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Integrated Property Tax: The Potential Own Source Revenue of Municipal Finance in Nepal

Shankar Prasad Upadhyay[1] & Prof. Dr. Kamal Das Manandhar[2]

[1]PhD Scholar, Mewar University, Chittorgarh, Rajasthan, India
[2]Assistant Dean (Management Faculty), Tribhuvan University, Nepal
Corresponding Author
Shankar Prasad Upadhyay
Email: shankarsirs@gmail.com

Abstract

Integrated property means the lands within municipal area and physical structures in general. The main objective of the study is to find out the contribution of integrated property tax on own source revenue and total revenue as well as to explore its potentiality. A descriptive research design was adopted among 500 respondents (100 municipal policy advisors and 400 municipal taxpayers) of three municipalities as well as stratified random sampling method was used to select municipalities. Damak (East), Hetauda (Central) and Birendranagar (West) were the sample municipalities. The contribution of integrated property tax on own source revenue of Hetauda municipality is nominally fluctuating overall period of six years and the fluctuation rate of Birendranagar municipality is comparatively higher than Hetauda. Damak municipality has the highest contribution percentage of integrated property tax on own source revenue. Own source revenue collection of Damak, Hetauda and Birendranagar municipality has been fluctuating. From the view point of municipal taxpayers and municipal policy making advisors, integrated property tax is more potential own source revenue of municipality in comparison to other sources. The integrated property tax is highly potential own source revenue of municipal finance in Nepal.

Keywords: Integrated Property Tax, Municipal Finance, Own source Revenue, Revenue Potentiality

Introduction

Generally the municipal finance concerns with the income and expenditure preferences of the municipal governments. It covers the revenue sources as well as the systems of financing infrastructures through the utilization of revenues. Municipal revenues basically are of two types; internal and external. Internal sources of revenue are also known as own source. Own source revenues are also of the two types: tax revenues (rent tax, house and land tax, enterprise tax, vehicle tax, property tax, entertainment tax, commercial video tax, advertisement tax etc.) and non-tax revenues(parking charge, and service charge, building permit fee, etc.)."Integrated property" means the lands within municipal area and physical structures such as wall, building, go down, shade, garage etc. built thereon (Nepal Government, 1999). In the context of developing countries, property tax is of particular importance because more responsibilities are increasingly being devolved to local government, so that the need for a major local government revenue source that can generate sufficient revenue to finance local expenditure and the score of the property tax is high(Kayuza, 2006). The property tax can play a key role in this democratic governance process. It is one of the few levies available to local governments that fit the criteria for a good local tax. Most of its burden falls within the local area, so it is a tax that presents local residents with a “price” for local services provided. (Bahl, 2009). As clearly stated in the Section 136 to 145 of Local Self Governance Act(1999), Land Revenue and House and Land Tax, Rent Tax, Enterprise Tax, Vehicle Tax, Property Tax, Entertainment Tax, Commercial Video Tax, Advertisement Tax, Parking Charge, and Service Charge are the major own revenue sources of municipal finance in Nepal.

The intent of the present study is to address the main objective i.e. to find out the contribution of integrated property tax on municipal own source revenue and total revenue to explore its potentiality for the future.

Government Policies Regarding Integrated Property Tax in Nepal

Nepal Government has made legal provisions regarding the implementation of integrated property tax in municipalities of Nepal. According to rule144 of Local Self Governance Regulation (1999), following policies have been made for the implementation of integrated property tax:(1) The minimum and maximum rates of the integrated property tax that may be levied by a Municipality within its area shall be as prescribed, (2) For the purpose of the tax to be levied pursuant to sub-rule (1), a Municipality shall have to stratify its area as per necessity, and a separate statement of integrated property of the residents or such stratification of each Ward shall have to be prepared in the format referred, (3) Upon preparation of the statement pursuant to sub-rule (2), the Municipality shall constitute a Valuation Committee consisting of five persons in maximum consisting specialists and competent persons as well for the valuation of integrated property. (4) The period of tenure of the committee constituted pursuant to sub-rule (3) shall be of one year in maximum.

(5) In making recommendation for the assessment of the taxable value of the integrated property, the Valuation Committee shall have to recommend on the following basis:-

Taking the current market rate as the basis for assessing the value of integrated property for tax,

Deducting the depreciation from the value of the physical structure assessed as per the current market-price, While deducting the depreciation for the purpose of valuation pursuant to clause (a), it shall be deducted from 10 percent to 40 percent,

(d) While valuating the physical structure other than land, it shall be valued on the basis of the classification referred,

(e) While assessing the value of physical structure, if it is in destroyed or demolished conditions, deducting the value equal to the value of the destroyed or demolished parts. (6) For the purpose of levying tax on the integrated property, the format of the form for valuation of integrated property shall be as referred,

(7) Once the recommendation for valuation of integrated property has been made pursuant to sub-rule (5), the Municipality shall have to assess the rate of valuation of integrated property within the month of Shrawan (*starting month of new fiscal year*).(8) The value assessed by the Municipality pursuant to sub-rule (7) and the rate of the tax fixed by the Municipal Council to be levied thereon shall have to be published as per the format referred,(9) The person who is not satisfied with the valuation of the integrated property published pursuant to sub-rule (8) may submit an application before the Mayor for revaluation within thirty five days from the date of publication of such notice.(10) The Municipality shall have to finalize the process of revaluation upon the application submitted pursuant to sub-rule (9) within one month.

(11) The decision taken by the Municipality pursuant to sub-rule (10) shall be final. (12) No change shall be made in the valuation of the taxable property and rate thereof fixed pursuant to sub-rules (7) or (10) for five years. (13) For the valuation of the taxable property assessed pursuant to sub-rules (7) or (10) and for payment of the tax on the integrated property so levied, the Municipality shall have to send a bill within the month of Mansir*(fifth month of the fiscal year).*(14) The tax to be paid as per the bill received pursuant to sub-rule (13) shall be paid by the concerned taxpayer to the Municipality within the same fiscal year. (15) The Municipality may exempt 10 percent from the tax amount to be paid by a taxpayer who has paid the tax amount within 30 days from the date of receipt of the bill sent by the Municipality pursuant to sub-rule (13).

Integrated property tax practices and its coverage

There are major differences between Nepalese municipalities concerning their IPT/HALT performance. Some municipalities like Dharan have tax coverage of 70%, while others like Madhyapur-Thimi are having only 10-15% tax coverage. This report analyses the reasons for the high discrepancy between municipalities such as the ones mentioned above and to state recommendations on how to improve performance regarding IPT/HALT. The report will also give implications for other municipalities, which might learn from best-practice fields and furthermore from mistakes (udle/GTZ, 2009, p. 6).

Prospects and challenges

Actual rates of tax vary widely in international practice, and a lack of reliable data on assessment practices prevents ready translation of reported nominal rates to effective levels (Youngman, 1996).Municipalities must be authorized to expand their internal revenue base and modify the tax rate according to local situation so that they can collect adequate revenue to meet their financial needs (Thapa, 2004, p. 4). The valuation of property is one of the key problems with the effective use of the property tax in developing and transitional countries. (Youngman, Alternative Perspective on Property Taxation, 2005, p. 7). Nepalese municipalities still have a revenue potential increase of almost 60%. It is the fact that there is high resistance of taxpayers and integrated property tax in many municipalities is not full-fledged. Missing revaluations of tax rates and the potential of integrated property taxin Nepal is quite obvious. The high taxpayer resistance is based on the mistrust against the local administration (MLD, udle/GTZ, 2008, p. 9).

Another problem is the very high taxpayer resistance. People are mistrusting the public servants and criticizing the lack of transparency. The visibility of the output generated by public money needs to be improved by a lot in order to raise taxpayer compliance and to build a tax culture. This process obviously will take some time. Without a comprehensive database and software to maintain and update it the chances for success seem to be very low. Another crucial question is how the central government is going to decide upon the future of local property tax. Local property tax is highly dependent on external influences. A lot of municipalities were completely dependent on external consultants and finance packages during the IPT/HALT implementation process. With the government's acknowledgement of the importance of IPT/HALT, its commitment in financial and technical support, the chances for an improvement of local property tax revenues in Nepalese municipalities are quite optimistic (udle/GTZ, 2009).Property taxes are particularly valuable for developing countries. Provided that the property resources and their ownership can be identified, real property can provide one of the few bases for a reliable and broadly based taxation system (Hefferen, 2010). Municipalities are fully responsible for formulating and executing local or municipal policies and programmes in partnership with other local governance performers and they have substantial roles in bringing local actors together to form a common vision of how to take action to issues raised in a coordinated way (MLD, 2012). Regarding the measurement, explanation and control of tax evasion, we still need to fulfil many gaps in our understanding although we might have learned so many matters of finance and taxation. (Alm, 2012). Tax source is an important own source municipal revenues. Both the benefit and ability to pay principle of taxation are the basic philosophies (BSBA, 2013)..A challenge for a study of taxpayer attitude is a lack of reliable data due to an individual's reluctance to reveal one's own non-compliance. (Merima Ali, 2013, p. 5). The main sources of own revenue for municipalities are usually property taxes, business licenses, market fees and various user charges. They have the potential to provide substantial and reliable revenue if well administered, but in practice all have serious drawbacks (ICTD, 2013, p. 2)

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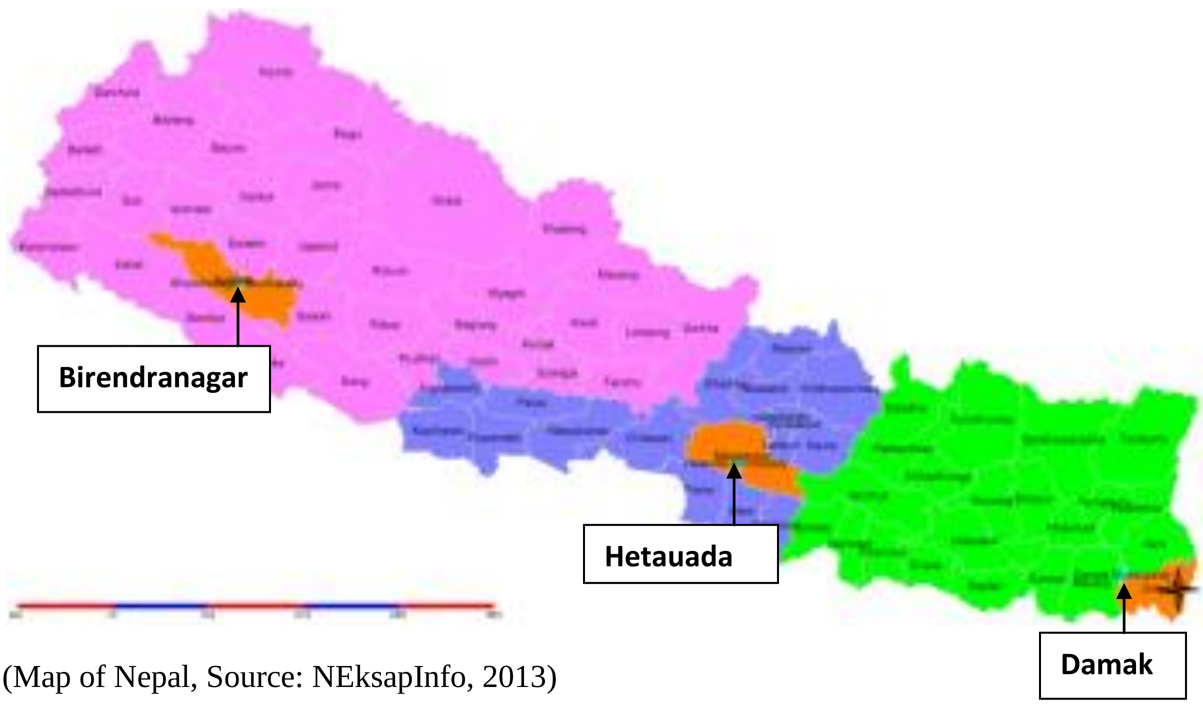
Method

<u>Study Area</u>

The study was concerned with all the municipality area and the topic was directly related to 58 municipalities of Nepal so that all the municipalities were the study population. According to the Local Self Governance Act (1999) of Nepal, 53 municipalities were formed in similar process and criteria out of 58. In this study, stratified random sampling method was used for the selection of municipalities so as to select three municipalities out of 53 considering the number of municipalities, ecological belt and coverage of the study area. The following figure (figure 1) has depicted the name of sample municipalities of the study area.

(Figure -1)



(Map of Nepal, Source: NEksapInfo, 2013)

3.2 Research Design and Methodology of the Study

Cross sectional data have been collected and descriptive research design has been adopted to analyze the contribution of integrated property tax on own source revenue and the contribution of own source revenue on total revenue as well as potentiality of integrated property tax as a major own source municipal revenues.

Out of eighteen municipalities of strata - 1(8,37,043 municipal population), Damak municipality (EsternTerai belt) was sampled, from the strata - 2(9,99,764 municipal population), Hetauda municipality (Central Inner-Terai belt) was sampled out of seventeen municipalities and from strata - 3 (8,98,264 municipal population), Birendranagar (Western Hill belt) municipality was taken as a sample out of 19 municipalities.

Municipal policy advisors and taxpayers were the respondents of the study. The samples taken from each municipality were equal, and in total 100 samples were taken from municipal policy advisors and 400 samples were taken from taxpayers of sample municipalities.

Self administered questionnaires have been developed in 5 point Linker Scale and dichotomous and conducted survey for primary data collection and secondary information were obtained from municipalities (Damak, Hetauda and Birendranagar), Ministry of Federal Affairs and Local Development, Urban Development Through Local Efforts(udle/GTZ), District Development Committees and Local Bodies' Fiscal Commission. Relevant books, journals as well as published and unpublished performance or work of the concerned organizations working on the field were used for the macro analysis of the study. For the analysis of secondary data, various analytical tables have been set up and different analytical tools of statistics including SPSS-20 software have been used for the analysis of primary data.

Result

In this research, there were 500 respondents (400 municipal taxpayers and 100 municipal policy advisors), among them 75% respondents were males and female respondents were 25%. Out of 100 municipal policy advisors, most of them were local political party members (i.e. 62%), CCI members were 28%, government tax officers were 6% and few were civil society members. Likewise, more than 50% taxpayers were engaged in business activities and 27.5% taxpayers were private job -holders. Similarly, about 12% and 10.5% taxpayers were involved in government job and agriculture respectively.

Both types of respondents' views have been collected to find out the contribution of integrated property tax on own source revenue and the contribution of own source revenue on total revenue of municipalities, and the potentiality of integrated property tax in municipal finance. They are presented and discussed as below:

Table No. 1: Integrated Property Tax, Own Source Revenue, and Total Revenue of Recent Six Fiscal Years

Name of Municipality	**Total Integrated Property Tax Received (Rs.)**	**Total Own Source Revenue Received (Rs.)**	**Total Revenue Received (Rs.)**	**Contribution of Integrated Property Tax on Own Source Revenue (%)**	**Contribution of Own Source Revenue on Total Revenue (%)**

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Damak	26300262	157492170	536259001	16.70	29.37
Hetauda	54788542	465606853	1042370173	11.77	44.67
Birendranagar	10710062	88387977	353989225	12.12	24.97
Total	91798866	711487000	1932618399	12.90	36.81

(Source: Damak, Hetauda and Birendranagar Municipality Offices, 2014)

On the basis of above tabulated data; integrated property tax collection of recent past six fiscal years is lowest inBirendranagar municipality and highest in Hetauda Municipality, as well as the same status of own source revenue and total revenue of the same municipalities. Comparatively, the contribution of integrated property tax on own source revenue of Damak municipality is higher (i.e. 16.70 %,) than Birendranagar municipality (i.e. 12.12%). The above table also reveals that Hetauda municipality has the highest contribution of own source revenue on total revenue (i.e. 44.67%) and Damak and Birendranagar municipalities have respectively 29.37% and 24.97% own source revenue contribution on total revenue. It shows that Hetauda municipality has given high attention to collect other local sources of revenues.

Table No. 2: Contribution of Integrated Property Tax on Total Own Source Revenue

Municipality	**Descriptions**	**Fiscal Years**						
		007/08	**008/09**	**009/10**	**010/11**	**011/12**	**012/13**	**Total**
Damak	Integrated Property Tax Received Rs.	2158	2518	2512	4443	6495	8174	26300
	Own Source Revenue Received Total	15675	47270	17427	21933	26281	28906	157492
	IPT Contribution (%)	**13.77**	**5.33**	**14.41**	**20.26**	**24.71**	**28.28**	**16.70**
Hetauda	Integrated Property Tax Received Rs.	7790	9462	6873	8577	10634	11453	54789
	Own Source Revenue Total	45732	57463	62227	97051	101357	101777	465607
	IPT Contribution (%)	**17.03**	**16.47**	**11.05**	**8.84**	**10.49**	**11.25**	**11.77**
Birendranagar	Integrated Property Tax Received Rs.	505	549	3041	2769	1524	2322	10710
	Own Source Revenue Total	8490	13606	16542	17845	13781	18124	88388

	IPT Contribution (%)	**5.95**	**4.03**	**18.38**	**15.52**	**11.06**	**12.81**	**12.12**

(Source: Damak, Hetauda and Birendranagar Municipality Offices, 2014)

The above data (Table-2) shows that the contribution of integrated property tax on own source revenue of Damak municipality is in raising trend except one fiscal year i.e. 2008/009. The contribution of the same tax on own source revenue of Hetauda municipality is nominally fluctuating overall period of six years and the fluctuation rate of integrated property tax of Birendranagar municipality is comparatively higher than Hetauda municipality. Damak municipality has the highest contribution percentage of Integrated property tax on own source revenue (i.e. 16.70%), and Hetauda municipality has the lowest contribution percentage of the same tax (i.e.11.77%).

Table No. 3: Contribution of Own Source Revenue on Total Revenue (Rs. in 000)

Municipality	**Descriptions**	**Fiscal Years**						
		007/08	**008/09**	**009/10**	**010/11**	**011/12**	**012/13**	**Total**
Damak	Total Revenue Received Rs.	52845	91338	62303	120971	92069	116733	536259
	Own Source Revenue Received Rs.	15675	47270	17427	21933	26281	28906	157492
	Contribution(%)of Own Source Revenue to Total Revenue	29.66	51.75	27.97	18.13	28.54	24.76	29.37
Hetauda	Total Revenue Received Rs.	81624	119182	260662	211972	196003	172928	1042371
	Own Source Revenue Received Rs.	45732	57463	62227	97051	101357	101777	465607
	Contribution(%)of Own Source Revenue to Total Revenue	56.03	48.21	23.87	45.78	51.71	58.86	44.67
Birendranagar	Total Revenue Received Rs.	25016	57188	72975	81608	48408	68794	353989
	Own Source Revenue Received Rs.	8490	13606	16542	17845	13781	18124	88388
	Contribution(%)of Own Source Revenue	33.94	23.79	22.67	21.87	28.47	26.35	24.97

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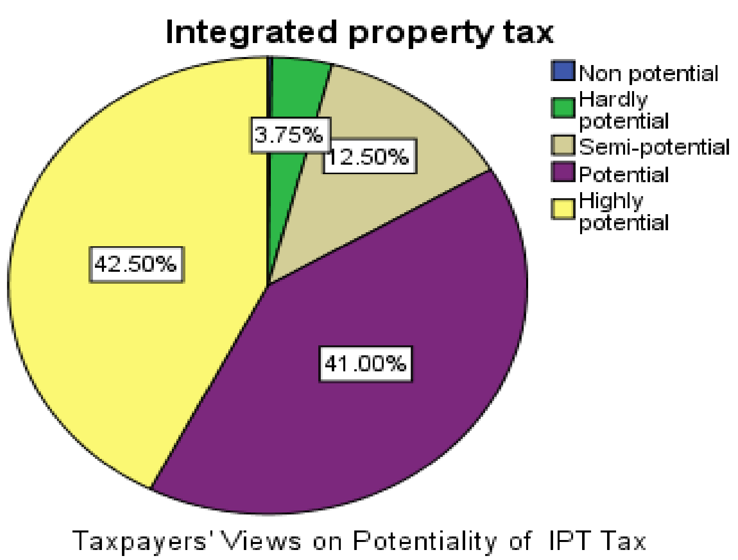
	to Total Revenue								

(Source: Damak, Hetauda and Birendranagar Municipality Offices, 2014)

The above (Table - 3) data reflect that the total revenue and own source revenue of six years of Hetauda municipality is higher than Damak and Birendranagar municipalities. Own source revenue collection ratio of Damak, Hetauda and Birendranagar municipality has been fluctuating as the contribution of own source revenue on total revenue of all the municipalities has been changed. In an aggregate form, the contribution of own source revenue on total revenue of Hetauda municipality is higher (i.e. 44.67%) than other two Damak and Birendranagar municipalities, as they have 29.37% and 24.97% contribution of own source revenue on total revenue respectively. The table depicts that Hetauda municipality has been paying high attention continuously to increase own source revenue in comparison to other two municipalities.

On the basis of the following figure (Figure: 1), most of the taxpayers believe that the integrated property tax is more potential source of own source revenue of municipalities in Nepal. More than 83 (potential 41% and highly potential 42.5%) percent taxpayers have expressed their views on potentiality of the tax.

