It is miserable to observe that yet some highly qualified women too are teaching in primary level which ought to be more than merely being a primary level teacher. Gender inequalities vividly occur when males are tagged with high rank with similar qualifications. Assessment of educated women to
place them for matching positions is found very poor. Very few women only represent the uppermost position. Teaching is the most respectable profession ever and teachers are the persons to carry such worthy job. Henceforth it is assumed that there is equal honor and dignity for all the persons involved in it. But unfortunately when there is segregation according to sex wise in teaching profession too, then women are the ones who are always victimized. This is the stereotype thinking and perception prevailed among all the educated and non educated people living in the society. The hesitation of employers to hire women with high salary, to promote for decision making positions and their gender insensitive activities are also the hurdles to their better status. Definitely the women who have been carrying out the triple roles can also take up the challenging role in their workplace. Henceforth in order to create an egalitarian society, there should be meaningful participation of all the members in the team whether it is in workplace or in family. I think in-depth study about people's perception and attitude is necessary to tackle the complicated issue and to implement promptly in the grass root level by each and every individual as per the need.

### 5.3 Recommendation

From the study, the researcher has found that women in teaching profession are facing some sort of discrimination in their working areas. For the overall development of the country the second half of the population also need to enjoy better status equal to male population. Hence more effort is needed to avoid biased traditional concept. Based on the findings, some of the recommendations of the researcher are as follows:-

- Specialized trainings should be provided to the females especially Dalit and Janjati women as they are more disadvantaged among women
- Government should encourage women to undertake higher studies for their personal and professional development. It also needs to monitor and supervise the institutional schools to persuade for gender equality.
- Private sector (schools and colleges) should be encouraged to promote women's participation and provide equal opportunities.
- The attitude to undermine women's work should be changed and their contribution should be recognized with adequate salary and more responsibility.


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## Appendix I

Age wise Distribution of the Female Primary Teachers

| Age Group | Number | Percentage |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Below 25 years | 18 | 9.5 |
| $26-30$ years | 81 | 42.9 |
| $31-35$ years | 46 | 24.3 |
| Above 35 years | 44 | 23.3 |
| Total | 189 | 100.0 |

Appendix II

Caste wise Distribution of the Female Primary Teachers

| Caste | Number | Percentage |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Brahmin | 63 | 33.3 |
| Chhetri | 29 | 15.3 |
| Gurung | 53 | 28.0 |
| Magar | 18 | 9.5 |
| Newar | 14 | 7.4 |
| Dalit | 3 | 1.6 |
| Others | 9 | 4.8 |
| Total | 189 | 100.0 |

## Appendix III

Race wise Distribution of the Female Primary Teachers

| Race | Number | Percentage |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Indo-Aryan | 95 | 50.3 |
| Tibeto-Burman | 94 | 49.7 |
| Total | 189 | 100.0 |

## Appendix IV

Qualification wise Distribution of the Female Primary Teachers

| Qualification | Number | Percentage |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| S.L.C | 47 | 24.9 |
| Intermediate | 70 | 37.0 |
| Bachelor | 65 | 34.4 |
| Master | 7 | 3.7 |
| Total | 189 | 100.0 |

Appendix V

Percentage Distribution of the Family by Annual Household Income

| Annual Income of the Family | Number | Percentage |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Below Rs 50,000 | 37 | 19.6 |
| Rs 50,000 - 1,00,000 | 48 | 25.4 |
| Rs 1,00,000 - 1,50,000 | 44 | 23.3 |
| Rs 1,50,000 - 2,00,000 | 21 | 11.1 |
| Above 2,00,000 | 39 | 20.6 |
| Total | 189 | 100.0 |

## Appendix VI

Percentage Distribution on Important Job Characteristics

| Important Job Feature | Number | Percentage |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| High Income | 9 | 4.8 |
| No danger of being Fired | 62 | 32.8 |
| Flexible Hours | 39 | 20.5 |
| Opportunities for Advancement | 42 | 22.2 |
| Enjoying the work | 37 | 19.6 |
| Total | 189 | 100.0 |

## Questionnaire

Date of Interview: $\qquad$ Respondent's ID no:...
Name of School: $\qquad$ Ward No:

## Basic Information

Name:

Age:

Religion:

| Caste/ethnicity: a) Brahmin | b) Chhetri | c) Gurung | d) Magar | e) Newar |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| f) Limbu g) Rai h) Dalit i) Others  |  |  |  |  |

Type of Family: a) Nuclear
b) Joint

Total no of members in your family:

Husband's age:

Husband's occupation: - a) self employed b) Government employee
c) NGO/INGO/Private companies
d) Abroad
e) Others

Husband's education: a) S.L.C
b) Intermediate
c) Bachelor
d) Master or above

Monthly income of your husband: - a) below Rs 10,000
b) Rs 10,000-20,000
c) Above Rs 20,000

## Economic status:

Do you own a land in Pokhara ? a) Yes
b) No
Do you own a house in Pokhara? a) Yes
b) No

Is your salary equal to government scale? a) Yes b) No

Do you get equal salary comparing to your male colleagues? a) Yes b) No

How much is your family's annual income?
a) Below 50,000
b) Rs 50,000-1,00,000
c) 1,00,000-1,50,000
d) $1,50,000-2,00,000$
e) Above 2,00,000

Tick the things you have at home:
a) Land within metropolis
b) house
c) car
d) motorbike
e) none

Tick the things you use:
a) Landline telephone
b) computer
c) television
d) refrigerator
e) Mobile
f) CD/DVD player

## Details of workplace:

Designation in your workplace:

Types of Job: a) Probationary period $\quad$ b) contract period $\quad$ c) permanent

How many hours do you work in office per day? $\qquad$

For how long were you in this institution? $\qquad$

Did you get any promotion in this institution
a) Yes
b) No

How many years are you involved in this profession? $\qquad$

What is the total no of teachers working in your school? $\qquad$

What is the total no of primary teachers working in your school? $\qquad$

What is the total no of female primary teachers in your school? $\qquad$

What is the total no of female teachers in your school? $\qquad$

Perception towards the job:

Are you satisfied with your job?
a) Yes
b) No

Which one of the following job characteristics is most important to you?
a) High Income
b) No danger of being fired
c) Flexible Hours
d) Opportunities for advancement
e) Enjoying the work

Do you enjoy your work like your hobby? a) Yes b) No

Why did you decide to work? (Can tick more than one)
a) For income
b) To utilize qualification/skill
c) For status and recognition
d) Others (specify) $\qquad$
Do you think female workers are also getting equal opportunity to male colleagues in this profession? a) Yes b) No

Do you think some changes have occurred in your status of life and your confidence ?
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { a) Yes } & \text { b) No }\end{array}$

If yes, what type of changes has occurred?
a) Increased in the life standard and dignity in the society
b) Improved skill
c) Increase in confidence and self-reliance
d) More responsible towards home and organization
e) Respect from friends, relatives, co-workers and family members
f) Able to decide various domestic matters yourself.
g) Qualified to be promoted for more responsibility and higher post

Do you think job is essential for women to improve their life status?
a) Yes
b) No