Figure: 1



(Source: Field Survey, 2014)

Table – 4: Comparative Opinions of Municipal Taxpayers and Policy Advisors on Integrated Property Tax

S.N.	**Major Revenue Headings**	**Opinions of Municipal Tax Payers**		**Opinions of Municipal Policy Advisors**	
		Highly Potential (%)	**Potential (%)**	**Highly Potential (%)**	**Potential (%)**
1	Integrated Property Tax	**42.5**	41	**62**	27
2	Business /Profession Tax	33.5	54.8	54	34
3	Rental Tax	25.5	34.8	40	34
4	Building Permit Fee	38.5	38.5	39	52
5	Service Fee	21.8	50	12	61
6	Environmental Pollution Fee	13.8	43.5	5	47

(Source: Field Survey, 2014)

Based on above comparative table (Table:4), among the six major headings of municipal own source revenues, integrated property tax has highest scores, and the second highest scorer is business /profession tax from the view point of taxpayers and municipal policy making advisors. Comparatively, the environment pollution control fee and municipal service fee are less potential sources of municipal own source revenues.

Figure: 2

A Comparative Views on IPT Tax of Taxpayers and Municipal Policy making Advisors

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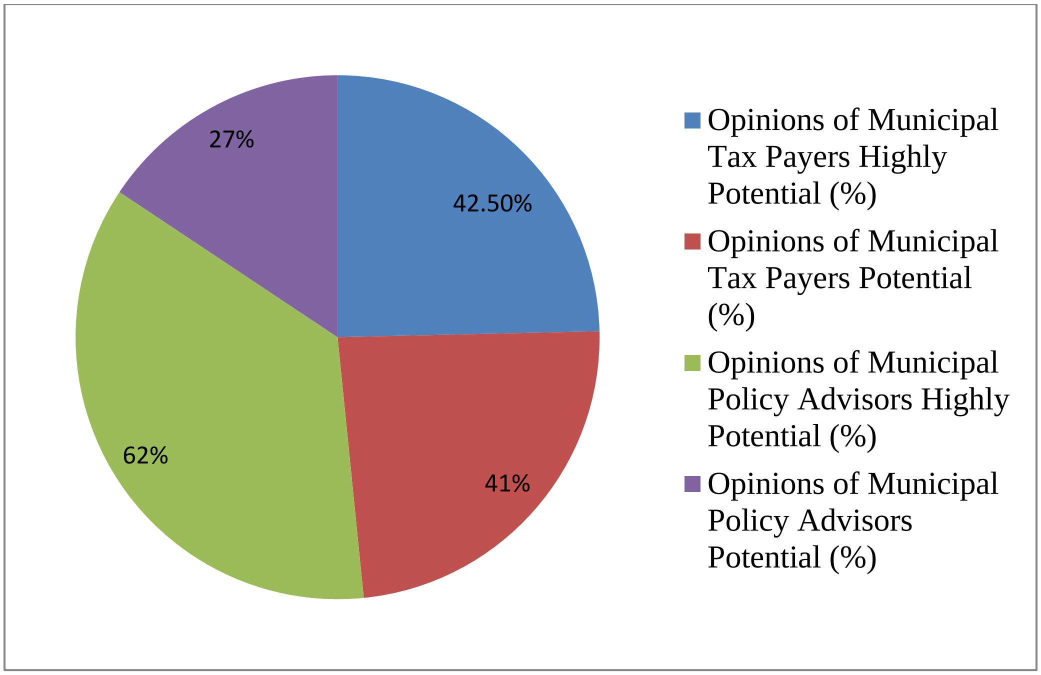

(Source: Field Survey, 2014)

Based on above pie chart (Figure: 2), the taxpayers express their views pertaining to potentiality of integrated property tax with 42.50 percent highly potential and 41 percent potential. Similarly, the municipal policy advisors state that their views relating to the potentiality of integrated property tax with 62 percent highly potential and 27 percent potential.

Discussion

The findings shown in above tables and figures are compared with the prior researches to know the similarity and dissimilarity in data. The contribution of integrated property tax on revenue lies between11.77% to16.70% and the contribution of own source revenue on total revenue lies between24.97% to 44.67% within the study period. The average contribution of property tax of all the municipalities is above than 11.77 %. House and land tax is the second largest revenue source of all the municipalities of Nepal (Silwal, 2012)

Although the contribution of own source revenue on total revenue of all the municipalities have been fluctuating, the lower contribution ratios of own source revenue to total revenue of Damak, Hetauda and Birendranagar municipalities are 18.13%, 23.87% and 21.87% respectively. In average, the contribution of own source revenue on total revenue of Damak, Hetauda and Birendranagar municipalities are 29.37%, 44.67% and 24.97% respectively. The collection amount of integrated property tax of Hetauda municipality has been increasing enthusiastically so that there is no doubt to secure full marks from this indicator in Minimum Condition and Performance Measurement (MCPM) rating system. MCPM manual (Government of Nepal, Secretariat of LBFC, 2009, p. 27)has mentioned the provision for integrated property tax implementation and its performance regarding MCPM assessment for securing full marks from the indicator that increases income from the integrated property tax in the last year compared to second last fiscal year.

From the view point of municipal taxpayers and policy advisors, integrated property tax is more potential own source revenue of municipality in comparison to other sources. Property tax proponents have long advocated redefining the property tax so that it might come closer to realizing its potential. Many have identified specific best practices, including administrative and policy reforms that have been broadly successful (Bahl, 2009).

Conclusion

The study concludes that the contribution of integrated property tax on own source revenue of one municipality is not consistent with the contribution of other municipalities. Likewise, the contribution ratio of own source revenue on total revenue has no uniformity among municipalities. The more integrated property tax contribution ratio; the more own source revenue, the more own source revenue; more chances of getting performance grants by the central government. The study clearly shows that the integrated property tax is highly potential own source revenue of municipal finance in Nepal.

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Respondents wise Status of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) of Karnali Zone Nepal

Kushendra Bahadur Mahat[1] & Prof. Dr. Bihari Binod Pokharel[2]

[1]PhD Scholar, Dr. K. N. Modi University, Newai, Rajasthan, India
[2] Director, Master of Business Management Program, Nepal Commerce Campus, Tribhuwan University, Minbhawan, Kathmandu, Nepal

Corresponding Author
Kushendra Bahadur Mahat
Email: k6mahatg@gmail.com

Abstract

Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) have been promoted in the development activities in Nepal since the restoration of democracy in 1990. NGOs have been recognized as one of the development facilitator institutions in Karnali Zone. The objective of this study was focused to identify the status of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) on the basis of its structure, environment, values and Impact. The study had adopted the civil society index as a theoretical tool of study. Randomly in total 562 respondents were selected from five districts of Karnali zone. The findings of ANOVA showed that there was a significant difference between respondents in the structure of NGOs in P=0.007 significant level at 95% confidence interval. But other three components environment, values and impact were not significantly difference. It could be assumed that because of the geographical differences, involvement of human resources, basic infrastructure, access on communication and technologies and perception on NGOs activities are the major factors which made the perceptual difference among the respondents in structure of NGOs. Similarly, contribution of NGO in promotion of political awareness, transparency of their work and empowering citizenship were more or less in the same level in all five districts so response of participants became similar in environment, values and impact of NGOs. It is necessary to identify the locally reliable and related indicators of NGO to assess the NGO's status and their performance.

Keywords: NGO, Respondents, Status,

Introduction

The study was focused to identify the status of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) on the basis of its structure, environment, values and Impact. This study was carried out in five districts; Dolpa, Humla, Jumla, Kalikot and Mugu of Karnali Zone. Karnali Zone falls under the lowest ranking among all zones and districts of Nepalfrom the Human Development Index (HDI). In this context, NGOs were played significant contribution to meet the minimum basic needS of the community along with Nepal Government. There were 32000 NGOs registered and affiliated with Social Welfare Council which 560 NGO in Karnali Zone. NGOs in Nepal formed and operate under the Societies Registration Act 2034 (1977) and Social Welfare Act 2044. District Administration Office (DAO) and the Social Welfare Council (SWC) are the important governing institutions of NGOs in Nepal (Dhakal, 2007, p. 5). NGOs HAVE been working on the environment sector, forestry sector, wildlife sector and national development; poverty, human right, HIV and AIDS, health, etc. (Bhandari, 2014, p. 183). Since the 1990s, the role of development non-governmental organisations (NGOs) in international development has increased along with massive interest and concern over NGO performance from NGO practitioners, governments, citizens, donors, policymakers and academics (Lund, 2012). The current main crux of the matter in Nepal is how to reach out to the most excluded and needy people for their improvements. Both donors and NGOs apply different approaches to this issue; some INGOs go as far as contracting directly with local communities and user groups – by passing intermediary Nepali NGOs (Ingdal, 2007, p. iv). NGOs have been recognized as one of the development actors but formal academic research of the contributions and their status is not carried out in Karnali Zone. Civil society institution and NGOs in different sectors can bridge the differences between transitional citizens with different backgrounds as they learn to coexist in the public sphere and concomitantly develop higher levels of trust (Abom, 2004; TUSALEM, 2007, p. 380). To find the status of the NGOs in Karnali Zone, specific research was carried out with the basis of Civil Society Index (CSI).

Method

Quantitative designed was applied in the study. In quantitative data, cross-tab, frequency table and ANOVA test and multiple comparison (Bonferroni test) values were analyzed for descriptive analysis of data, as well as correlation was done to explore the relation between two and multiple variables. In total 562 respondents were selected from 5 groups: beneficiaries -400, NGOs Board - 56, NGOs staff – 56, Civil Society - 25, Government Official – 25. In district wise, number of participation were Dolpa - 66, Humla – 82, Jumla - 146, Kalikot - 174 and Mugu - 94 by using the simple random sampling. Multistage Simple Random Sampling was used to deduct the size of the study area on the basis of logical reasoning and simple random sampling which was adopted to select the respondents. Under the random sampling, lottery method (two types of similar paper card was used having with symbol of '0' and '1' ('0' means not selected and '1' means selected) was used to select the respondents for survey and interview both. The entire paper cards were kept in one container and participants were asked to draw the card. Who got the 1, was selected for the study.

Result

This study had measured the main four elements (structure, environment, values, and impact) of NGOs on the basis of five types of respondents. These four elements determine the overall status of the NGOs and their performances. All these four elements also include 25 sub-elements. Under these 25 sub-elements there were 74 individual indicators which support to measure the NGOs. These sub-elements were as below:

Structure

There are six main components under the structure. These six components are breadth of citizen participation, depth of citizen participation, diversity of civil society participation, resources, level of organization and inter relation of NGOs. There is a significant difference between respondents in the structure. There is significant difference of breadth of citizen participation between civil society to beneficiaries, NGO board and Civil Society. There is significantly difference of depth of citizen participation between civil society and beneficiaries and NGO board. There is a significant difference of resources and interrelation between NGO boards, civil society and beneficiaries.

Environment

There are seven main components under the environment. These seven components are political context, basic freedom of rights, socio-economic context, socio-cultural context, private sector civil society, legal environment and state civil society. There is no significantly difference between beneficiaries, NGO board, NGO staff, and Government and Civil society.

Values

There are seven main components under values. These seven components are democracy, transparency, tolerance, non-violence, private sector civil society, poverty eradication and gender equity. There is no significantly difference of non-violence between respondents.

Impact

There are five main components under Impact. These five components are holding state & private sector, influencing public policy, responding to social interest, empowering citizens and building social capital. There is no significantly difference of non-violence between respondents.

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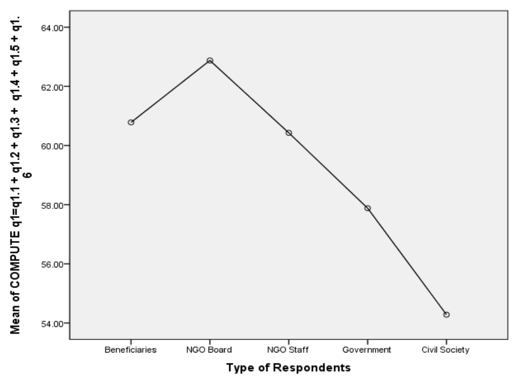
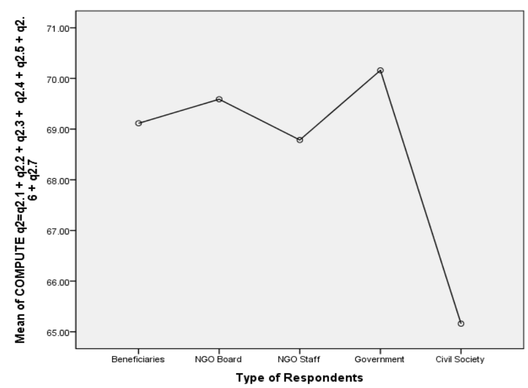
The study had collected the data from the respondents regarding their perception on status of NGOs of Karnali Zone on the basis of major four elements. The data presented below explained the mean value of each element of NGOs. The following data shows the mean differentiation of four major elements (structure, environment, values, and impact) on the basis of five types of respondents. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was calculated and found the following values. The mean values and value of f-test has given the description of NGOs status in Karnali Zone. Comparative data are presented to identify the high and low value of four main elements as well as its significant differences between and within the respondents.

Respondent wise mean value of four elements of NGOs

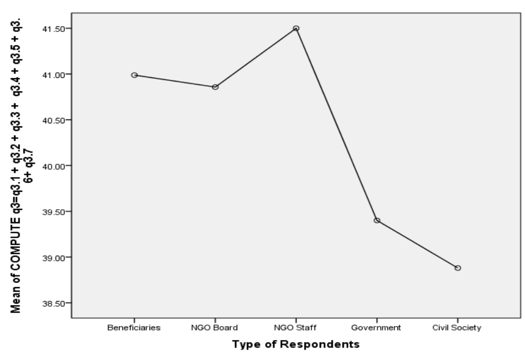
STRUCTURE



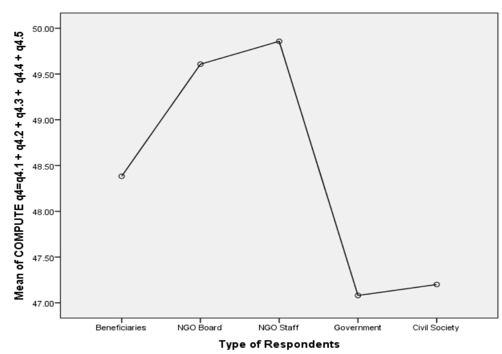
ENVIZRONMENT



VALUE



IMPACT



ANOVA test within the respondents

Description	F Value	P - Values	Remarks
Structure	3.582	0.007	Significant
Environment	0.941	0.44	Insignificant

Values	0.977	0.420	Insignificant
Impact	0.829	0.507	Insignificant

Source: Field survey, 2014

From the above table in the structure F value is 3.582 and P-values is .007 observed. It indicates there is a significant difference between respondents in the structure. And other three components environment, values and impact are not significantly difference observed within respondents. There was significant difference in structure among the types of respondents in P = .007 significant level at 95% confidence interval. But the data accepted was no difference in environment, values and impact among the types of respondents in P = .44, P = 0.420 and P = 0.507 respectively significant level at 95% confidence interval.

Respondent wise multiple comparison of major elements of NGOs (Bonferroni test)

Table 1: Respondent wise multiple comparison of structure of NGOs

Description	**Respondents types**	**P-Values**	**95% confident level**		**Remarks**
			Lower bound	**Upper bound**	
Structure	Beneficiaries – NGO board	1.000	-6.187	2.002	No significant difference
	Beneficiaries - NGO staff	1.000	-3.741	4.449	No significant difference
	Beneficiaries – Government	1.000	-3.014	8.819	No significant difference
	Beneficiaries – Civil society	0.021	0.585	12.419	Beneficiary has significantly higher
	NGO board – NGO staff	1.000	-2.977	7.870	No significant difference
	NGO board – Government	0.419	-1.908	11.898	No significant difference
	NGO board – Civil society	0.005	1.691	15.498	NGO board has significantly higher
	NGO staff – Government	1.000	-4.355	9.452	No significant difference
	NGO staff – Civil society	0.124	-0.755	13.052	No significant difference
	Government – Civil society	1.000	-4.518	11.7183	No significant difference

Source: Field survey, 2014

The table no. 1 shows that there was significant difference between the beneficiaries and civil society at the P = 0.021 significant level which is less than .05. The value of beneficiaries was significantly higher than civil society. Similarly, there was significant difference between the NGO board and civil society at the P = 0.005 significant level which is less than .05. The value of NGO board was significantly higher than civil society.

The relation between the other respondents; government vs. civil society, NGO staff vs. civil society, NGO staff vs. government, beneficiaries vs. government, NGO board vs. NGO staff found no significant difference because the P value was greater than .05 significant level.

The above table and graphs shows that NGO board value has higher score and civil society has lower score between five respondents.

Table No. 2: Respondent wise multiple comparison of environment of NGOs

Description	**Respondents types**	**P-Values**	**95% confident level**		**Remarks**
			Lower bound	**Upper bound**	
Environment	Beneficiaries – NGO board	1.000	-4.771	3.822	No significant difference
	Beneficiaries - NGO staff	1.000	-3.967	4.626	No significant difference
	Beneficiaries – Government	1.000	-7.253	5.163	No significant difference
	Beneficiaries – Civil society	0.731	-2.253	10.163	No significant difference
	NGO board – NGO staff	1.000	-4.887	6.494	No significant difference
	NGO board – Government	1.000	-7.814	6.673	No significant difference
	NGO board – Civil society	0.854	-2.814	11.673	No significant difference
	NGO staff – Government	1.000	-8.618	5.8696	No significant difference
	NGO staff – Civil society	1.000	-3.618	10.869	No significant difference
	Government – Civil society	0.986	-3.518	13.518	No significant difference

Source: Field survey, 2014

The table no. 2 has explained the multiple comparisons between the respondents regarding their perception on environment of NGOs. The data shows that there was no significant differences between the each group of respondents because P value was found greater than .05 (5%) of significant level at 95% confidence interval.

Table no. 3: Respondent wise multiple comparison of values of NGOs

Description	**Respondents types**	**P-Values**	**95% confident level**		**Remarks**
			Lower bound	**Upper bound**	
Values	Beneficiaries – NGO board	1.000	-2.604	2.864	No significant difference
	Beneficiaries - NGO staff	1.000	-3.247	2.222	No significant

					difference
	Beneficiaries – Government	1.000	-2.363	5.538	No significant difference
	Beneficiaries – Civil society	1.000	-1.843	6.058	No significant difference
	NGO board – NGO staff	1.000	-4.264	2.979	No significant difference
	NGO board – Government	1.000	-3.152	6.067	No significant difference
	NGO board – Civil society	1.000	-2.632	6.587	No significant difference
	NGO staff – Government	1.000	-2.510	6.710	No significant difference
	NGO staff – Civil society	1.000	-1.990	7.230	No significant difference
	Government – Civil society	1.000	-4.901	5.941	No significant difference

Source: Field survey, 2014

Following the analysis of table no. 2, the study found insignificant association between the respondents regarding their perception on environment of NGO. In the same way, the data also explored the relationship between the respondents regarding their response on 'value' of NGO. The data of table no. 3 shows that there was no significant difference between the respondents. NGO board vs. government or NGO's staff vs. civil society vs. beneficiaries were found no relations between them. The P value was found greater the .05 significant levels. It accepted the null hypothesis.

Table No. 4: Respondent wise multiple comparison of impact of NGOs

Description	**Respondents types**	**P-Values**	**95% confident level**		**Remarks**
			Lower bound	**Upper bound**	
Impact	Beneficiaries – NGO board	1.000	-4.846	2.397	No significant difference
	Beneficiaries - NGO staff	1.000	-5.096	2.147	No significant difference
	Beneficiaries – Government	1.000	-3.931	6.536	No significant difference
	Beneficiaries – Civil society	1.000	-4.051	6.416	No significant difference

	NGO board – NGO staff	1.000	-5.047	4.547	No significant difference
	NGO board – Government	1.000	-3.579	8.633	No significant difference
	NGO board – Civil society	1.000	-3.699	8.513	No significant difference
	NGO staff – Government	1.000	-3.329	8.883	No significant difference
	NGO staff – Civil society	1.000	-3.449	8.763	No significant difference
	Government – Civil society	1.000	-7.300	7.060	No significant difference

Source: Field survey, 2014

Impact is known as the output of NGO. The study also evaluated the impact of NGO in the Karnali Zone. The analysis of survey data presented in table no. 4 shows that there was no significant difference between the respondents regarding the impact of NGO. It is interesting that the P value of each relation was found equal (P = 1.000) which is greater than .05. The result accepted there was no significant difference between the respondents.

Table no. 5: Respondent wise Sub group of main elements of NGOs

Main Element	Sub-Elements	F Value	P-Values	Remarks
Structure		3.582	0.007	Significant
	Breadth of citizen Participation	3.881	.004	Significant
	Depth of citizen participation	3.964	.004	Significant
	Diversity of civil society participants	2.132	.076	Insignificant
	Resources	3.177	.013	Significant
	Level of organization	.305	.875	Insignificant
	Inter relations	2.740	.028	Significant
Environment		0.941	0.44	Insignificant
	Political context	2.037	.088	Insignificant
	Basic freedom & rights	2.134	.075	Insignificant
	Socio-economic context	1.144	.335	Insignificant
	Socio-cultural context	.005	1.000	Insignificant
	Private sector civil society	1.960	.099	Insignificant
	Legal environment	.700	.592	Insignificant
	State civil society relation	.782	.537	Insignificant
Values		0.977	0.420	Insignificant

	Democracy	.490	.743	Insignificant
	Transparency	1.884	.112	Insignificant
	Tolerance	.770	.545	Insignificant
	Non-violence	1.265	.283	Insignificant
	Environmental sustainability	1.377	.240	Insignificant
	Poverty eradication	.749	.559	Insignificant
	Gender equity	1.195	.312	Insignificant
Impact		0.829	0.507	Insignificant
	Holding state & private sector	1.279	.277	Insignificant
	Influencing public policy	.700	.592	Insignificant
	Responding to social interest	.151	.963	Insignificant
	Empowering citizens	1.372	.242	Insignificant
	Building social capital	1.596	.174	Insignificant

Source: Field survey, 2014

From the above table no 5 under the structure, there are six components. Out of six, four components observed significant. Breadth of citizen participants F value is 3.881 and P-value is 0.004, Depth of citizen participation F value is 3.964 and P-value is 0.004, Resources F value is 3.177 and P-value is 0.013 and inter relations F value is 2.74 and P-value is 0.028 Out of six two components are insignificant, diversity of civil society participants F value is 2.132 and P-value is 0.076 and level of organization F value is 0.305 and P-value is 0.875

And other three main components environment, values and impact of the nineteen components are not significantly difference observed within respondents.

Discussion

The study found the significant difference on structure of NGO from the perceptual analysis of respondents. Under the structure of NGO, there was significant difference on the depth of citizen participation, mobilization of resources and inter relations which determines the social status of NGO and its effect on development. The beneficiaries, civil society and NGOs staff had different perception on volunteering, charitable giving, NGO membership, collective action under and the financial, human and technical resources as well as level of communication and cooperation of NGOs in the districts. Many previous literatures has accepted NGO as a development partners. Lenihan, Eoghan Walsh and Helena has stated that NGOs are significant players in the development field (2006, p. 422). In the Nepalese context, the role of NGOs and Civil Societies are still service and development oriented. Civil societies play important roles in the changing of individuals' lives by bringing together diverse groups of people to solve social problems (Bhandari, 2014, p. 177).

From the perspective of respondents of all five districts, there was no significant difference on environment, values and impact of NGO. Environment wise, there was no association in political context, basic freedom & rights, socio-economic context, legal environment and state civil society relationship in these study areas. Though, it was acceptable that all the NGOs of different districts were providing their services to the community. According to Yap, Nonita also, there are NGOs which define their mandate as helping to remove the stumbling blocks to development: some pursue this objective through the delivery of relief and social welfare services; others do it by helping to organize communities or sectors (1989/1990, p. 77).

Values of NGO talk about the democracy, transparency, tolerance, non-violence, environmental sustainability, poverty reduction and gender equity. All these variables were insignificant with the perception of respondents in Karnali zone. There was no relation between the respondents but independently all these factors were working in the study areas. The previous study showed that in modem development discourse, one area that has gained considerable currency has been the impact delivered by NGOs, mainly because their work is understood to have direct and obvious effects on the lives of poor and marginalized people (Linda Kelly, 2004, p. 696). The NGO sector is hugely diverse, ranging from small CBOs dealing with local community issues to larger, nationally based NGOs, which mostly address social or economic needs (Mercer, 1999, p. 249).

Impact of NGO explained about the holding state & private sector, influencing public policy, responding to social interest, empowering citizens and building social capital in this study. These factors were also found insignificant differences from the perspective of respondents. The contributions of NGO in these sectors were found meaningful in their particular context and it was also reported in the previous studies. Nusrat Jahan Chowdhury has stated that both national and international policy-making institutions have acknowledged the contribution of NGOs in alleviating poverty, through empowering the poor and continuing to support their endeavors (Chowdhury, 2008, p. 117). Characteristics of the Process of Development with Equity it is important to appreciate the full significance of the point that the right to development associates development with equity and justice (Sengupta, 1999). NGOs have done much to address the needs and issues of the 'poor across the world. However, much remains to be done with regard to understanding the effects that NGOs and their multiple approaches and agendas have on wider sociological processes such as the building of social capital and social organizing (Abom, 2004, p. 342).

Presence of NGO also plays the role to create the positive relationship between the different key stakeholders. From the study showed that there was no association between the various activities of NGO in Karnali zone from the respondents perspective though independently their status was meaningful. Lawrence T. Woods showed the important of NGO by stating that the ability to foster mutual understanding among peoples and states and between people and states is considered vital by most NGOs (1995, p. 824).

Conclusion

The study was focused to identify the status; structure, environment, value and impact of NGOs in Karnali zone with the perspective of different respondents NGO board, NGO staff, Beneficiaries, Government agencies and Civil Societies. The findings showed that there was significant difference in structure. The perspective of beneficiaries and civil society, NGO board and civil society had different perception in breadth and depth of citizen participation; inter relation and resources of the NGOs. It could be assumed that because of the geographical differences, involvement of human resources, basic infrastructure, access on communication and technologies and perception on NGOs activities are the major factors which made the perceptual difference among the respondents. Similarly, the findings showed that the rest major three elements; environment, values and impact had no significant difference. From the respondents' perspective, the status of these three elements was similar in all five districts. Normally, it could be observed that the contribution of NGO in promotion of political awareness, transparency of their work and empowering citizenship were more or less in the same level in all five district so response of participants became similar. The study found the similar response of respondents in environment, values and impact of NGO so it is necessary to identify the locally reliable and related indicators of NGO to assess the NGO's status and their performance.

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Researcher Observational Analysis of the Role of Educational Facilities on Students' Achievement

Bijaya Nepal[1] & Prof. Dr. Ramkrishna Maharjan[2]

[1]PhD Scholar, Mewar University, Rajasthan, India
[2] Professors, Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu, Nepal

Corresponding Author
Bijaya Nepal
Email: bijaya_nepal77@yahoo.com

Abstract

This study was undertaken to analyse the researcher's observation on different five variables: school's library, e-library, science laboratory, availability of computer laboratory and its management. These educational facilities effect on the learning process and the achievement of the students'. The main objective of this study was to analyse the role of schools' educational facilities on students' achievement on community-based school and institutional schools of Central Development Region of Nepal. The data presented in this paper were collected to know the measurement of availability of educational facilities and students' achievement from the selected schools for the research. This study was conducted from January to July 2014. During this time, observation checklist was designed to obtain descriptive results using cross tabulation and percentage; and multi-stage sampling methods were applied. The sample size was taken proportionately from 3,125 numbers of Secondary and Higher Secondary schools. The selected districts were Sindhupalchok, Kavre, Makwanpur, Kathmandu and Chitwan. From the universe, 32(1.02 percent) schools were taken by using proportionate stratified random sampling. The value of data Cronbach's Alpha is 0.86 within 36 variables. Analysis of data was done by using the SPSS version 20. Chi-square test was applied to analyze the data. There was significance association (p=.000) between community and institutional schools students' achievement test min score of science and computer subjects and significance association (p=.010) among ecological region (Mountain, Hill, Valley and Terai) students achievement test min score of five core subjects has been found which means that the availability and management of educational facilities and achievement in most of the private schools are better than governmental one.

Keywords: *Educational Facilities, Observational Analysis and Students' Achievement*

Introduction

Schools exist for the purpose of teaching and learning. Educational facilities are provided for this purpose. They are the material and resources provided to the teachers and the students to optimize their productivity in teaching and learning process. The realization that the transfer of knowledge does not only take place in the four walls of the classroom, but it goes beyond it. So, it does not limit within the teacher and the students, rather the learning takes place through discovery, exploration and interaction with the internal. External environment has necessitated the creative and innovative development of teaching and learning facilities that reflect these changes (Asiabaka, 2008). Useful types of educational facilities to be contacted by the planners and the school management team are acoustical design engineering, audio visual, sciences laboratory, building design, interior design, computer laboratory, lighting design, management consulting, project planning, site planning, technical equipment specialization, and urban planning(Propst, 1972).

Firstly, the government should provide necessary facilities for the schools. Secondly, School Management Committee can manage all type of necessary facilities and thirdly, the head of the school should ensure optimal implementation of these facilities. Policies and Programmes of the Government of Nepal for fiscal year 2071-72 (2014-15), In order to promote quality education of school, ***"one school; one library and e-library, and one school; one science laboratory"*** programmes will be launched gradually in secondary schools. Technological gap will be reduced through education system based on information technology (GoN, 2014, p. 9).

There are basically two types of financial assistance by the government to provide necessary assistance to public schools in Nepal. The first is earmarked grants; this includes teachers' salary, textbooks, scholarship etc. The second type involves block grants; which includes the school's cost of administrative expenses, expenditures related to infrastructure development and educational materials. Out of the total number of grants that a school receives in an academic year, around 80 percent goes to teacher's salary and only 20 percent to construction and educational material support (Thapa, 2011, p. 25).

E-library is an education-focused digital library containing full-text documents, books, images, videos, audio files, and interactive educational software that can be accessed through an intranet or on the Internet. It was started in Nepal from 2008 with the aims to improve children's' Nepal reading skills and develop a reading culture in schools by giving them free and open access to age-appropriate reading materials and to enable students to do research projects and promote habit of independent inquiry (OLE Nepal, 2015). The Ministry of Education of the Government of Nepal is beginning to show an interest in enhancing the quality of education in Nepali schools through the use of Information and Communication technology. The vision is to provide an e-library in every high school in Nepal. About one million US dollars have been allocated for the current fiscal year to start a pilot programme(Naresh & Paul, 2011, pp. 7-8).

Nepal's National Planning Commission Three Year Interim Plan (2007/8-2009/10) includes the following statement: 'Libraries will gradually be established in community schools. Programs will be implemented to encourage local bodies and organizations to open and run libraries in different educational institutes in the backward regions.' This is a step in the right direction, but much robust action is required. Sadly, there is little evidence to show that even this programme has been implemented (Naresh & Paul, 2011, pp. 7-8).

Computer Laboratory; the school has large well-equipped computer labs for the use of junior and senior students set up by highly qualified professionals. The computer courses have been made compulsory for students of classes III to secondary level. It is powered by Pentium, multimedia, the necessary hardware and software, to reinforce the students' abilities with required computing knowledge and skills.

Educational facilities are those things that enable the teacher to take out their work well and also help the students to learn easily. Educational facilities are vital tools in the teaching and learning process, therefore adequate provision, management and implementation these facilities (Lawanson & Gede, 2011, p. 50).

Library is a counterpart of a school physical infrastructure. It plays a vital role in the learning process of the school. The library is an essential component of a good school (Deepak Raj & Tapash, 2013). The library room should be located in such a place where students are not getting disturbed by noise (GoN, 2010).It is a useful means of storing communicable knowledge and nobody can do much without it. A library is a repository of books and should have textbooks, workbooks, reference books, fiction, and non-fiction books at various reading levels, reference books oil special topics and interests and related pamphlets, clippings, pictures, maps, charts, periodicals, etc. are placed in proper shelf (Tribhuvan University, 2002).

Laboratory is an essential part of a school. This is the place where experiments are performed and hypothesis are tested and verified. At +2 stages, a school needs biology, physics, chemistry, a computer laboratory (OECD , 2013c, p. 5). Mere knowledge would not be sufficient for building the required competence in specific content area. If theory is supported by practices, clarity could be maintained as well as psychomotor skills could be developed (OECD , 2013b).

The most fundamental problem in facilities provision is lack of policy guidelines for infrastructural development in schools. In some schools, there are inadequate classrooms, staff offices, laboratories and workshops, libraries, study areas while in some, these facilities are adequately provided. This situation arises as the Nepal Governments have failed to establish policy directives on minimum standards in relation to educational facilities (Timsina, 2008). While some classes hold under trees and students are exposed to harsh weather conditions, others hold in air conditioned classrooms. While some others have well equipped laboratories, workshops, libraries and other facilities for effective teaching and learning, others have none, and where they exist, such facilities are poorly equipped. It therefore becomes imperative that the different levels of government should address the issue of development and implementation of minimum standards for facilities development and management.

This study focuses on to examine the differences between community and institutional school's infrastructure by using researcher's observation about the facilities arranged by the school. So, data were collected from the schools to measure the condition of school infrastructure and students' achievement. On the basis of observation checklist survey conducted in June 2014, the situation of existing essential and basic school infrastructure availability and management. The main objective of this study was to analyse the role of schools infrastructure on students' achievement of community and institutional schools of central development regions of Nepal. This study was limited on researcher observational analysis regarding essential infrastructure and technology (School building, computer laboratory, science laboratory, library and e-library) in secondary and higher secondary school and their students' two subjects' achievement test means score of central development region of Nepal.

Management of Educational Facilities

Specific educational facilities requirement of community and institution schools in terms of type quantity and quality needs to be properly assessed to provide the operational guide for facilities provision. A comprehensive diagnostic inventory survey of the existing stock of educational facilities in the community or institution should be done. This will provide the educational map or the distributional network of the existing educational facilities needed in the development of the facilities master plan. The government should make sure that all the educational facilities such as educational, game facilities, school building and general-purpose facilities should be provided (Lawanson & Gede, 2011).

Educational facilities management is a systematic process of rationalizing the provision, use and maintenance of these facilities within an educational institution to ensure their optimal utilization and achievement of educational objectives both in the immediate and in the future given the available resources. In other words, it a process that involves rationally: Determining which facilities are required to achieve school goals; Providing such facilities most advantageously in terms of resource use, Monitoring to ensure optimal use of educational facilities so provided, Maintaining the facilities regularly to ensure their longevity and Reviewing the provision of these facilities to ensure that it continues to meet both the changing educational needs in the advantageous manner The activities that come under the umbrella of educational facilities management or educational facilities planning and administration are sequentially linked. Consequently, these activities will be recognized as stages in a chain of activities (Laboratories, 1955; Asiabaka, 2008 and Lawanson & Gede, 2011). The following are stages in sequential order: 1) recognition of learning needs, 2) list of evaluation, 3) facilities utilization analysis, 4) establishment of educational facilities master plan, 5) site selection and acquisition, 6)

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preparation of educational specifications and educational project design (Lawanson & Gede, 2011, pp. 50-53).

Theoretical Prospective

According to CarolCash, 1993, the Cash model, shown in Figure 1 below; the condition of the school's educational facilities is indirectly related to student achievement because of its effect on the attitudes of students. Well-maintained school educational facilities will send a message to management that education is important. Conversely, poorly maintained school educational facilities will send the message that education is not important and a negative attitude will be passed on to the students (Linda Lemasters , 1997), (Lanham's ,1999) and (Al-Enezi , 2002);(O'Sullivan, 2006).

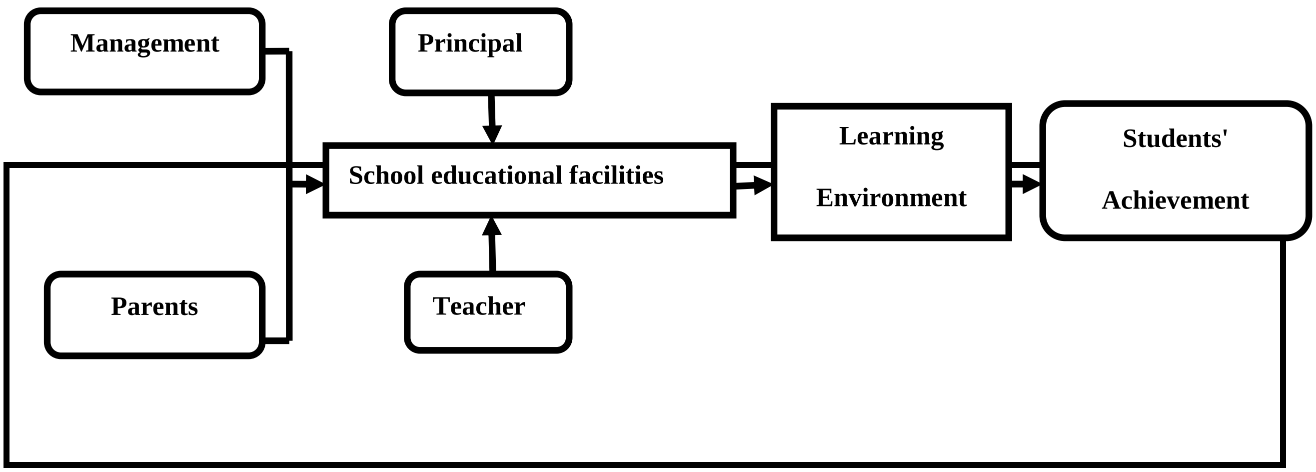

Figure: 1 Role of school educational facilities

Impact of Physical Facilities on Student's Achievement

According to Lyons (2002), learning is a complex activity that puts students' motivation and physical condition to the test. It has been a long-held assumption that curriculum and teaching are the only major parameters that have an impact on learning. However, it is becoming more apparent that the physical conditions in schools indeed influence student achievement. Pearls (2008) observe that design features and components of school buildings have been proven to have a measurable influence upon student learning. Among the influential features and components are those impacting temperature, lighting, acoustics and age. Researchers have found a negative impact upon student performance in buildings where deficiencies in any of these features exist. In addition, overcrowded school buildings and classrooms have been found to be a negative influence upon the students' performance. Particular building feature such as air conditioning, lighting, or presence of windows to serve as variables with which to compare students' achievement. The overall impact of a school building on students can be either positive or negative, depending upon the condition of the building. In cases where students attend school in substandard buildings they are handicapped in their academic achievement. Correlation studies show a strong positive relationship between overall building conditions and student achievement. Studies by Pearls (2008) regarding the number of students in schools as compared with its capacity found out that overcrowded conditions have a negative influence upon students and teachers.

In summary, the reviewed study indicates the impact of use of instructional materials and resource utilization on student achievement. While there is abundant research on impact of these parameters in education, there is none with samples that include Central Nepal. Understanding the impact of instructional materials in education is important for all education stakeholders in this development region in order to provide appropriate resources for effective and improved academic achievement. Central Nepal has not had any documented assessments of principals and teachers perception of resource utilization in education. The proposition examined in this study was that at least part of the explanation for the link between school resource utilization, quality and education outcomes is the mediating influence of instructional facilities.

Method

Descriptive and analytical research design was used and cross-sectional data were collected to analyse comparison between status of the schools ' infrastructure management and students' achievement test result of community and institutional schools' of Central Nepal. This study was related to researcher observation analysis. So, only observation tool was used for the research.

The research was done on the basis of multi-stage sampling method. The targeted area of the study was Nepal, where the research was accomplished. In the first stage cluster, random sampling method was used, where the field i.e. Nepal was divided into five development regions. One of them was Central Development Region (CDR) was taken as a single cluster.

In second stage, the single cluster is divided into four sub-clusters (Mountain, Hill, Valley and Terai) on the basis of ecological belt. Furthermore, five districts were selected as a study area among nineteen cluster i.e. nineteen districts of four ecological belts.

In third stage, the proportionate stratified random sampling method was used to select target schools from both urban and rural areas': community and institutional in secondary and higher secondary schools' of five districts. So, the secondary and higher secondary schools were taken as universe. The sample size was taken as proportionately among number of 3125 (1893 Secondary and 1232 higher secondary schools) (GoN, 2012, p. 79). The selected districts were Sindhupalchok, Kavre, Makwanpur, Kathmandu and Chitawan and 32 (1.02 percent) schools were taken from total universe by using proportionate stratified random sampling.

Instrumentation, Data Collection and Analysis

Observation check list and rating scale for informal discussion with principal were used as data collection tools. Observation check list and rating scale were developed by researcher. It consisted of five questions along with some educational facilities information required to be filled in by the respondents. Among these questions, four were in the form of checklist; mostly having answers liked scale the researcher was fill-up suitable information which is chick list show.

The subject matters were about school educational facilities; library, e-library, science laboratory, computer laboratory and students achievement test. The reliability and validity of the instrument was maintained by seeking opinion of the subject experts, pilot study, and Cronbach's Alpha test. The value of data Cronbach's Alpha is .085 within 36 indicators. Analysis of data was done by using the SPSS 20. Frequency table, cross tabulation, Chi-square test were applied to analyse the data.

Result and Discussion

This chapter presents research findings, researcher interpretation and discussion. In this study, 32 schools were taken as sample for analysis of availability of instructional facility and students' achievement. Schools were chosen from four ecological regions; among them: 3(9.4 percent) schools from mountain region, 9(28.1 percent) schools from hill, 13(40.6 percent) from schools from valley and 7(21.9 percent) schools from Terai. The study investigated the role of educational facilities availability and utilization in instructional programmes in secondary and higher secondary schools. Analysis of subject matters in checklist form, two types of issues were included. One type was ‘checklist’ having answers in; 'Not available, Very Unsatisfactory, Unsatisfactory, Satisfactory, and Very Satisfactory' and the other was ‘check list with grouping form’.

The research looked at factors such as;

- The adequacy of reference book in library in community and institutional schools in Central Nepal.
- The sufficiency of e-library and their utilization in community and institutional schools in Central Nepal.
- The availability of computer in computer laboratory and the extent of their utilization in community and institutional schools in Central Nepal.
- The adequacy of science laboratory and their utilization in community and institutional schools in Central Nepal.
- Level of ability in two subjects (computer and science) of students' in community and institutional schools in Central Nepal.

The research findings are presented using descriptive statistics.

Researcher observation data have been collected to analyze comparison between availability of instructional facility and students' achievement test of community and institutional School of Nepal which was on the basis of observation check list survey conducted in June 2014and discussed as follows:

Table: 1 Condition of library

Condition of library		**Types of schools***		**Ecological region****				**Total**	Cumulative Percent
		Community	Institutional	Mountain	Hill	Valley	Terai		
Not available	Count	4	4	1	4	2	1	8	25.0
	Total %	12.5	12.5	3.1	12.5	6.2	3.1	25.0	
Very Unsatisfactory[1]	Count	4	4	1	0	6	1	8	50.0
	Total %	12.5	12.5	3.1	0.0	18.8	3.1	25.0	
Unsatisfactory[2]	Count	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	53.1
	Total %	0.0	3.1	0.0	0.0	3.1	0.0	3.1	
Satisfactory[3]	Count	4	1	1	1	1	2	5	68.8
	Total %	12.5	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	6.2	15.6	
Very Satisfactory[4]	Count	4	6	0	4	3	3	10	100.0
	Total %	12.5	18.8	0.0	12.5	9.4	9.4	31.2	
Total	Count	16	16	3	9	13	7	32	100.0
	Total %	50.0	50.0	9.4	28.1	40.6	21.9	100.0	

Sources: Field survey, June 2014

**No significant association P= 0.525 (2-sided), **No significant association P= 0.391(2-sided)*

Above table 1 explores the status of school library with respect to school locality i.e. mountain, hill, valley and Terai. It is evident from the chi-square results that there is no significant difference among ecological regionsand types of schools with respect to availability of library facility sufficiency. Against all variables no significant difference were found. School must have provision of appropriate library facilities and sufficiency books and references books (GoN, 2010). But data shows that more than 50 percent schools' library facility is very poor condition.

[1]Facility is available butfewer than 1500 books are available and library room is not properly managed.

[2]Facility is available but 1501 to 2000 books are available and library room is not properly managed.
[3]Facility is available and 2001 to 2500 books are available and library room is properly managed.
[4]More than 2500 books are available and library room is properly managed.

Table: 2 Condition of e-library

Availability of e-library		Types of schools*		Ecological region**				Total	Cumulative Percent
		Community	Institutional	Mountain	Hill	Valley	Terai		
Not available	Count	13	7	2	5	8	5	20	62.5
	Total %	40.6	21.9	6.2	15.6	25.0	15.6	62.5	
Very Unsatisfactory[5]	Count	2	1	1	1	1	0	3	71.9
	Total %	6.2	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	0.0	9.4	
Unsatisfactory[6]	Count	0	2	0	0	1	1	2	78.1
	Total %	0.0	6.2	0.0	0.0	3.1	3.1	6.2	
Satisfactory[7]	Count	1	5	0	3	2	1	6	96.9
	Total %	3.1	15.6	0.0	9.4	6.2	3.1	18.8	
Very Satisfactory[8]	Count	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	100.0
	Total %	0.0	3.1	0.0	0.0	3.1	0.0	3.1	
Total	Count	16	16	3	9	13	7	32	100.0
	Total %	50.0	50.0	9.4	28.1	40.6	21.9	100.0	

Sources: Field survey, June 2014

**No significant association P= 0.099 (2-sided), **No significant association P= 0.827 (2-sided)*

The above table shows that no signification associationhas been found between community and institutional schools and ecological wise schools. The data show that more than 70 percent schools' e-library facility availability is very poor condition and more than 40 community schools have not available modern educational facilities i.e. e-library. The learning environment in school is considered to be primary factor for enhancing the effectiveness of modern technology aspect (Daggett, 2008). In the same manner, the provision of educational material also helps the teachers to make the students learn the specific objectives of the course book (GoN, 2010). Information communication technology also include among others soft ware's (OECD , 2013c). The application of the software requires that the school principal should be exposed to necessary in-service training to enable them make maximum use of the software(Asiabaka, The Need for Effective Facility Management in Schools in Nigeria, 2008). Modern educational equipment shall be provided to each class as required (MOLJI, 2009).

Table: 3 Condition of science laboratory

[5] E-library is available but not properly managed and students are not extent of their utilization.
[6] E-library is available but students are not extent of their utilization.
[7] E-library is available and properly managed this.
[8] E-library is properly managed and students and teachers are extent of their utilization.

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Condition of Science laboratory		**Types of schools***		**Ecological region****				**Total**	Cumulative Percent
		Community	Institutional	Mountain	Hill	Valley	Terai		
Not available	Count	3	5	0	3	4	1	8	25.0
	% of Total	9.4	15.6	0.0	9.4	12.5	3.1	25.0	
Minimum requirement[9]	Count	10	6	2	3	7	4	16	75.0
	% of Total	31.2	18.8	6.2	9.4	21.9	12.5	50.0	
Maximum requirement[10]	Count	3	5	1	3	2	2	8	100.0
	% of Total	9.4	15.6	3.1	9.4	6.2	6.2	25.0	
Total	Count	16	16	3	9	13	7	32	100.0
	% of Total	50.0	50.0	9.4	28.1	40.6	21.9	100.0	

Sources: Field survey, June 2014

**No significant association P= 0.368 (2-sided), **No significant association P= 0.794 (2-sided)*

Above table examines the relationship between researcher's evaluations of the educational facilities (Availability and condition of science laboratory) of selected schools. The data shows that more than 75 percent schools' sciences laboratory availability is poor condition and more than 25 percent schools have not available science laboratory. The result of this research shows around 75 percent of Nepalese schools' qualities of educational facilities are still unsatisfactory (Thapa, 2011). Similarly it can be generalized to Nepal as a whole.

Table: 4 Availability of computer in computer laboratory

Available of computers in computer lab		**Types of schools***		**Ecological region****				**Total**	Cumulative Percent
		Community	Institutional	Mountain	Hill	Valley	Terai		
Not available	Count	2	1	0	1	1	1	3	9.4
	Total %	6.2	3.1	0.0	3.1	3.1	3.1	9.4	
Less than 5	Count	2	2	0	1	2	1	4	21.9
	Total %	6.2	6.2	0.0	3.1	6.2	3.1	12.5	
6 to 10	Count	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	25.0
	Total %	0.0	3.1	0.0	0.0	3.1	0.0	3.1	

[9] *One combine science lab; all types of physics, chemistry and biology equipments are managed in the same room.*

[10] *Three sseparate science lab;The physics lab is equipped by optical, electrical; thermo dynamical, mechanical instruments, The chemistry lab is equipped with different types of solutions, salts and components and Biology lab is equipped by slides, microscopes, skeletons and different specimens.*

11 to 15	Count	1	3	1	1	2	0	4	37.5
	Total %	3.1	9.4	3.1	3.1	6.2	0.0	12.5	
16 to 20	Count	6	0	0	3	2	1	6	56.3
	Total %	18.8	0.0	0.0	9.4	6.2	3.1	18.8	
More than 21	Count	5	9	2	3	5	4	14	100.0
	Total %	15.6	28.1	6.2	9.4	15.6	12.5	43.8	
Total	Count	16	16	3	9	13	7	32	100.0
	Total %	50.0	50.0	9.4	28.1	40.6	21.9	100.0	

Sources: Field survey, June 2014

**No significant association P= 0.092 (2-sided), **No significant association P= 0.952 (2-sided)*

The above table shows that there no signification association has been found between community and institutional schools and ecological wise schools' available of computers in computer lab. The data show that more than 75 percent schools' available of computers in computer lab is good condition and only 6.2 percent community schools and 3.1 percent institutional schools have not available computer lab.Most of the public schools they are left behind in terms of use of modern educational equipment such as use of computers as compared to private schools (Bhatta, 2005). Private schools spend much more on students' education besides other expenditures made on infrastructure and physical facilities as compared to public schools (Thapa, 2011). The study argues that private schools have managed such facilities better than those of public schools (SMAERC, 2008).

Table: 5 Achievement test min score

Achievement test result percent		**Types of schools***		**Ecological region****				**Total**	Cumulative Percent
		Community	Institutional	Mountain	Hill	Valley	Terai		
31 to 35	Count	2	0	0	1	0	1	2	6.3
	Total %	6.2	0.0	0.0	3.1	0.0	3.1	6.2	
36 to 40	Count	5	0	0	1	0	4	5	21.9
	Total %	15.6	0.0	0.0	3.1	0.0	12.5	15.6	
41 to 45	Count	7	0	2	4	1	0	7	43.8
	Total %	21.9	0.0	6.2	12.5	3.1	0.0	21.9	
46 to 50	Count	2	5	1	1	4	1	7	65.6
	Total %	6.2	15.6	3.1	3.1	12.5	3.1	21.9	
51 to 55	Count	0	11	0	2	8	1	11	100.0
	Total %	0.0	34.4	0.0	6.2	25.0	3.1	34.4	
Total	Count	16	16	3	9	13	7	32	
	Total %	50.0	50.0	9.4	28.1	40.6	21.9	100.0	

Sources: Field survey, June 2014

**Significant association P=0.000(2-sided), ** Significant association P=0.010 (2-sided)*

The above table shows that a significant associationhas been found between community and institutional and ecological wise schools students' achievement test min score. According to students' achievement in above table, wide range of students' from institutional school has got good result in comparison to the community based school. More than 40 percentage of community based school's students got below 45 marks achievement average score. Private schools' performances are still unsatisfactory (Thapa, 2011). Similarly it can be generalized to Nepal as a whole. Public schools are regularly suffering from low achievement, poor infrastructure and facilities and weak management and regulation. Studies have shown that in terms of students' cognitive development, public schools in Nepal have struggled to add value (Caddell, 2006; Carney, 2003). Governments' educational plans have continuously failed. Community schools are suffering from insufficient; admission, participation, retention of students, and educational quality (Carney,2003).

Conclusion

Following conclusion was sketched on the basic of above data:

- School's educational facilities give meaning to the teaching and learning process.
- School's management of educational facilities is an integral part of the overall management of the school.
- School's principal should carry out comprehensive assessment of the facilities to determine areas of their need.
- It requires an integrated effort of all stakeholders who possess the expertise needed for accurate and up-to-date assessment of all aspects of instructional facilities.
- The actualization of the goals and objectives of education require the available, most utilization and proper management of the facilities.
- Furthermore, advances in science and technology, require that the school management should adopt modern educational facilities management.
- Facilities provision and management will improve the quality of teaching and learning.

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Model of Entrepreneurial Success: A Review and Research Agenda

Maheshwar Prasad Yadav[1]

[1]PhD Scholar, Mewar University, Rajasthan, India
mpyadav2006@gmail.com

Abstract

The aim of this paper is to review the entrepreneurial models in order to identify most widespread factors of entrepreneurial success. This study comprises descriptive cum analytical research design. Nine models of entrepreneurial success were reviewed that led to three important findings. The first one is the both micro and macro factors, i.e., individual and environment contexts are necessary to build a comprehensive model of entrepreneurial success. The second is all three types of social, financial and human capital are essential to build a complete model that can explain entrepreneurial success in a better way. The third is the opportunity, environment and resources played the strong role; entrepreneur, innovation, management skills, organization and personal motivation played the moderate role while the weak role-played by the other factors as a whole. Based on the results, the study concludes that the recent research agenda of entrepreneurial success are: Do these factors play vital role for entrepreneurial success in the context of developing country like Nepal? Do entrepreneurs equipped with higher financial capital, social capital, and human capital more likely to be successful? What financial capital, social capital, and human capital matters for entrepreneurial success? How do financial, social, and human resources used by entrepreneurs behave and interact?

Keywords: Entrepreneurial Success, Model, Research Agenda, Review.

Introduction

An entrepreneur assembles, coordinates and directs various factors of production namely land, labour, capital and other materials. Entrepreneur is one who does things differently. Entrepreneur is a decision maker, coordinator, innovator, creative destructor, social leader, information synthesizer, and risk taker (Bhole, 2007, p. 58). The entrepreneur combines various inputs in an innovative manner to generate value to the customer with the hope that this value will exceed the cost of inputs. Entrepreneurs are considered to be the change agents in the socio-economic development of any country (Bhargava, 2007, p. 31). An entrepreneur is neither a scientific innovator nor salaried manger, who is assumed to be an opportunity seeker (Aryal, 1994, p. 36). The word entrepreneur entered economic theory more than two centuries ago when a French banker, Cantillon, used this word to signify an undertaker of business (Dayal, 2007, p. 34). Entrepreneurs are individuals or group of individuals who invest capital, organize and direct business and industrial units. Moreover, an entrepreneur is one who combines the land of one, the labour of others and the capital of yet another, and, thus produces a product (Khanka, 2010, p. 2). An entrepreneur could be a trader, a technician, an educated unemployed or the like. The major theme to all of them is the desire for breaking away from traditional ways of doing things.

Furthermore, entrepreneurs must be jacks-of-all-trades who need not excel in any one skill but are competent in many (Lazear, 2005, p. 649). The primary implication is that individuals with balanced skills are more likely than others to become entrepreneurs. Those who have varied work and educational backgrounds are much more likely to start their own businesses than those who have focused on one role at work or concentrated in one subject at school.

Entrepreneurship is the dynamic process of creating incremental wealth. Entrepreneurship is "a process of identifying, evaluating, seizing an opportunity and bringing together the resources necessary for success". Entrepreneurship is a dynamic process of vision, change, and creation. Entrepreneurship is the recognition and pursuit of opportunity without regard to the resources you currently control, with confidence that you can succeed, with the flexibility to change course as necessary, and with the will to rebound from setbacks (Thapa, Thulaseedharan, Joshi, & Goswami, 2008). It is also known as the art of finding profitable solutions to the problems.

Furthermore, entrepreneurship, in broader sense, is based on sociological, psychological and management perspectives (Rajput, 2011). In sociological prospective, entrepreneurship is related with a particular social culture. While it flourishes in a society which has greater number of people with psychological characteristics, that is, need for accomplishment, vision, ability to face rejections and oppositions in psychological prospective. Management prospective of entrepreneurship divides entrepreneurship into individual and environment contexts. This perspective is best argued by Kuratko & Hodgetts (2002)who stated that the individual prospective is referred to as micro factors and environment context is referred to as macro factors of entrepreneurship or entrepreneurial success. Entrepreneurship is a way of thinking that emphasizes opportunities over threats (Krueger, Reilly, & Carsrud, 2000).Entrepreneurship is the breaking away from traditional ways of doing things.

The importance of human capital as a key determinant of entrepreneurial success, and propensity to pursue entrepreneurial activities, has become a topic very much debated in the literature ((Bates, 1990); (Schoar, 2009)).Experience is also important in determining success. Entrepreneurial family background impacts upon the development of social and human capital resources and affect the profitability and growth of new enterprise (Anderson & Miller, 2003, p. 17). Entrepreneurs from higher socio-economic groupings had high endowments of human capital. Significantly, their businesses were characterized by greater profitability and growth potential. Investments in human and social capital enhance entrepreneurial performance substantially (Bosma N. , Praag, Thurik, & Wit, 2002, p. 9). Likewise, almost every firm needs a substantial financial input. The financial resources of the starting entrepreneur are therefore important (Bosma, Praag, & Wit, 2000, p. 20). In order to have success as an entrepreneur, the importance of communicating with relations seems to be growing (Bosma, Praag, & Wit, 2000, p. 21). Having capabilities in this respect can be indicated as owning social capital and also in literature increased attention is paid on the relation between social capital and entrepreneurship.

With the above backdrop, this study aims at reviewing model of entrepreneurial success in order to identify research agenda in the days to come in the context of developing country like Nepal. The present study emphasizes on reviewing the factors used in the models at micro and macro perspectives and social, financial and human capital used in the models of entrepreneurial success to identify most common factors of entrepreneurial success as a whole.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the review of literature while methodology is mentioned in section 3. Section 4 incorporates discussion and results. Section 5 summarizes the results and offers some agenda for future research. Finally, section 6 acknowledges all whose write ups or contributions used in this study.

Model of Entrepreneurial Success

An Indigenous (Indian) model on Entrepreneurial Success

The first model reviewed for this study is of Zafar (1983)who proposed An Indigenous *(Indian) model* on Entrepreneurial Success. This model argues that entrepreneurship development is dependent on entrepreneurial traits (Et), opportunity (Op), skills (Sk), project report (Pr), finance (F), infrastructure (If) and environment (En). Each of these factors is further divided into variables and these variables.

This model is based on the economics and psychology of the entrepreneur and social environment. Despite being very old model but it is built in Indian context and therefore it is relevant to this study. This model lacks some of the fundamental micro factors such as entrepreneurial motivation, vision, strategic planning and innovation and macro factors such as team, entrepreneurial culture and entrepreneurial network.

Timmons Model of the Entrepreneurial Process

The second model is of Timmons (1989)who proposed Timmons Model of the Entrepreneurial Process. The factors of this model are the entrepreneur, the founding team, the opportunity, and the resources. Simply, Timmons model is normative. The key ingredient is the entrepreneur; however the model recognizes the fact that the activity of entrepreneurship is too diverse to be performed by one man and states that three different characteristics required are: the thought man, the man of action and the front man. Further if the entrepreneur has the right team members, then he or she will deliberately search for opportunities and upon finding the right opportunity the entrepreneur seeks the resources to make this opportunity a commercial success. This model is integrated and holistic focuses on the fit and balance among the forces of entrepreneurial success in the individual context of entrepreneurship as well as environment context. Nevertheless, the environment context is not incorporated comprehensively as the local cultural and network factor are not included.

General Model of Entrepreneurial Success

The third model review is of Rauch and Frese (2000) who proposed General Model of Entrepreneurial Success. This model is based on the Giessen-Amsterdam model of entrepreneurial success. This is an interdisciplinary model and is a comprehensive model; however it has controversial implications if the arrows in the model are viewed. However this model focuses on the facts that there is not success without actions and concept of action is central to the model. Well thought strategies and tactics of action are the hurdles through which entrepreneurs has to grow through to be successful. In other words, planning and decision making are the key factors of success and the model assumes that the market is made up of actors who have goals and ideas how to proceed with opportunities.

This model does not consider the effect of environment which contributes to success of the enterprise. Hence, this model focuses more on the individual and less importance is given to environmental context of entrepreneurship.

Wickham Model of Entrepreneurial Performance

The fourth model reviewed is of Wickham (2001), who proposed Wickham Model of Entrepreneurial Performance. According to this model the entrepreneurial performance improves if the entrepreneur has better know-how of the industry in which the firm operates in, management and interpersonal skills and has entrepreneurial motivation to make the firm successful. This model considers administrative and interpersonal skills as key factors of improvement of the entrepreneurial performance and ignores the commonly discussed attributes of entrepreneur: innovation, entrepreneurial mindset and etc. However, the entrepreneurial motivation is considered. Hence, this model does not include micro factors comprehensively. Similarly, from macro factors perspective, the model includes only one macro factor. Therefore, this model is not a comprehensive model to be used as benchmark to develop the best model for entrepreneurial success.

The Entrepreneurial Capital Model

The fifth model reviewed is of Erikoson (2002)who proposed the Entrepreneurial Capital Model and this model argues that performance of an entrepreneurial venture is linked to entrepreneurial competence, commitment and motivation. The competence is referred to the ability of the entrepreneur to identify and select the right opportunity and level of commitment entrepreneur shows toward the venture. The model also argues that level of entrepreneurial motivation is also important for the healthy performance of the venture. In other words, key success factors are based on the individual context and environment context is not taken into consideration.

Hisrich and Peters Model of Entrepreneurial Process

The sixth model reviewed is of Hisrich and Peters (2002) who proposed Model of Entrepreneurial Process (Rajput, 2011). It is an interdisciplinary model, as it takes into consideration most area that has been studied in entrepreneurship research and considers the personal, sociological and environmental factors. Further each factor is represented by relevant variables. The model has four stages: innovation, triggering event, implementation and growth. Each stage requires certain inputs and variables and some of the variable are required at more than one stages. However, this model clearly has some controversial implications if one looks at interactions of the entrepreneurial factors. For example, commitment is not just needed at the triggering event state but it is required at all stages.

An Integrative Model of Entrepreneurship

The seventh model reviewed is the very famous model of ***Morris et al. (2005)*** and it is called An Integrative Model of Entrepreneurship (Rajput, 2011). This is based on the concept that entrepreneurship is a result of interactions among a number of factors: process, entrepreneur, environment, business concept, resources and organizational context. This model uses a layer approach to explain each factor. The first layer identifies six critical factors of entrepreneurship and each factor represents a collectivity exhaustive set of factors which are important for the occurrence of an entrepreneurial event.

This model is comprehensive but it has limited depth. For example, the factor of entrepreneur is not fully explored and it is just included in the model. In other words, this model is exactly opposite to the Timmons model of the Entrepreneurial Process- entrepreneur dominance.

The Conceptual Model of Entrepreneurial Success

The eight model reviewed is of Kumar (2007) who proposed the Conceptual Model of EntrepreneurialSuccess. Thismodel is based on Bilijan (2002) position explaining entrepreneurial success that would require three phenomena: willingness to start enterprise, identifying opportunities and success of the enterprise.The willingness is to start an enterprise is determined by the pulls and pushes that an individual face. The push factors are: job dissatisfaction, job loss, unemployment, career setbacks, saturation in the existing market, language, immigrant status, deprivation, low family income and lack of flexibility in the previous job. Pull is based on the amount of opportunities which surrounds the entrepreneur. Identification of an opportunity is attributed to the creativity of a person to identify the right opportunity. Creation of an enterprise is referred the intelligence to keep the business afloat and it is combination of practical, analytical and creative intelligence. The model is based on psychological and sociological theories as it assumes that information creation and management along with emotions are the heart of entrepreneurial decision-making.

This model is more focused on the individual context of entrepreneurship less importance is given to the environmental context. Further this model is relatively new and it is conceptually proposed and yet to be empirically tested. However, this model provides a fresh perspective. It claims novelty because it includes some factors which have not been previously included.

Rajput Model for Entrepreneurial Success

The ninth model reviewed is of Rajput (2011)who proposed a Model for Entrepreneurial Success. Rajput model of entrepreneurial success is given in equation 1.

SUC = f (ENT, INN, CAE, RES, NET, OPP) … (1)

Where,

SUC = Entrepreneurial Success of Pakistan SMEs

ENT = Entrepreneur

INN = Innovation

CAE = Culture and Environment

RES = Resources

NET = Networking

OPP = Opportunity

This study was conducted with a sample size of 257-successful commercial fast-food entrepreneurs. The results show that essentially four factors namely culture and environment, resources, innovation and opportunity are the major for the profitability and business success in the sector. The innovation factor turns out to be the most important factor, hence, the study concludes that entrepreneurial success is highly influenced by innovative behaviour of the entrepreneurs but being opportunistic, a suitable culture and environment and sufficient resources are also needed for the success of a commercial fast-food SMEs.

Besides, researchers agree that entrepreneurial success is attributed to personal characteristics and managerial characteristics. Personal factors (micro factors) of entrepreneurs are creativity and innovation, risk taking orientation, leadership, good human relations, positive attitude, perseverance and commitment. Managerial success factors (macro factors) are planning, knowledge of competitors, mainly market orientated, client service, high quality, financial insight and management, knowledge and skills and use of experts (Page & Noel, 2001). Furthermore entrepreneurship is regional, temporal and strategic phenomenon which alters according to its operating environment could not be replicated across countries ((Acs, Audretsch, Braunerhjelm, & Carlsson, 2004); (Sadler, 2008)).Thus, the entrepreneurial success is based on both micro and macro factors.

Resource-Based Entrepreneurship Theories

The Resource-based theory of entrepreneurship argues that access to resources by founders is an important predictor of opportunity based entrepreneurship and new venture growth (Aldrich & Martinez, 2001).This theory stresses the importance of financial, social and human resources. Access to resources enhances the individual's ability to detect and act upon discovered opportunities (Davidsson & Honig, 2003).Financial, social and human capitals are vital for entrepreneurship development.

Empirical research has showed that the founding of new firms is more common when people have access to financial capital ((Blanchflower, Oswald, & Stutzer, 2001); (Evans & Jovanovic, 1989); (Holtz-Eakin, Joulfaian, & Rosen, 1994)). By implication this theory suggests that people with financial capital are more able to acquire resources to effectively exploit entrepreneurial opportunities, and set up a firm to do so.

However, other studies contrast this theory as it is demonstrated that most founders start new ventures without much capital, and that financial capital is not significantly related to the probability of being nascent entrepreneurs((Kim, Aldrich, & Keister, 2003); (Hurst & Lusardi, 2004); (Davidsson & Honig, 2003)). This apparent confusion is due to the fact that the line of research connected to the theory of liquidity constraints generally aims to resolve whether a founder's access to capital is determined by the amount of capital employed to start a new venture (Clausen, 2006). This does not necessarily rule out the possibility of starting a firm without much capital. The founders' access to capital is an important predictor of new venture growth but not necessarily important for the founding of a new venture.

Entrepreneurs are embedded in a larger social network structure that constitutes a significant proportion of their opportunity structure (Clausen, 2006). In a similar vein, the literature on this theory shows that stronger social ties to resource providers facilitate the acquisition of resources and enhance the probability of opportunity exploitation (Aldrich & Zimmer, 1986).Other researchers have suggested that it is important for nascent founders to have access to entrepreneurs in their social network, the competence these people have, represents a kind of cultural capital that nascent ventures can draw upon in order to detect opportunities ((Aldrich & Cliff, 2003);(Gartner & Brush, 2007; Gartner, Shaver, Carter, & Reynolds, 2004); (Kim, Aldrich, & Keister, 2003)). Thus, the social capital is important factors of entrepreneurial success.

Likewise, underlying the human capital entrepreneurship theory are two factors, education and experience (Becker, 1975). The knowledge gained from education and experience represents a resource that is heterogeneously distributed across individuals and in effect central to understanding differences in opportunity identification and exploitation [(Anderson & Miller, 2003); (Chandler & Hanks, 1998); (Gartner, Shaver, Carter, &Reynolds, 2004); (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000)].Empirical studies show that human capital factors are positively related to becoming an ascent entrepreneur(Kim, Aldrich, & Keister, 2003); (Davidsson & Honig, 2003); (Korunka, Frank, Lueger, & Mugler, 2003);increase opportunity recognition and even entrepreneurial success ((Anderson & Miller, 2003); (Davidsson & Honig, 2003)). Therefore, human capital is vital factor of entrepreneurial success.

The resource-based entrepreneurship theories synthesizes theoretical insights from Austrian economics, Penrose's (1959) resources approach, and modern resource-based theory, focusing on the essential subjectivity of the entrepreneurial process(Foss, Kiein, Kor, & Mahoney, 2008, p. 73). This new synthesis describes entrepreneurship as a creative team act in which heterogeneous managerial mental models interact to create and arrange resources to produce a collective output that is creatively superior to individual output. This study review nine models of entrepreneurial success to identify most widespread factors of entrepreneurial success taking resource based entrepreneurship theories into account.

Method

This study comprises descriptive cum analytical research design and based on literature review. The literatures on models of entrepreneurial success were collected by literature survey. Nine models of entrepreneurial success have been reviewed to achieve objectives of this study .The list of models of entrepreneurial success selected for the study is given in Table-1.

Table 1: List Models of Entrepreneurial Success Selected for the Study

SN	Model	Author(s)
1	Indian Model of Entrepreneurship	Zafar (1983)
2	Timmons Model of the Entrepreneurial Process	Timmons (1989)
3	General Model of Entrepreneurial Success	Rauch and Frese (2000)
4	Wickham Model of Entrepreneurial Performance	Wickham (2001)
5	The Entrepreneurial Capital Model	Erikoson (2002)
6	Model of Entrepreneurial Process	Hisrich& Peters (2002)
7	The Integrative Model of Entrepreneurship	Morris et al. (2005)

8	The Conceptual Model of Entrepreneurial Success	Kumar (2007)
9	Rajput Model of Entrepreneurial Success	Rajput (2011)

Moreover, the simple statistical techniques of analysis such as table, frequency distribution, percentage and mode were employed in this study. The recent research agenda on entrepreneurial success was determined through analyzing the factors used in the models reviewed at individual and environmental perspectives.

Result and discussion

Entrepreneurship in general is the phenomena to capitalize on identified opportunities or creation of new opportunities through innovation. Terjesen, Hessels, & Li (2013) analyzed 259 articles published in 21 leading journals from 1989 to 2010 found the heterogeneous nature of entrepreneurship across countries and its role, among others, in explaining outcomes at firm (e.g., financial and export performance) and country (e.g., economic growth).

Entrepreneurial success is attributed to personal and managerial characteristics. Thapa, Thulaseedharan, Joshi, & Goswami, (2008) found that among many socio-economic and motivational factors, size of initial investment, number of workers, family business and promising demand of product/services are some of the major determinants of street entrepreneurial success. Lazear (2005) presented that entrepreneurs must be *jacks-of-all-trades* who need not excel in any one skill but are competent in many.

Personal factors (micro factors) of entrepreneurs are creativity and innovation, risk taking orientation, leadership, good human relations, positive attitude, perseverance and commitment. Micro factors focus on individual. Some of micro factors of entrepreneurial success identified in others countries are entrepreneurial values, managerial skills and interpersonal skills. Managerial factors (macro factors) are planning, knowledge of competitors, mainly market orientated client service, high quality, financial insight and management, knowledge and skills and use of experts (Page & Noel, 2001). Macro factors determine overall environment within which enterprise operates. These factors provide opportunities, threats, information affecting all entrepreneurs within the environment.

Chandan &Junejo (2009) listed these factors as socio-demographics, markets, culture, economic, political, legal, productive, technological, infrastructure and other physical factor of particular environment. Furthermore, these factors are beyond control of an entrepreneur. However, Blanchflower & Oswald (1998) stated that consistent with the existence of capital constraints on potential entrepreneurs, the estimates imply that the probability of self-employment depends positively upon whether the individual ever received an inheritance or gift. On the other hand, Roomi (2011) confirms that women entrepreneurs' personal resources and social capital have a significant role in their business growth. Further, it reveals that the moral support of immediate family, independent mobility and being allowed to meet with men play a decisive role in the sales and employment growth of women-owned enterprises in an Islamic country such as Pakistan. Likewise, Thapa, Thulaseedharan, Joshi, & Goswami (2008)also summarized that the entrepreneurs with higher education and experiences have greater chances of success. Human capital that comprises education and experience is important factors f entrepreneurial success. It is similar to human capital theory of entrepreneurship.

Furthermore, the nine most acknowledged models of entrepreneurship were identified the diverse factors for entrepreneurial success. The Indigenous (Indian) M*odel* on Entrepreneurial Success by Zafar (1983) argues that entrepreneurship development is dependent on entrepreneurial traits (Et), opportunity (Op), skills (Sk), project report (Pr), finance (F), infrastructure (If) and environment (En). Likewise, the Model of the Entrepreneurial Process by Timmons (1989) showed the entrepreneur, the founding team, the opportunity, and the resources as that the factors for entrepreneurial success. Cagetti & Nardi (2006) constructs and calibrates a parsimonious model of occupational choice that allows for entrepreneurial entry, exit, and investment decisions in the presence of borrowing constraints. At the aggregate level, more restrictive borrowing constraints generate less wealth concentration and reduce average firm size, aggregate capital, and the fraction of entrepreneurs

Moreover, the General Model of Entrepreneurial Success by Rauch and Frese (2000) comprised that planning and decision making are the key factors of success. Similarly, Wickham Model of Entrepreneurial Performance consisted of better know-how of the industry, management and interpersonal skills and entrepreneurial motivation to make the firm successful.

The Entrepreneurial Capital Model of Erikoson (2002) argues that performance of an entrepreneurial venture is linked to entrepreneurial competence, commitment and motivation. Likewise, Hisrich and Peters (2002) Model of Entrepreneurial Process is an interdisciplinary model. The model showed that entrepreneurship research considers the personal, sociological and environmental factors.

The model by Morris et al. (2005) is An Integrative Model of Entrepreneurship. This is based on the concept that entrepreneurship is a result of interactions among a number of factors: process, entrepreneur, environment, business concept, resources and organizational context. This model uses a layer approach to explain each factor. The first layer identifies six critical factors of entrepreneurship and each factor represents a collectivity exhaustive set of factors which are important for the occurrence of an entrepreneurial event.

The Conceptual Model of Entrepreneurial Success of Kumar (2007) is based on Bilijan (2002) position that entrepreneurial success would require explaining three phenomena: willingness to start enterprise, identifying opportunities and success of the enterprise. The model is based on psychological and sociological theories as it assumes that information creation and management along with emotions are the heart of entrepreneurial decision-making. This model is more focused on the individual context of entrepreneurship less importance is given to the environmental context. Likewise, Rajput(2011) Modelof Entrepreneurial Success showed that essentially four factors namely culture and environment, resources, innovation and opportunity are the major factors of the profitability and business success in the sector.

The models reviewed and discussed show that both types of factors: micro and macro, i.e., individual and environment contexts are important for business success as shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Summary of Factors used in Models of Entrepreneurial Success

SN	Model	Author(s)	Individual Context	Environmental Context
1	Indian Model of Entrepreneurship	Zafar (1983)	Entrepreneurial traits, opportunity, Skills and Project report	Entrepreneurship development, Finance, Infrastructure and Environment
2	Timmons Model of the Entrepreneurial Process	Timmons (1989)	Opportunity and The team	Resources
3	General Model of Entrepreneurial Success	Rauch and Frese (2000)	Personality and Goals	Human Capital, Environment and Strategies
4	Wickham Model of Entrepreneurial Performance	Wickham (2001)	Personal motivation, Management skills and People skills	Industry knowledge
5	The Entrepreneurial Capital Model	Erikoson (2002)	Opportunity, Ability and Motivation	
6	Model of Entrepreneurial Process	Hisrich& Peters (2002)	Innovation, Opportunity, Personal motivation and Management Skills	Business Planning Organization, Environment, and Resources
7	The Integrative Model of Entrepreneurship	Morris et al. (2005)	Entrepreneur, Concept	Organization, Environment and resources, and The process
8	The Conceptual Model of Entrepreneurial Success	Kumar (2007)	Willingness to start enterprise and Opportunity identification	Success of enterprise
9	Rajput Model of	Rajput	Entrepreneur,	Culture & environment,

	Entrepreneurial Success	(2011)	Innovation and Network	Opportunity and Resources

There are nine studies on model of entrepreneurial success reviewed in this study.The models reviewed and discussed show that both types of factors: micro and macro, i.e., individual and environment contexts are necessary to build a comprehensive model. Therefore, it can be argued that neither the micro factors alone nor macro factors can explain entrepreneurial success. Hence, the root cause of success may lie in the combination of different micro and macro factors within which an enterprise operates.

On the other hand, it would be worthwhile to see the factors employed in the models fall in which category of capital among social, financial and human capitals as well as its focus in construction of model of entrepreneurial success. Table 3 shows the classification of factors of entrepreneurial success into social, financial and human capital.

Table 3: Classification of Factors of Entrepreneurial Success into Social, Financial and Human Capital

SN	Model	Author(s)	Social Capital	Financial Capital	Human Capital	Others
1	Indian Model of Entrepreneurship	Zafar (1983)	Entrepreneurship development and Environment	Finance, Infrastructure	Entrepreneurial traits, Skills and project report	Opportunity
2	Timmons Model of the Entrepreneurial Process	Timmons (1989)		Resources	The team	Opportunity
3	General Model of Entrepreneurial Success	Rauch and Frese (2000)	Environment		Human Capital, Personality and Goals	Strategies
4	Wickham Model of Entrepreneurial Performance	Wickham (2001)			Personal motivation, Management skills and People skills, Industry knowledge	
5	The	Erikoson			Ability and	Opportunity

	Entrepreneurial Capital Model	(2002)			Motivation	
6	Model of Entrepreneurial Process	Hisrich& Peters (2002)	Environment	Resources	Personal motivation and Management Skills, Innovation, Business Planning	Opportunity, Organization
7	The Integrative Model of Entrepreneurship	Morris et al. (2005)	Environment	Resources	Entrepreneur, Concept	Organization and The process
8	The Conceptual Model of Entrepreneurial Success	Kumar (2007)			Willingness to start enterprise, Opportunity identification	Success of enterprise
9	Rajput Model of Entrepreneurial Success	Rajput (2011)	Network, Culture, environment,	Resources	Entrepreneur, Innovation	Opportunity

Based on the review and discussion on the models of entrepreneurial success, the models show that all three types of social, financial and human capital along with some other external factors are necessary to build a comprehensive model. However, the models comprise large number of human capital while less number of social and financial capital. It means that these models focus human capital at lager extent while less focused on social and financial capital. Viewed in this perspective, it can be argued that combination of these capitals in a model can explain entrepreneurial success. Hence, the actual root cause of success may lie in the combination of different factors within which an enterprise operates.

Likewise, it is very much sensible to identify most common factors of entrepreneurial success. Based on the review of acclaimed nine models of entrepreneurial success, the most widespread factors of entrepreneurial success are given in Table 4. The widespread factors of entrepreneurial success were identified through frequency distribution of the uses of the factors of these models.

Table 4: Most Widespread Factors of Entrepreneurial Success

SN	Factors of Entrepreneurial Success	Total Frequency	Percentage
1	Opportunity	6	66.67
2	Environment	5	55.56
3	Resources	4	44.44
4	Entrepreneur	2	22.22
5	Innovation	2	22.22
6	Management Skills	2	22.22
7	Organization	2	22.22
8	Personal motivation	2	22.22
9	Ability and Motivation	1	11.11
10	Business Planning	1	11.11
11	Concept	1	11.11
12	Culture	1	11.11
13	Entrepreneurial traits	1	11.11
14	Entrepreneurship development	1	11.11
15	Finance	1	11.11
16	Goals	1	11.11
17	Human Capital	1	11.11
18	Industry knowledge	1	11.11
19	Infrastructure	1	11.11
20	Network	1	11.11
21	People skills	1	11.11
22	Personality	1	11.11
23	Skills and Project report	1	11.11
24	Strategies	1	11.11
25	Success of enterprise	1	11.11
26	The process	1	11.11
27	The team	1	11.11
28	Willingness to start enterprise	1	11.11

The frequency table shows that a most repeated (mode) factor of entrepreneurial success is opportunity. Six out of nine (66.67 percent) models are highlighted its prominent role for entrepreneurial success. Likewise, environment and resource are also important factors of entrepreneurial success. There are 55.56 percent and 44.44 percent of models revealed that environment and resource as vital factors respectively. On the other hand, entrepreneur, innovation, management skills, organization, and personal motivation are moderately important factors of entrepreneurial success. Two out of nine models included these factors as the vital one. The rest 20 factors are less important factors of entrepreneurial success as only 11.11 percent models have included these factors. Thus, the study suggests that the strong role-played by opportunity, environment and resource as well as moderate-role played by entrepreneur, innovation, management skills, organization, and personal motivation while weak role-played by the other factors as a whole.

Conclusion

The results of this paper led to three important findings. First, both the micro and macro factors, i.e., individual and environment contexts are necessary to build a comprehensive model. It means that neither the micro factors alone nor macro factors can explain entrepreneurial success. Second**,** all three types of social, financial and human capital are necessary to build a model that can explain entrepreneurial success in a better way. Finally, the study suggests that the strong role-played by opportunity, environment and resource and moderate-role played by entrepreneur, innovation, managerial skills, organization, and personal motivation while weak role-played by the other factors as a whole. Based on the findings, the study concludes with some pertinent research agendas of entrepreneurial success. Do these factors play vital role for entrepreneurial success in the context of developing country like Nepal? Do entrepreneurs equipped with higher financial capital, social capital, and human capital more likely to be successful? What financial capital, social capital, and human capital matters for entrepreneurial success? How do financial, social, and human resources used by entrepreneurs behave and interact?

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Role of Economic Factors in Promoting Dalit Education

Gopal Lamsal[1] & Prof. Dr. Ram Krishna Maharjan[2]

[1]PhD Scholar, Mewar University, Rajasthan, India
[2]Professor, Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu, Nepal

Corresponding Author
Gopal Lamsal
Email: lamsalg33@yahoo.com

Abstract

The study was conducted to identify the Role of economic factors in promoting Dalit Education. Dalits are socially, educationally, politically and economically backward. Dalits are known as the disadvantage communities who are culturally categorized as the untouchable caste in society. Legally, it is not allowed to do discrimination in spear of social activities on the basis of caste and ethnicity even though it is still in practice. The study was conducted among the 227 Dalit students, 18 guardians and 25 key informant interview group was in-depth interview and discussion in Nawalparasi district of Nepal. Purposive sampling technique was used to select the respondents from the Dalit communities. School enrolled children were participated in this study. Self-reported structured questionnaire was formed in 5 point Likert's scale to collect the perceptual data. Grade wise, mainly grade 5-10 students at least sometimes felt the problem of tiffin money, problem to manage the expenditure of their school's stationeries, problem of one uniform, feeling of sadness when they had no shoes like other friends, feeling of stress when they could not pay the school's fee and problem of one uniform. In all these issues there was highly significant association (p = .000) found on perception of different grade Dalit students. From the discussion, it was found that the Role of economic factors in promoting Dalit Education.

Keywords: Dalit, Education, Role, economic, factor, promote

Introduction

Education is something which must to be brought within the reach of everyone. 'The object of primary education is to see that every child that enters the gateways of a primary school does permission it only at a stage when it becomes literate and continues to be literate throughout the rest of his life.'**-B. R. Ambedkar.**

Therefore, education can be considered as the instruments that can bring the social change and economic transformation in the country. It leads the country in the path of development. Similarly, it plays the decisive role in the overall process of development like social advancement and economic betterment. UDHR has declared the education is not only national but also international birth right of every child. Nepal has also signatures in that acts but in practice, there is no accessibility, availability and freedom in education in Nepal. The overall literacy of the country is 65.9 percent to male 75.1 percent and female 57.4 the highest literacy rate reported Kathmandu district 86.3 percent and lowest in Rautahat 41.7 percent (CBS, 2014).

The current policy (focuses on education) is not only based on education but also- the adherence to the "child's right to develop its personality, talents, physical and mental abilities to its fullest potential" (Chr&Gj, Feb-23, 2009) article- 29. Education is also generally considered as a key factor. In reducing poverty and child labour and in promoting new democracy, peace, tolerance and development (UNICEF) both approaches largely draw their attention away from the approaches of parents and children themselves. Efforts have been directed instead towards sensitizing uneducated masses of their "Rights to education." and "The importance of education" yet not much is known about how exactly uneducated people perceive education as a tool for their own family's subsistence or advancement. What future expectations and aspirations do parents have for their children?

Nepal has many characteristic features. Among them, the researcher focuses on the backward poor community as treated untouchable Dalit's Community, Nepal's religious and cultural value which bears high and low caste. Even though uneducated community it is also burning issues until today. Education plays a crucial role to develop their languages, dialects, literatures, arts, scripts, religion etc. The educated people can maintain and sustain the cultural diversities and national unity so empowering indigenous communities providing education, health, employment opportunities, organized public education in Nepal has completed all most five decade several experiment have been done. (Harbinson & Myers, 1964) Say "education opens the door of development in all fields**".** They develop the indicators of human capital and compare these with economic development & predictability by choosing different indicator products different result but the overall correlation between greater human capitals & greater level of economic rebutted. In economics the more we invest the more we get in return. By using that philosophy, most of Government, NGOs and INGOs were provided many opportunities for the empowerment of Dalit's fifty years ago but all the efforts are almost useless (Koirala B. , 1996). Thus, the researcher wants to seek as to what types of education can empower the Dalit community. Education should be vocational, employ generating, practical, behavioural, earning activities of behaviours change that broke the remaining vicious circle of inequality. It is essentially formal, non-formal and informal education and trainings are needed which help not only the youth but also an adult group of ethnic and Dalit community.

The present research proposal wants to focus on the impact of education in empowering among the group of people in Nepal. Who are for centuries have been treated untouchable caste- (Chhuna nahune tatha paninachalne Jat) other people whom so-called high caste can't touch or can't take food from them and uses of the term "Dalit". The word "Dalit" is derived from the

Sanskrit literature and used in political and social scientists in Nepal to identify the category of a group who are socially, culturally, economically, religiously oppressed (Koirala B. , 1996). The word Nepali Dalit as similar as the word scheduled caste. The Indian and British governments used the term-scheduled caste for the first time in 1935 (Commission, 1927). In India Harijan (The child of God) is the same so-called untouchable lower caste but in Nepal the word Dalit is widely used in a society to society. In Nepal national Legal code of 1854, the Muluki Ain formulated on the basis of Hindu orthodoxy included five hierarchical categories. They are Tagadhari, Matyali, Alcohol drinkers, impure but touchable and next is untouchable caste (Barr, Durston, Jenkins, Onoda, & Pradhan, June, 2007, pp. 2,3) from whom water is not acceptable and whose touch requires sprinkling of holy water. As in India, Nepal has no single definition schedule of castes. Different Dalit organizations such as Dalit Vikas (committee formed in 1997, and the National Dalit (commission have defined different groups as belong to the Dalit caste. NDC proposed (bills, 2003, p.2) is defined "Dalit community as communities who have been left behind in social, economic, educational, political and religious spheres and deprived from the human dignity and social justice due to caste based discrimination and untouchability. First chairperson of the NDC describes, "Actually, Dalit is not a caste and caste groups but it is the exclusionary, situation of poor people that made by the so- called upper class, clever groups who rules people in the society. Consequently, they are socially excluded, politically neglected, educationally deprived of, economically exploited and religiously oppressed. They are victimized community previously. They had called untouchable or Sudra but now called as Dalit" (January 12, 2009 Kathmandu Nepal). But the researcher focuses is limited to three Nepali speaking Dalit caste groups. Musahar, Kami, Damai, traditionally Damai is tailor, caste and musician. A kami is blacksmith and a Musahar is nomadic fish keeping and Banihari in the land of Jamindar for their livelihood. The country's population for a total, Damai has 472862 (1.8%), Kami has 1,258,554 (4.8 %), and Musahar has 234490 (0.8%) (CBS, 2012, p. 144). Of the 20% Dalits (Nepal national plans commission). Dalit women and men suffer equally from the practice but Terai Dalit face more discrimination and worse than those living in the hills (Bennett, 2006).

All three castes are dominant Hindu religious and culture. In Nepali Hindu society Dalit are generally disadvantaged and poor than the other people. In Nepal 20 percent of people are in Dalit community. They are mostly below poverty line. The researcher wants to seek how Dalit can be empowered. As the date fluctuates, the number of the Dalit population also varies according to differences. Estimates range from 12 percent to over 20 percent (NDC), (Bennett, 2006) has determined 11.8 percent (CWIN, 2005), Sixteen percent of the total population. Human Rights Watch Group (2004), 21 percent. Centre Human Rights and Global Justice (2005) 20 percent of Nepal's Dalit populations. By the result of that are three cases. Among them one that may include or exclude in the groups two may Dalit have changed their caste three respondents themselves don't want to be identified as Dalit.

Method

This article deals with most of the procedures adopted for the fulfilment of the statement. It includes research design, population and sampling, tools, validation; data collection procedure, data analysis and interpretation of the study are as following.

The methodology used in this study is both qualitative and quantitative in nature. This study is based mainly on qualitative and descriptive design. Therefore, primary and secondary data were collected from various sources. For the help of population and sampling I chose Nawalparasi district the western region of Nepal. The field was rural and urban community schools where purposing Dalit students are schooling. Among them 227 schooling Dalit children are involved with my research questionnaires and observations, 18 their guardians and 25 key informant's interview were involved that interview and 13 case study. The study was conducted 14 community schools and 8 VDCs and only one municipality of Nawalparasi district. The study only focuses how and in what way Dalit communities empower through current schooling system of Nepal. For reliability and validity tools were developed in consultation with the resource persons and developed tools were pre-tests to ensure their reliability and validity. Datas were verified through cross tab and using SPSS method. Mostly primary data were using in the article. After filtering data I described and interpretation them in according to my field experience.

Results

Poverty is enemy of life. One of the philosophers has said 'To be a thief better than a Pauper'. God has given your life then it is your duty to survive it. So, first people think about their livelihood then other creativity. As the National data of Nepal; 25.2% (2011 est.) people are living below poverty line. Among them; majority are falls under the Dalit and Janjati (Ethnic groups). So, it becomes the barriers for educational development of Dalit community also.

Managing the Tiffin money

Regarding these problem, researcher asked the Dalit students about their economic status to manage their tiffin expenditure.

The data shows that 8.4% said that their parents could not manage their money for tiffin for school followed by 7.9% said quite often, 48.9% said sometimes, 6.6% said hardly ever and 28.2% said never. From the data, it is know that more than 65% had problem to manage the daily expenditure of tiffin in schools, which may affect their school education.

Table 1: Managing the Tiffin money

Grade	Parents do not give tiffin money					Total	
	Never	Hardly ever	Sometimes	Quite Often	Very Often	#	%

Four	1	1	0	0	0	2	0.9
Five	1	5	1	0	0	7	3.0
Six	3	0	17	1	3	24	10.6
Seven	9	3	20	2	5	39	17.2
Eight	21	1	44	8	7	81	35.7
Nine	26	5	28	7	4	70	30.8
Ten	3	0	1	0	0	4	1.8
Total	64	15	111	18	19	227	100
%	28.2	6.6	48.9	7.9	8.4	100	

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	77.115[a]	24	.000

Sources: Field survey, 2014

Grade wise, mainly grade 5-10 students at least sometimes felt the problem of tiffin money. There is significant association (p = .000) found on perception of different grade students on managing the daily expenditure of their tiffin in school by their parents.

Problem of money for stationary

Without adequate availability of stationary; books, copies, pencils, schools bag, education of students cannot be effective. These things can support to motivate the students also.

Table 2: Problem of money for stationary

Grade	Problem of money for stationary					Total	
	Never	Hardly ever	Sometimes	Quite Often	Very Often	#	%
Four	0	2	0	0	0	2	0.9
Five	3	4	0	0	0	7	3.0
Six	14	1	2	0	7	24	10.6
Seven	29	3	3	0	4	39	17.2
Eight	33	10	24	4	10	81	35.7
Nine	25	13	25	5	2	70	30.8
Ten	0	3	0	0	1	4	1.8
Total	104	36	54	9	24	227	100
%	45.8	15.8	23.8	4.0	10.6	100	

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	76.330[a]	24	.000

Sources: Field survey, 2014

The above table no. 2 shows that 10.6% Dalit students had very often faced the problem of money for stationary whereas 45.8% said that they had never faced such problem. Similarly, 15.8% said hardly ever followed by 23.8% had sometimes and 4% had quite often faced problem of money for stationary. Around 38% students from grade 6-10 had reported that they had to face frequently problem of money to manage their stationeries.

There is highly significant association (p = .000) found on perception of different grade students on problem to manage the expenditure of their school's stationeries.

Have one uniform

Now a day, even in public school has also system of Uniform. In reality, the Uniform system came into existence to reduce the economic stratification of rich and poor in schools premises. But, in some cases, purchasing of simple uniform is also become more expensive for poor people whose daily income is very low and limited only to manage the hand to mouth problem of family. Hardly, parent can be able to purchase the single uniform yearly for their children.

The problem could be observed among the disadvantage and marginalized community in Nepal. From this study, data shows around 44% had reported that basically they had only one uniform for a year whereas 47.1% said that they had never faced such problem of single uniform for one whole year. 8.8% said that hardly ever they had to manage by only one uniform.

Table 3: Have one uniform

Grade	Have one uniform					Total	
	Never	Hardly ever	Sometimes	Quite Often	Very Often	#	%
Four	1	1	0	0	0	2	0.9
Five	3	4	0	0	0	7	3.0
Six	7	3	6	1	7	24	10.6
Seven	21	2	7	4	5	39	17.2
Eight	42	5	16	6	12	81	35.7
Nine	33	5	8	10	14	70	30.8
Ten	0	0	2	1	1	4	1.8
Total	107	20	39	22	39	227	100
%	47.1	8.8	17.2	9.7	17.2	100	

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	44.775[a]	24	.006

Sources: Field survey, 2014

On the basis of grade of students; from grade 6-10 had reported that they had very often faced the problem of one uniform.

There is highly significant association (p = .006) found on perception of different grade students on problem of one uniform.

Feeling sadness when comparing shoes with others friends

It is general understanding that dressing of man determines his economic status so people want to be luxurious to show their status in society. Basically, children are more interested to get new clothes, shoes and other fashionable goods. Children sometimes feel inferior if they have no adequate facilities as their friends have which gives them mental tension as well as parents also feel pain being unable to fulfil the interest of their children.

Regarding such types of feeling; researcher asked to Dalit-students that whether they felt sadness when they had no shoes like other non-Dalit friends. The following data (table no. 4) shows 59% said that they never felt any sadness or inferiority when they had no shoes like other friends whereas 10.1% said that very often they felt such sadness. Similarly, 5.7% reported that hardly ever followed by 21.1% reported sometimes and 4% reported quite often.

Table 4: Feeling sadness when comparing shoes with others friends

Grade	No shoes like others					Total	
	Never	Hardly ever	Sometimes	Quite Often	Very Often	#	%
Four	1	1	0	0	0	2	0.9
Five	6	0	0	0	1	7	3.0
Six	4	1	15	0	4	24	10.6
Seven	23	1	10	1	4	39	17.2
Eight	58	4	6	5	8	81	35.7
Nine	40	6	17	3	4	70	30.8
Ten	2	0	0	0	2	4	1.8
Total	134	13	48	9	23	227	100
%	59.0	5.7	21.1	4.0	10.1	100	

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	61.496[a]	24	.000

Sources: Field survey, 2014

On the basis of grade of students; from grade 5-10 had reported that they had very often felt sadness when they had no shoes like other friends.

There is highly significant association (p = .000) found on perception of different grade students on feeling of sadness when they had no shoes like other friends.

Feeling of stress when they cannot pay school fees

Stress is mental activity constructed due to negative effect of internal or external environmental factors. One student cannot be concentrated on study when they have stress in mind. Stress makes people ill as well as destroys the creativity. Sometimes in daily life, people become the victim of stress because of the interrelationship between the family members, neighbour and friends. Basically in children or teenage; people want the similar luxurious life as their neighbour or friends have. In Nepal, majority of median and low class people suffered by the economic problem.

Table 5: Feeling of stress when they cannot pay school fees

Grade	Cannot pay school fees					Total	
	Never	Hardly ever	Sometimes	Quite Often	Very Often	#	%
Four	1	0	1	0	0	2	0.9
Five	3	0	2	0	2	7	3.0
Six	6	2	14	2	0	24	10.6
Seven	14	2	21	2	0	39	17.2
Eight	56	3	11	5	6	81	35.7
Nine	39	8	12	5	6	70	30.8
Ten	2	0	0	0	2	4	1.8
Total	121	15	61	14	16	227	100
%	53.3	6.6	26.9	6.2	7.0	100	

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	64.185[a]	24	.000

Sources: Field survey, 2014

The Dalit-education can be affected by their economic status so Dalit-students were asked about their feeling of stress when they could not pay school fees in time or never. The data shows that 53.3% had never felt stress when they could not pay school fees whereas 7% said that very often they felt stress during the time of payment of school fees. Similarly, 6.6% said that they felt hardly ever followed 26.9% said sometimes and 6.2% said that quite often they felt stress (Table no.5).

On the basis of level of education, even grade 5 – 10 students felt very often stress during the payment of school fees.

There is highly significant association (p = .000) found on perception of different grade students on feeling of stress when they could not pay the school's fee.

Discussion

The working paper on "Hostel Schemes for Dalit Students: Inclusive and Incentive Orient for Higher Education?" Is a part of the study of impact assessment of scheduled caste welfare programmers? (George & Naseem, 2010). It highlights serious flaws in service delivery and reiterates the fact that though several incentive schemes to encourage SCs/STs students for attainment of quality education exist, practices beyond policies remain critical questions as ever. This work, drawing this paper from an assessment study of Babu Jagjivan Ram Chhatravas Yojana, highlights how wrong exclusion occurs even in a targeted scheme. Using available data, the paper argues that the scheme has not adequately followed the stated preferential criteria of low literacy and focus of middle and secondary level of education for SCs females while selecting locations. Most importantly, the scheme does not include poverty as a criterion for selection of beneficiaries, which allows wrong exclusion on a large scale. Despite several policy and programmes interventions to help improve the educational conditions of scheduled castes (SCs) and scheduled tribes (STs) in India, serious gaps exist in their literacy rate, participation in higher, technical and professional education as compared to other social groups, which is more a paradox than the query. The paper suggests that segregation of data across middle, secondary and higher education of SCs male and female in rural and urban India by level of poverty is a practical option to select locations and beneficiaries as long as the scheme has budget constraints for universal coverage. The paper also looks at the extent to which the hostel scheme acts as an incentive for SCs students to continue their education, which is one of its major objectives.

The working in very better because the poor students who are not afford lodging and fooding problem it is concerned higher level of students in the Indian context. But there is gape my article is in western Nepalese rural, urban and terrain context whereas basic level of students, their guardians and local level of KII group are gathered in my case study it is real class room centred. It focuses how can the Dalit communities' people manage their economic problem even though they are mostly unemployment, landless and traditional behaviour?

It is renowned on rural education schemes helping Scheduled Castes (SCs) and the Scheduled Tribes (STs) in rural India (Boxx, October, 2012). Even less is known about how to increase educational opportunity, especially for the most marginalized groups, such as the semi-nomadic, Dalit Community or ethnic community of Kanjars. This study hopes to enlighten new opportunities of addressing social and gender inequality within marginalized SCs and STs through education. Pardada Pardadi Educational Society (PPES) is an innovative, non-governmental organization (NGO) that is addressing gender inequality, poverty and education. Since 2010, PPES has attempted in a novel approach to convince Kanjar families to send their daughters to school by providing an incentive package that focuses on socialization, hygiene and literacy and later academics. In a specially designed project for the Kanjars, PPES built a hygiene complex (toilets and showers) creating a tangible community link to the benefits of education. Moreover, children with good attendance are rewarded with a solar light providing lighting in a community without electricity. The results of these projects on the retention of Kanjar girls in school are promising but there is still a long way to go.

At this time India is in need of specific educational strategies for resolving obvious inequalities, including gender inequality of the most historically marginalized groups of their society (Boxx, October, 2012). To the researcher's opinion it seems that the Indian government is not acting conclusively enough on the issue of girl child education, especially for children from STs and SCs. Scholarships alone are not enough, given the lack of real demand within the community for educational opportunities. More clear links must be drawn and true opportunities created for these groups that really incentivize education for both girls and boys. Additionally, health education programs for these communities are in terrible need as well. Moreover, educational schemes must not only provide the best practices possible but also address the root causes of marginalization. The group of rural Uttar Pradesh Kanjars surveyed for this research are symbolic of several groups of lower caste peoples living in rural India and it is hoped that the information presented will help to lighten some of the difficulties associated with their inclusion in educational programs. Nevertheless, more research is greatly needed.

In the same case, the Dalit of Nepal can be empowered through education and other incentive packages. Such as lodging, fooding, clothing, housing and educational instruments is essential in the case of Nawalparasi district.

The model for the right to primary education, free of charge, is established by international instruments, notably Article 4 (a) of UNESCO's Convention against Discrimination in Education, and Articles 13 and 14 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. Article 13 (2) the international covenant accepts clearly the right of every one to primary education, free of charge. Likewise, Article 14 lays down State commitments for a detailed plan of action for the progressive implementation of the right to compulsory education, free of charge, for all. These obligations are similar to the political commitments made under the Dakar Framework for action regarding the national action plan of EFA, (UNESCO, 2008).

In the plan of action for primary education, the United Nations Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR) has interpreted the right to compulsory primary education, free of charge, for all members in its General Comment No. 11 (1999) as well as No. 13 (1999). The General Comment No11 states that the nature of this requirement for primary education free of charge is unquestionable. Article 13(2) (a) General Comment No. 13 states that the obligation to provide primary education for all is an immediate (para. 51) and core obligation (para. 57) of these States.

Article 13(2) (a) of the International covenant has stated that primary education has two distinctive features: “compulsory” and “available free to all”. Compulsory schooling means that neither parents, nor guardians, nor the State is entitled to treat as optional the decision as to whether the child should have access to primary education. In order to ensure universal primary school attendance, States Parties are obliged to set the minimum working age at no less than 15 years, (Para. 41; see also Article 2 (3) of ILO Convention No. 138 (1973) concerning Minimum Age for Admission to Employment) and to ensure that communities and families are not dependent on child labour (General Comment No. 13, Para. 55).

CESCR has interpreted the requirement that primary education be available free for all. It has clearly stated that States Parties must ensure the availability of primary education, without charge to the child, parents or guardians (General Comment No. 11, Para. 7).

To make compulsory primary education truly free for all children, States Parties are thus grateful to eliminate all direct and indirect costs of schooling. Direct costs such as school fees imposed by the government, local authorities or schools run counter to the international obligations and must be eliminated. However, the indirect costs such as expenses for schoolbooks, uniforms or travel to and from school may be permissible but subject to the examination. Currently, the heaviest charge on a family’s budget is from the indirect costs, notably for parents’ compulsory contributions (Shiwakoti, 2009).

National Framework to Ensure Free and Compulsory Primary Education Government of Nepal has been making efforts for Free and Compulsory Primary Education (FCPE) since the beginning of the nineties. The piloting of free and primary education was carried out in Banepa Municipality of Kavre district and Ratna Nagar Municipality of Chitwan district in 1995/96. The Local Self Government Act was introduced in 1999, on the above background, of which FCPE was later extended to Chitwan and Ilam districts. The main objective of this program was to ensure education for all including the disadvantaged groups.

The Education for All (EFA) program has given special attention to the schooling of disadvantaged groups. One of the goals of EFA program was to ensure basic education of quality for all children, particularly girls, Dalit, disabled and children in difficult circumstances and children belonging to ethnic minorities, through free and compulsory primary education in Nepal by 2015.

To ensure basic education for disadvantaged groups, the government introduced several supportive measures at different times. It included free textbooks, scholarship schemes for Dalit girls (50 percent) and disabled, school feeding program, alternative schooling program including school improvement and expansion program in the areas of low enrolment (Shiwakoti, 2009).

Confirming clearly obligation to the child's right to receive quality basic education of up to Grade 8, the core document of School Sector Reform (SSR) has stated that adequate arrangements will be made to ensure free education to children from economically disadvantaged communities and children with disabilities. SSR has stated that free education will be implemented from the 2009 academic year in Grade 6 and gradually extended up to Grade 10. In the bright of all these, this study intends to analyse the educational status as well as provisions required, measures and process that are essential to ensure the rights of the disadvantaged groups to receive quality basic education.

The study report Shiwakoti and his team clearly defined about free and compulsory education can help the expansion and improvement of education so the report is very well in encouraging education related scholars but There is a gap in the study report and this article their studies report cannot explained about what are economic factors and how can economic factors affecting in promoting Dalit education if the parents have had adequate, economic resources, the schooled teaching and learning environment is adequate, available, accessible, acceptable and adaptable all kind of technical difficulties and obstacles of education for Dalit can be promoted. Their studies are general for all Nepalese contexts but this article specified in the case of Nawalparasi district.

Schooling of Dalit Children in India (Nambissan, 1996, pp. 1011-1024)the educational backwardness of the Dalit communities is generally attributed to poverty and illiterate home environments existing among them. This article draws attention to the effect the learning environment within the formal educational system which has been having on the Dalit pupils. It argues that' besides poor infrastructural facilities, lack of effective pedagogic supports to acquire linguistic, numerical and cognitive competencies harmfully affect the schooling of Dalit children. More importantly, in spite of active encouragement from poor family members, the indifferent treatment by teachers and school administrators largely shape the learning experiences of these socially disadvantaged groups. By creating a separate sphere of non-formal education if or such groups, the government of late has renounced its responsibility to generate equity within the formal school system

It has been claimed that School Feeding Programs increase school participation among poor and food insecure group of people (Dheressa, 2011). This study investigates if the program has significant positive impact on school enrolment, class attendance, and student drop-out patterns among primary school children in DaraWoreda of Sidama Zone, Southern Ethiopia. Data were collected from individual stakeholders. Household Questionnaire, Key Informant Interviews and Observation were the methods employed to collect the data. The quantitative data have been analysed, and then whereas the qualitative data are analysed along with the quantitative results. The study found significant positive impact of School Feeding Program on the three school participation indicators, although it has some roles with regard to these objectives. The result also shows that the major factors affecting school enrolment are demand for child labour, cost of schooling, obtain ability of school, teaching quality and school infrastructure, distance to school, the availability of food incentives and safety concerns. Whereas, those affecting class attendance and student drop-out include illness, work for money/food, domestic work, school hour hunger and long distance to school. Besides, it has been determined that even among beneficiary households, the elder household head is less likely that the children get enrolled to school during their primary school ages or will not properly attend class even if enrolled. Meanwhile, absence from classes decreases in both beneficiary and non-beneficiary households when household head education level and household income are higher. However, it is found that neither household head education nor household income have significant effect on student drop-out in recipient households. The study recommends that both the nutritional and economic values of School Feeding Program should be improved in order to significantly enhance school participation.

They studied the next functioning and effectiveness of scholarships and incentives intended for girls and children of disadvantaged communities (Acharya & Luitel, 2006)Is a good thesis report. They desired to understand various incentive schemes from local perspectives rise from the need to provide policy makers, planners, administrators, educators and donors with important insights to help improve the management of current incentive and scholarship schemes.

They had selected three districts Rasuwa, Saptari and Surkhet (Acharya & Luitel, 2006) the study used interviews, group discussions, and observation and case studies. They find that all three study districts, most of the respondents agreed that the available scholarships/incentives reached the needy population, but complained that they did not cover all of the needy children. According to the teachers, since the scholarships/incentives have been in place, the girls' enrolment and school attendance have increased in the selected schools. In most cases incentives in the form of food and oil were reported to be the most effective in increasing girls' enrolment and attendance.

The study report is very well but not specified in the case of the role for economic factors in promoting Dalit education. My article is in class room specified and Dalit education. There is an operation all schools activities concerned to family economic situations as like as managing the tiffin money, problem of money for stationary, have one uniform, feeling sadness when comparing shoes with others friends, feeling of stress when they cannot pay school fees etc. All of the factors with in-depth interview explored that it is comparatively empowering than previous years of the schools, VDCs, LDOs office and DEO records of Nawalparasi district of Nepal.

Conclusion

The study explored from the discussion, was found that the role of economic factors in promoting Dalit Education like felt the problem of tiffin money, problem to manage the expenditure of their school's stationaries, problem of one uninform, feeling of sadness when they had no shoes like other friends, feeling of stress when they could not pay the school's fee and problem of one uninform. Teachers, administration and their colleague's behaviour, can effect on learning of Dalit students. Legally, it is not allowed to do discrimination in spear of economic activities on the basis of poverty, caste, and ethnicity even though it is still somewhat practice most of rural areas of Nawalparasi district. The discriminative behaviour is slowly decaying with the help of huge amount of scholarship for Dalit and Janajati. They are gradually empowered through incentives measures like scholarships, mid-day meals, dresses, inclusive education and reservation policy of government in most of the field in Nepal. Not only government but also NGOs, INGOs, and other local level organizations are supporting Dalit promoting programme.

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Gender Role in Global Personal Self-Esteem and Narcissism among Nepalese School Adolescents

Neupane, Dasarath[1] & Timsina, Tatwa[2]

[1]PhD scholar, Dr. K.N. Modi University, Rajasthan, India
[2]Professor, Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu, Nepal

Corresponding Author
DasarathNeupane
neupane.dasarath@gmail.com

Abstract

Introduction: *Global personal self-esteem and narcissism with reference to gender role among school adolescents was studied in Kathmandu. The general aim of this research was to explore the correlation in global personal self-esteem and narcissism with response to gender among Nepalese school adolescents.*

Methodology: *The study was correlational in design employing a pen-and-paper self-report survey. Within the survey, instruments (Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale 1979 / RSES and Narcissistic Personality Inventory 1981/ NPI) measured the global personal self-esteem and narcissism. Participants were drawn from thirty (fifteen public and fifteen private) schools of Kathmandu. These schools were chosen in random selection. The number of participations was 936 school students.*

Results: *The study investigated the prevalence of global personal self-esteem in the school with reference to gender. The result from the survey indicates that there is no significant difference between self-esteem and gender. On the other hand, girls are reported slightly higher narcissistic behaviour than boys.*

Conclusion: *Self-esteem is how people feel about themselves generally. This study explored the prevalence rates of global personal self-esteem with reference to gender. It showed that there is no significant correlation between them. On the other hand, narcissism is a psychological condition defined as a total obsession with self, to the exclusion of almost all other interaction with people. The present study explored the prevalence rates of narcissism with reference to gender. It showed that girls reported slightly higher narcissistic behaviour than boys' which* *contradicts the previous findings. Why it is found so in the Nepalese context is left for further research.*

Key words: Gender role, global personal self-esteem, narcissism

Introduction

Brown (1998) defined self-esteem as a global personality trait that is relatively enduring across time and situations– a term to describe how people feel about themselves generally. Gender differences have been becoming a great interest to the researchers in the field of psychology. Gender has an impact on various aspects of adolescents and can also affect changes in self-esteem during the adolescent years. Gender refers to “the array of socially constructed roles and relationships, personality traits, attitudes, behaviours, values, relative power and influence that society ascribes to the two sexes on a differential basis” (Health Canada, 2000). A number of factors including biological, cognitive, social, and environmental factors contribute to influence an adolescent's personal development and self-esteem (Kearney-Cooke, 1999).

Gender-based beliefs are mostly derived from gender role stereotypes existing in every society. Great consistency in standards of desirable gender-role behaviour has been found in both within and across different cultures. Eagly and Wood, (1991) have highlighted some expected characteristic features related to gender role. For example, males are expected to be objective, independent, assertive, logical and competitive whereas females are expected to be more passive, sensitive, illogical, dependent, accommodating and supportive. However, a little change has been seen over the past two decades regarding such beliefs within the developed societies and apparently around the world as well. Gender socialization has created expectations for the way women and men behave, think and feel about themselves. For women, one’s family, peer support, reflected appraisals and family relationships are important determinants of self-esteem. Parental support and family connectedness are especially important for girls. On other hand feelings of mastery, self-actualization and academic performance are more important for males.

Narcissism is an inflated sense of self-importance and it is an extreme preoccupation of self (Doty & Fenlason, 2013). While going on the root of the term, it is derived from the Greek mythological word Narcissus. It means a young man falls in love of self-image (Davison & Neale, 1998); the term generally describes an exaggerated self-love (Reber, 1995).

The focus of the present study, however, was not upon the clinical or abnormal psychological aspects of personality or the self and it should be noted that most of the research in the field of narcissism and its correlates has generally employed nonclinical samples (Papps & O'Carroll, 1998). To be more precise, certain narcissistic characteristics typically present as continua, as do many other psychological constructs including self-esteem (Hoyle, Kernis, Leary, & Baldwin, 1999).Correspondingly, Baumeister et. al. (1996) considers specific narcissistic tendencies to be present to a measurable degree in people with certain self- presentational styles.

Furthermore, and of particular interest, the statement in the DSM-IV- TR that narcissistic traits are common in adolescents, although these traits do not necessarily result in later development of Narcissistic Personality Disorder (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). Given this conceptualization, particularly in the context of the present study's sample, it warrants an exploration of the relationship between narcissism and gender role.

General objective

The general aim of this research was to explore the gender role in global personal self-esteem and narcissism among Nepalese school adolescents.

The specific objectives of this research can be described as:

To build knowledge based on the phenomena of global personal self-esteem and narcissism with reference to gender in school level.

Hypothesis

Gravetter and Forzano (2003) mention that before a research idea can be evaluated, it needs to be transformed into hypotheses. These hypotheses are statements about the relationship between variables. The hypotheses of this study are as follow:

Gender role is significant in global personal self-esteem and narcissism.

There would be a significant positive correlation between gender and global personal self-esteem.

There would be a significant positive correlation between gender and narcissism.

Methods

Design and Participants

The study was correlational in design employing a pen-and-paper self-report survey. Within the survey, two separate instruments (Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale 1979 / RSES and Narcissistic Personality Inventory 1981/ NPI) measured the variables global personal self-esteem and narcissism. There are a number of methodological considerations, beginning with issues surrounding the consent procedures and the form of survey (i.e., self-report) employed in the present study that require consideration. Participants were drawn from thirty schools: fifteen governments funded and fifteen private schools from Kathmandu, Nepal. These schools were chosen in random selection. The respondents were between 12 years to 18 years. The total number of students was 936. The following table no. 1 illustrates the data of respondents' grade, age and gender.

Table no. 1 Respondents' grade, age and gender cross tabulation

		Grade		**Total**
		8	**10**	
Age	12	33	1	34
	13	168	4	172
	14	176	63	239
	15	73	192	265
	16	18	166	184
	17	3	35	38
	18	0	4	4
Total		**471**	**465**	**936**
		Grade		**Total**
		8	**10**	
Gender	Boy	228	241	469
	Girl	243	224	467
Total		**471**	**465**	**936**

Materials

All constructs were measured using pen-and-paper self-report questionnaires. Each of the two scales began on a separate page with its own preamble to introduce the scale, resulting in a questionnaire battery including an instruction/cover sheet. For the measure of personal self-esteem, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale / RSES (Rosenberg, 1979) was used. The scale consists of ten items which was used in the pilot study and main study. The 10-item Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale is a widely used, brief, and easily administered one-dimensional measure of personal global self-esteem with a reported alpha coefficient of .77 (Keith & Bracken, 1996). In the original form of the RSES, respondents are asked to indicate to what extent they agree with the listed statements using a 4- point scale like Strongly Agree (*SA*), Agree (*A*), Disagree (*D*), and Strongly Disagree (*SD*). The response format was modified from the original to a5-point Likert-type scale: Strongly Agree, Agree, Uncertain, Disagree and Strongly Disagree.

In the case of narcissism, the nonclinical 40-item Narcissistic Personality Inventory / NPI (Raskin & Hall, 1981) scale measured the narcissism in the present study. Originally, it was a 54-itemscale, which was used in clinical diagnostic procedure for Narcissistic Personality Disorder/NPD (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). The modified scale measures the individual differences in nonclinical narcissism and is the most broadly used narcissism inventory (John & Robins, 1994). The present study followed Raskin and Hall's (1981) the commonly used 40-itemNPI inventory that has a forced- choice format and individuals with high scores generally report high global personal self-esteem and are self-confident. They appear to be aggressive, highly competitive, egotistical, socially manipulative, and lacking in empathy (Raskin & Novacek, 1989).

Procedure

During the scheduled lesson, the researcher and class teacher distributed surveys to consenting students. Students were told to ask the researcher for assistance at any time if they experienced difficulties with the questionnaire. The researcher also reinforced the anonymity of the process and students' right to decline or cease participation at any time. Participants were told the importance of truthful responses and that they were to answer the questions without conferring or copying. The class teacher, who remained in the classroom during data collection, gave those students who had declined to participate other quiet activities. Completed surveys were collected by the researcher and sealed in unmarked envelopes; the classroom survey process took on average approximately 30 minutes.

Results

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1 reported that there would be a significant positive correlation between gender and global personal self-esteem. ANOVA test with gender as an independent variable and global personal self-esteem as a dependent variable, results showed that mean scores of boys was 22.5846 and girls was 22.6832. It also did not support the predicted hypothesis. The following table no. 2 shows the result in detail.

Table no. 2 (Gender-wise mean scores of global personal self-esteem)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Boy	467	22.5846	5.02342	.23246	22.1278	23.0414	10.00	40.00
Girl	464	22.6832	4.65863	.21627	22.2582	23.1082	10.00	37.00
Total	931	22.6337	4.84270	.15871	22.3223	22.9452	10.00	40.00

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.263	1	2.263	.096	.756
Within Groups	21807.838	929	23.475		
Total	21810.101	930			

In terms of narcissism, the hypothesis 2, there would be a significant positive correlation between gender and narcissism, ANOVA test with gender as an independent variable and narcissism as a dependent variable, result showed that mean scores of boys was 62.0968 and girls was 62.5773. The p value of the results is 0.021, which is <0.05. It supports the predicted hypothesis. The following table no. 3 shows the result in detail.

Table no. 3 (Gender-wise mean scores of narcissism)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Boy	465	62.0968	3.45994	.16045	61.7815	62.4121	47.00	74.00
Girl	459	62.5773	3.75157	.17511	62.2332	62.9215	44.00	71.00
Total	924	62.3355	3.61380	.11889	62.1022	62.5688	44.00	74.00

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	65.517	1	65.517	5.378	.021
Within Groups	11244.976	923	12.183		
Total	11310.493	924			

Discussion

The goal of this study was to explore the gender relationship on global personal self-esteem and narcissism among the school adolescents. Above mentioned results showed mixed results than from existing literature. The results between gender and global personal self-esteem are matched with previous findings. However, the results of narcissism with reference to gender are not matched with previous findings.

The results showed that there is no significant positive correlation between gender and global personal self-esteem (p>0.05, i. e. 0.756). The results were close to the results found by Coopersmith(1967). Moreover, the results were matched with Skaalvik(1990) and Simon and Simon (1975) who found no significant difference between males and females in self-esteem.

On the other hand, the results on narcissism and gender, showed that there is significant correlation between gender and narcissism (p<0.05, i.e. 0.021). The present finding on narcissism contradict with Grijalva et al. (2014) reviews on gender role on narcissism. Thus, there could have further research on it in the context of Nepalese school environments.

Conclusion

Thus, self-esteem is how people feel about themselves generally. This study explored the prevalence rates of global personal self-esteem with reference to gender. It showed that there is no significant correlation between them. On the other hand, narcissism is a psychological condition defined as a total obsession with self, to the exclusion of almost all other interaction with people. Narcissism is often characterized by a lack of empathy for others, an immature sense of humour, sadistic or destructive tendencies towards other people, and a compulsion to satisfy personal needs without regard for others. The present study explored the prevalence rates of narcissism with reference to gender. It showed that girls are reported slightly higher narcissistic behaviour than boys which contradicts the previous findings. Why it is found so in the Nepalese context is left for further research.

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Media and Advertising Preferences of Nepalese Audiences

Gopal Thapa[1]

[1]Lecturer, Nepal Commerce Campus (TU), Minbhawan, Kathmandu
[1]PhD Scholar, Dr. K N Modi University, Rajasthan, India
Under the Supervision of Prof. Dr. Bihari Binod Pokharel

Abstract

No one can escape from death, tax and advertising. There are various media available for advertising. Advertising is used by different organization in different ways. Different customers have responded differently, to the different message and media. This article highlights on the consumers' preference towards the message and media on the basis of age, gender and education. This study is part of the pilot study of my PhD research work. It is a descriptive study based on survey method. Total 80 respondents consisting different gender, age and education background were taken as sample on judgmental basis. The result revealed that most of the Nepalese prefer television, television advertising and musical message.

Keywords: Advertisement, Audience, Consumer, Media television,

Introduction

Advertising

One of the popular tools of marketing communication is advertising. Advertising is any paid form of non-personal presentation and promotion of ideas, goods or services by an identified sponsor. Advertising is used by different organization in different ways. A large company set up its own advertising department for all or most of the advertising functions while those do not have separate department hires advertising agencies to promote their products. There are various types of media are available in the market for advertisers to conduct advertising functions.

Television Advertising

Among various media television is one which hold upper hand because of its unique audio and visual characteristics. According to Keller (2008), Television is generally acknowledged as the most powerful advertising medium as it allows for sight, sound, and motion and reaches a broad spectrum of consumers. The wide reach of TV advertising translates to low cost per exposure. From a brand equity perspective, TV advertising has two particularly important strengths. First, TV advertising can be effective means of vividly demonstrating product attributes and persuasively explaining their corresponding consumer benefits. Second, TV advertising can be compelling means for dramatically portraying non-product-related user and usage imagery, brand personality, and so on. Television is a common medium of information and is very effective in delivering a message or in a wide sense, for effective marketing communication. Kotler & Fox (1985) stated that television has advantages and disadvantages related to its effectiveness as a medium to broadcast advertising messages. The advantages are that the information can be easily viewed, listened to, and pictured. Belch & Belch (2004) stated that television is considered the ideal medium to advertise as advertisement exposure can showcase the most attractive side of the products. The disadvantage of TV advertising is the higher cost, that fact that it can be highly confusing medium that the audience is selective. In emerging market like Nepal, television is the most popular medium for information and entertainment

A television advertisement is a span of television programming produced and paid for by an organization that conveys a message fully controlled by an advertiser. Television advertising is also popularly known as television commercials. Television advertisement gives information to a large number of people than any other medium, comparatively at lower cost per audience. Due to its satellite facility, television programs are viewed globally. In today's glamorous world, we can show all aspects of products, services or organizations through advertisement with human appeal. The vast majority of television advertisements today consist of brief advertising spots, ranging in length from a few seconds to several minute infomercials. Advertisement of these sorts has been used to sell imaginable over the years, from the household products to political campaigns.

In today's world, the popularity of television is increasing day by day. It is useful for the advertisers to know the popularity of television among different people. Different types of advertisement appeal to the different customers differently. Careful analysis should be done in this regard for the success of any advertisement campaign. Hence, the main objective of this study is to provide useful information regarding the effectiveness of television advertising to different people in urban areas.

Objective

Main objective of this study is to analyze the media and advertising preferred by Nepalese audience on the basis of age, education, gender etc. It also analyzes the effectiveness of message preferred by different target audiences.

Method

This study is a descriptive research based on survey method. It is based on the pilot study of my ph d work. It is based on primary data. Self administered closed ended questionnaires were distributed between January 20, 2012 to February 25, 2012. Data was collected from students and faculty members of various colleges under Tribhuvan University within Kathmandu valley offering business education.100 questionnaire were distributed on the basis of judgmental sampling. Among them 80 questionnaires were returned. Among the 80 respondents from the urban areas of Kathmandu valley, 40 respondents were male and 40 were female. Simple descriptive statistical tools have used to analyze the data.

Result and discussion

Among the 80 respondents, collected data from various age and education background is presented as follows:

Table No. 1: Education and age of Respondents

Education Level	**Sample Size**	**Age Group**	**Sample Size**
Below S. L. C.	16	Below 15	16
S. L. C.	16	16-25	16
Plus 2	16	26-35	16
Graduate	16	36-45	16
Post Graduate	16	Above 45	16
Total	**80**	**Total**	**80**

Source: Field Survey 2012

Advertising and Customers' Preference

While taking advertising decisions, advertisers should be aware about the types of television advertisement preferred by the audiences. In this study all advertisements are divided into four categories consisting musical advertisement, glamorous advertisements, simple advertisements and all or mixed types of advertisements.

The table shows the age level and their advertisement preference.

Table No. 2: Age and Advertisement Preference

Age	**No. of Respondents**	**Musical**	**%**	**Glamorous**	**%**	**Simple**	**%**	**All Types**	**%**	**Total %**
Below 15	16	10	62.5	3	18.75	1	6.25	2	12.5	100
16-25	16	9	56.25	5	31.25	0	0	2	12.5	100
26-35	16	6	37.	7	43.	0	0	3	18.	100

			5		75				75	
36-45	16	5	31.25	9	56.25	1	6.25	1	6.25	100
Above 45	16	8	50	7	43.75	0	0	1	6.25	100
Total	80	38		31		2		9		

Source: Field Survey 2012

It was found that 62.5% of people who are below 15 years, preferred musical ad mostly. Likewise, 56.25% of people who are 16-25 years also preferred musical ad but 43.75% of the people who are 26-35years old and 56.25% of people who are 36-45 years old preferred glamorous advertising. Similarly, 50% of the people who are above 45 years old liked musical advertising.

Consumers' preferences on the basis of literacy level on Television advertising is presented in the following table.

Table No. 3: Literacy – wise Consumers' Preference on Television Advertising

Education Level	**Sample Size**	**Musical**	**%**	**Glamorous**	**%**	**Simple**	**%**	**All Types**	**%**	**Total**
Below SLC	16	11	68.75	3	18.75	1	6.25	1	6.25	16
SLC	16	9	56.25	4	25	2	12.5	1	6.25	16
Plus two	16	6	37.5	8	50	0	0	2	12.5	16
Graduate	16	5	31.25	9	56.25	0	0	2	12.5	16
Post Graduate	16	10	62.5	3	18.75	2	12.5	1	6.25	16
Total	**80**	**41**	51.25	**27**	33.75	**5**	6.25	**7**	8.75	**180**

Source: Field survey: 2012

The above table shows that people who belong to below SLC and SLC preferred to musical advertisement i.e. 68.75% and 56.25% respectively. Most of the plus 2 and graduate people i.e. 50% and 56.56% respectively preferred to glamorous advertisement. Again, people who belong to post graduate group preferred to musical advertisement are by 62.5%.

The above table shows that plus 2 and graduate people are influenced by glamorous advertisement and below SLC, SLC and post graduate people are influenced by musical advertisement.

Likewise consumer preference on television advertisement as per the gender is presented as follows:

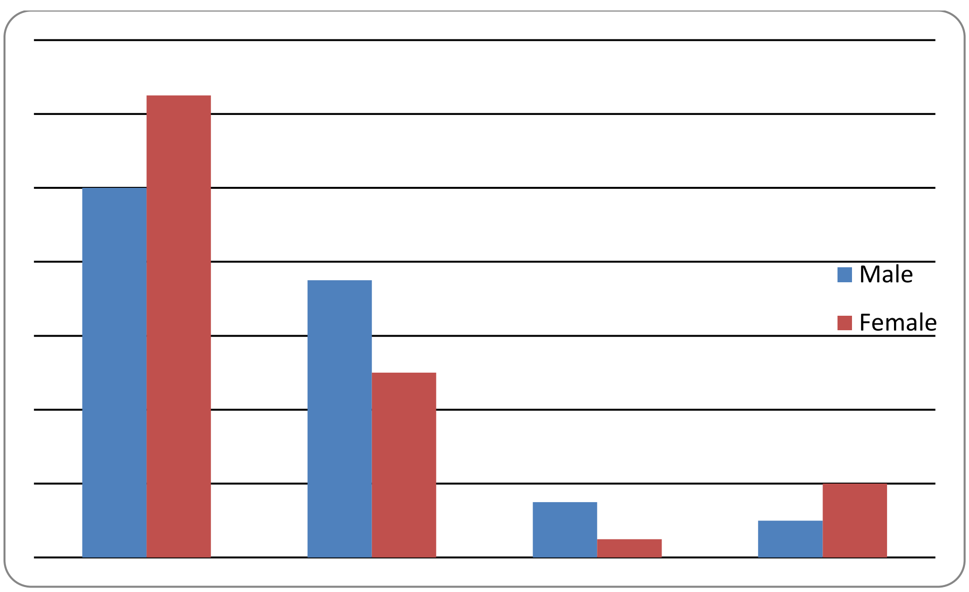
Table No. 4: Gender-wise Preference of Television Advertisements

Gender	Sample Size	Musical	%	Glamorous	%	Simple	%	All Types	%	Total
Male	40	20	50	15	37.5	3	7.5	2	5	40
Female	40	25	62.5	10	25	1	2.5	4	10	40
Total	80	45		25		4		6		80

Source: Field survey: 2012

The above table shows the preference of advertisement according to gender. Out of 40 male 50% of respondents are found to like the musical advertisements, 37.5% of respondents preferred to glamorous advertisements, 7.5% of respondents preferred simple advertisements and 5% respondents liked all types of advertisements. Regarding female respondents, 62.5% preferred musical advertisements, 25% preferred glamorous advertisements, 2.5% preferred simple advertisements and 10% preferred all types of advertisements.

From the above analysis, it can be concluded that female consumers seems to give more priority to musical advertisements than the glamorous advertisements. For more clarity the above information is presented in following diagram.



From above diagram, it is clear that out of the total 40 male respondents 50% respondents preferred to musical advertisements, 35% preferred to glamorous advertisements, 8% preferred to simple advertisements and 5% respondents preferred to all types of advertisements. Similarly, among the 40 female respondents, 62.5% preferred to musical advertisements, 25% preferred to glamorous advertisements, 2.5% referred to simple advertisements and 10% preferred to all types of advertisements.

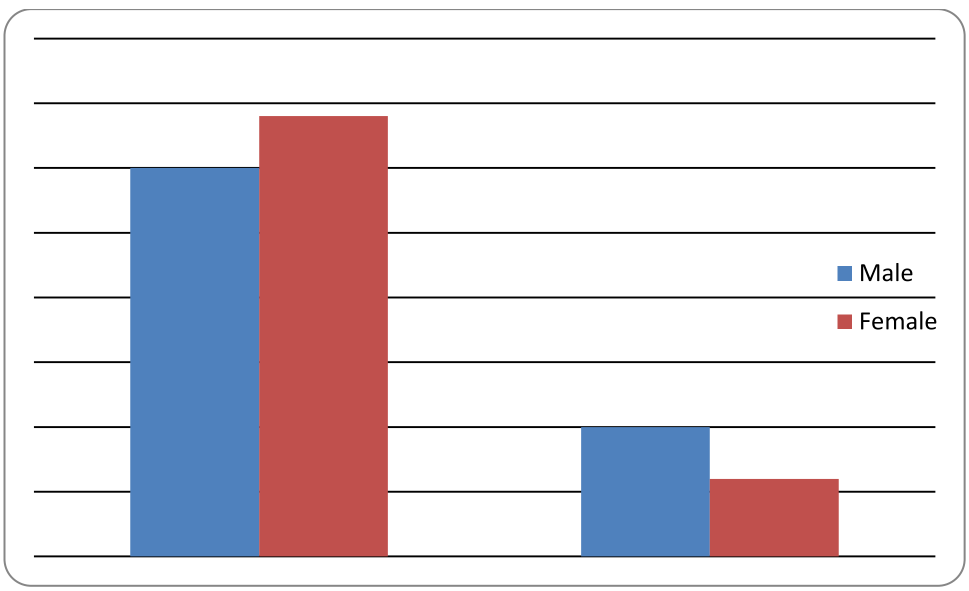
The table below presents the consumers way of watching television when advertisements arte telecasted.

Table No. 5: Consumers Television Watching Habit

Gender	Sample Size	Watching	%	Not watching	%
Male	40	30	75	10	25
Female	40	34	85	6	15
Total	80	64	80	16	20

Source: Field survey: 2012

The above table presents the habit of people watching television living in Kathmandu. Out of total 80% people are found to have the habit of watching television. Among them, 75% male and 85% female are found that they are watching television where female percentage is higher than male by 10%. Television watching habit of male and female is also explained by the following bar diagram.



From the above figures, it is clear that percentage of women watching television seems higher than male by 10%. Likewise, 25% of male are found not to have the habit of watching television whereas female percentage is only 15%.

Consumers' Preferences to the Product

Consumer prefers different product by considering various factors. Advertisement is one of the important factors which affect the consumers' preferences. The result of consumers' preferences to the various type of product is presented in the table below:

Table No. 6: Consumers' Preferences to the Product Advertised

Description	No. of Respondents	%
Product frequently advertised	65	81.25
Product not advertised	15	18.75
Total	80	100

Source: Field survey: 2012

The above table shows the number of consumers' preferences to the product. Out of the 80 respondents, 81.25% responded that they prefer the frequently advertised product whereas 18.75% respondents opined that they prefer to buy the product that is not advertised.

From the above analysis, it can be concluded that majority of the consumers give the priority to the frequently advertised product.

Consumers' Preferences to the Media

Consumers prefer different media according to their needs, interests and priority. There are various media available in the market like newspaper, magazine, radio, television, pamphlets and poster etc. The situation of consumers' preferences to the various media is presented in the table below:

Table No. 7: Consumers' Preferences to the Media

Media	No. of Respondents	%
Newspaper	10	12.5
Magazine	2	2.5
Television	63	78.75
Radio	4	5
Pamphlets & Posters	1	1.25
Total	80	100

Source: Field Survey 2012

The above information presents the number of respondents preferring the media. Out of the total 80 respondents, majority of respondents 78.75% preferred to television whereas rest of the respondents opined that they prefer Newspaper, Magazine, Radio and Pamphlets & posters by 12.5%, 2.5%, 5% and 1.25% respectively.

From the above analysis, it can be concluded that Television advertisement seems to be the most popular media.

The present study was conducted to analyze the media and advertising preferred by Nepalese audience on the basis of age, education, gender. The result revealed that majority of the Nepalese audiences' preferred musical advertisements. This finding is in line with previous study of Bhandari (1984). Results also revealed that most of the audiences preferred to watch television. In the opinion of Agrawal and Singh (1985) nearly 70% of Indian customers prefer to watch television. In comparison to previous findings Nepalese audiences' preference towards television is higher than Indian customer. Mittal (1994) concluded this study that 75% urban customer purchase product because of advertising. Comparing these findings to the present study, majority of the customers (81.25%) preferred frequently advertised products which is higher than previous findings.

Conclusion

Majority of the respondents who belong to age group below 15 and 16 to 25 preferred musical advertisement by 62.5% and 56.25% respectively. In the context of age group 26 to 35 and 36 to 45 majority of the respondents preferred glamorous advertisement i.e. 43.75%, and 56.25% respectively. Again age group above 45, majority of the respondents i.e. 47.5% preferred musical advertisement.

In case of education-wise preferences to the advertisement indicate that most of the lower educated preferred to musical advertisement. Likewise most of the male as well as female customers preferred musical advertisements.

In relation to television watching habits, majority of the respondents (80%) found to have the habit of watching television. The percentage of women respondents seems to be higher than male respondents regarding television viewing habit.

Similarly, majority of the customers (81.25%) preferred frequently advertised products.

In relation to the consumers' preference towards media, most of the respondents (78.58%) responded that they preferred to television. Thus, television is the most popular media for advertisement.

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Application of Structural-Functional Theory in Risk of HIV Transmission

Tej Bahadur Karki[1] &Prof. Dr. Ritu Prasad Gartoulla[2]

[1]PhD Scholar, Dr. K. N. Modi University, Newai, Rajasthan, India

[2]Medical Anthropologist, Institute of Medicine, Maharajgunj, Kathmandu, Nepal

Corresponding Author

Tej Bahadur Karki

Email: fpantej.karki@gmail.com

Abstract

The study was conducted with the purpose to explore the interrelationship and interdependency between the individual and whole social systems that effects on HIV transmission during the time of social changes and transformation. The concept of structural functional theory was adopted to conduct this study. Phenomenological approach was applied to explore the experiences of risk behavior of human immune deficiency virus (HIV) transmission among the respondents working in Kathmandu valley (Kathmandu, Lalitpur and Bhaktpur districts). *This Research was based on exploratory research design and simple random technique was used to select the respondents. The Study was conducted in Kathmandu valley among garment factory workers, brick factory workers, transport workers and health workers. Individual factors, socio-cultural factors, economic factors, educational factors and political factors are found as a functional unit of society which functions to influence the risk of HIV transmission in whole social structure. So, the finding is individual should be aware on the negative function of factors which can influence to increase the risk of HIV transmission. Cultural practices should be open to discuss about the risk behavior of people regarding their connection with HIV transmission.*

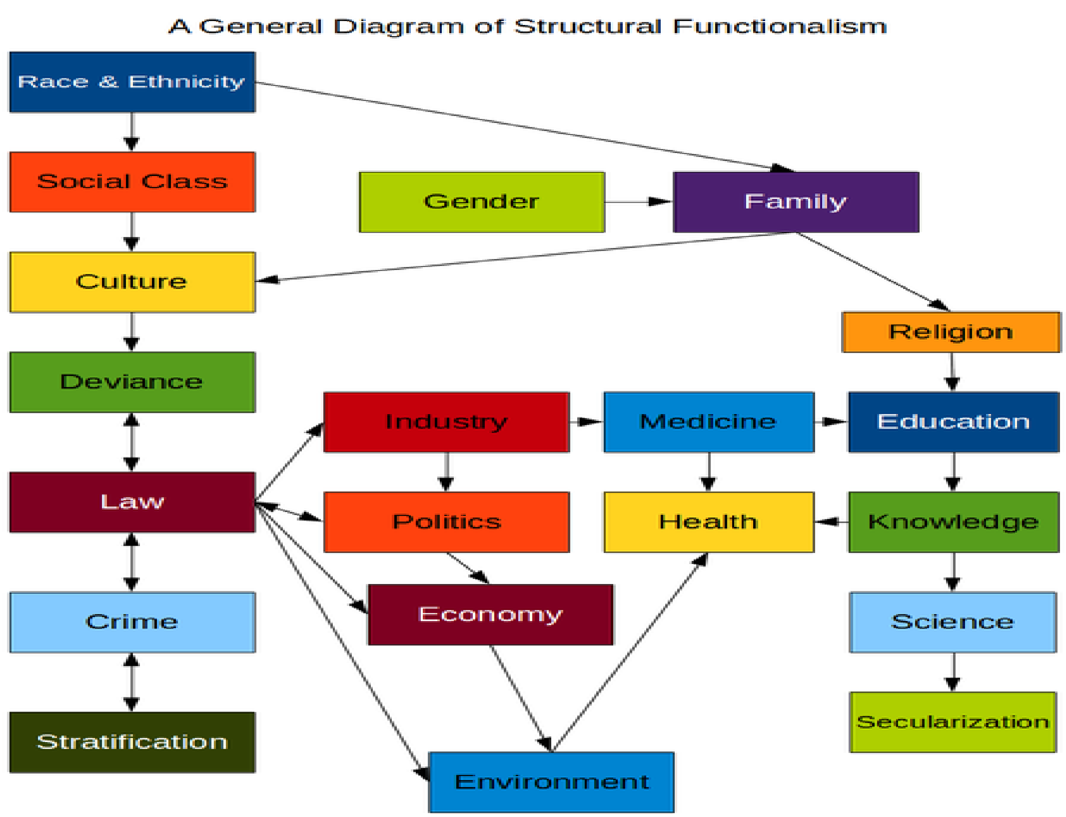
Keywords: *HIV Transmission, Risk, Structural-functional, Theory*

Introduction

Structural Functionalism is a sociological theory that attempts to explain why society functions the way it does by focusing on the relationships between the various social institutions that makes up society (e.g., government, law, education, religion, etc). According to the Woodger, 1948, Merton, 1968, Structural functionalism has a lengthy history in both the biological sciences and the social sciences. Functionalism's history goes back to Aristotle's study of ultimate causes in nature or of actions in relation to their ends, or utility. Developed in l7th century France, Montesquieu's doctrine of separation of powers is based on the notion of functions that are best undertaken separate from each other as a means of ensuring stability and security (Fisher, 2010).Structural functional, especially in the work of Talcott Parsons, Robert Merton, and their students and followers, was for many years the dominant sociological theory (Ritzer, 2011).

Functionalists tend to view social and political units in more holistic, organic terms. Susser said "Social practices are said to have a functional role in sustaining the system as a whole" (1992, p. 204).Functionalism became important when Darwin's evolutionary theories began to influence thinking about human behaviour Darwin conceived of the idea of survival in functional terms. Each function was important to the survival of the whole system.Francesca M. Cancian (1968) describes two distinctive types of functional analysis: traditional and formal.Traditional functional analysis is the most commonly used. It is based on the premise that all social patternswork to maintain the integration and adaptation of the larger system. Formal functional analysis is called formal because itdoes not include a theoretical orientation or a substantivehypothesis about events. Rather it examines the relationshipsbetween elements. It contrasts with the traditionaltype of analysis in that its proponents reject the attributesof "integration" and "adaptation" in favour of an examinationof the equilibrating or feedback functions in systems (Fisher, 2010).

The general diagram of structural Functionalism is used as bellow:



Sources: (WIKIBOOKS, 2014)

Talcott Parsons is one of the Grand Old Men of world of sociology. Regarding the structural functionalism of Parsons, he talks about the structure of general Action systems which covers the cultural system, social system, behavioral organism and personality system. In social system, he also talks about the relationship between the actors and social system (Ritzer, 2011). On the one hand, actor has primary role to develop the social system. On the other hand, social system controls the function of actor. During the course of life cycle of one individual, people play the various roles and do the practices. Regarding the risk behavior; willingly or unwillingly people engage in risk taking behavior which creates the problem in life. In connection with this point of Parsons, the main focus of this study is to explore the interrelationship and interdependency between the individual and whole social systems and their effects on HIV transmission during the time of social changes and transformation. The broader research question of this study is that how interaction between the individual and social systems plays the roles to increase the risk of HIV transmission?

Method

The study was conducted among the 404 transport workers, brick factory workers, health workers and garment factory workers working in Kathmandu valley (Kathmandu, Lalitpur and Bhaktpur districts) by using the self-administered structured questionnaires. Besides that, 22 in-depth interview and 5 case studies were collected. Concurrent mixed design was adopted to collect and analyse the data. Phenomenological approach was applied to collect the human experience in their phenomena and how people understand the risk behaviour of HIV transmission and how various social factors associate with individual behaviour of people. The findings of primary data was compared and discussed with secondary data. Random sampling was done to select the respondents. The study was conducted in 2013.

Result and Discussion

The study has identified the interaction between the different factors and social systems which affect in increasing the risk of HIV transmission in society as extraneous factors. Researcher found that there is direct relation between the individual factors; knowledge and attitude towards HIV and practices related with sexual behavior and there is indirect relationship found between other factors (e.g. socio-cultural, educational, economic and political) and risk of HIV transmission.

Out of total 404 respondents, 29.46% were females and rests were males. Among them, 57% respondents were married and rest was unmarried. As per ethnicity 53.2% of respondents were Janjati (ethnic group) followed by 30.44% Chhetri and Brahmin, 11.38% Dalit and 5% Muslim/Yadav were participated in research. The mean age of the respondents was 27.31 years and Std. Deviation was 7.614, which ranges from 15 years to 49 years. As data of education level of respondents shows that majority (25.50%) of respondents had primary level of education followed by 27.48% respondents from the Higher secondary level and above, 21.29% from lower secondary level, 13.12% from secondary level, 7.92% from literate and 4.7% were illiterate respondents.

The following pictorial diagram shows the interrelationship of the different functional units in society and its effect on risk of HIV transmission.

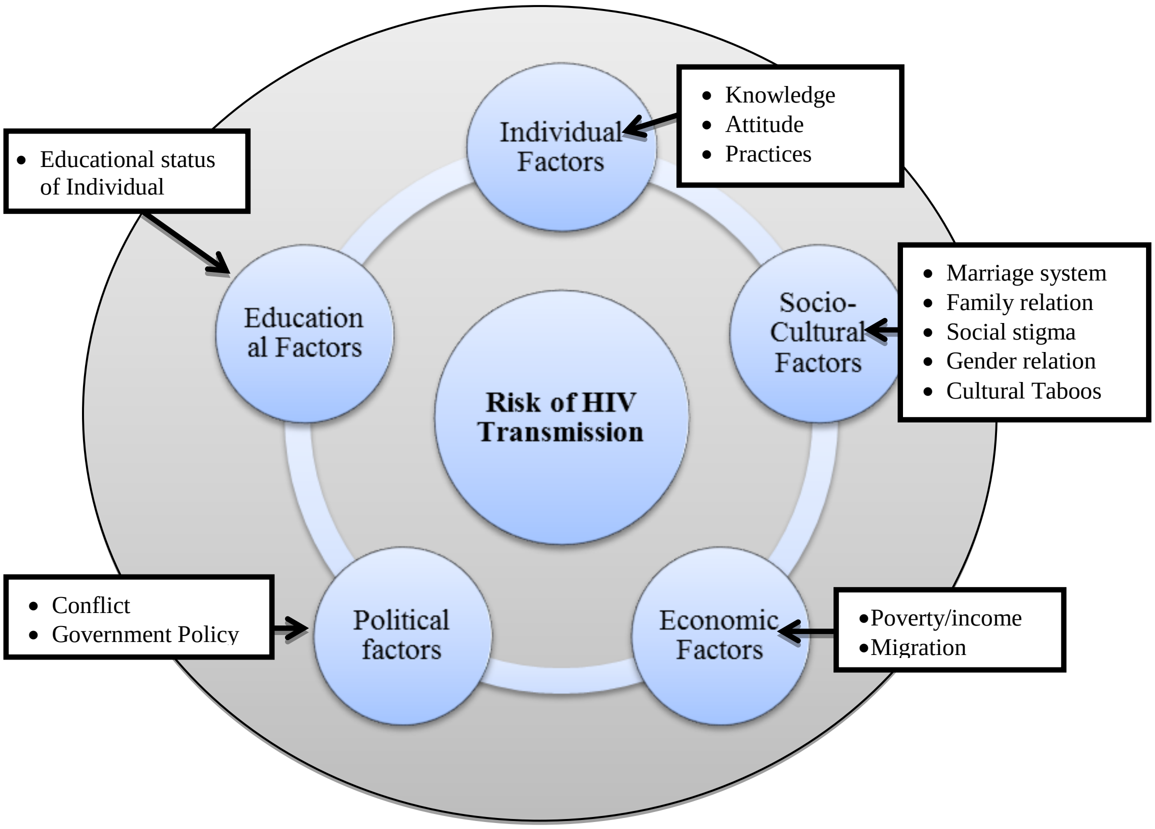


Figure 1: Structural-Functional Theory of Risk of HIV Transmission

The terms functional analysis and structural analysis both have been applied to a great variety of approaches in many disciplines. According to Susses, the functional approach is used more often than any other method in the study of Western political science (Susser, 1992). Structural functional theory is one of the broader approaches which can be used to explain the functional relation of different units of society and its effect on change and development of society. Researcher has adopted the lens of this theory to explore the functional relationship of different factors of society to influence the changing scenarios of HIV and AIDS.

In course of this study, it was also observed that in some cases, cultural factors of Nepalese society had direct contribution increasing the risk of HIV transmission. Cultural practices are different in different geographical location. Some closed society has rigid types of cultural taboos on discussion of sexual behavior which is contributing in HIV transmission. A wife cannot ask to husband about their sexual behavior as well as husband cannot ask to wife about her sexual interest. Culturally, people become used to the blind trust on sex partners. They have to adjust anyhow in their own cultural because culture affects the personality. According to the Rao, man is not only a social animal but also a cultural being. Man's social life has been made possible because of culture. Cultural is something that has elevated him from the level of animal to the heights of man. Man cannot survive as man without culture. It represents the entire achievements of mankind (Rao, 2008).

"My husband became the HIV positive due to lack of awareness on HIV and AIDS, there may be negligence also. On the other hand, my blind trust towards my husband made me also HIV positive."

- 28 years married HIV Positive Female

"Being a HIV positive is shameful work. So, if my family members or I would be infected then I could not disclose HIV status in communities".

- Brick factory worker, 32 years married male

Economic factors have also significant role for the increasing risk of HIV transmission. In the Nepalese case, migration is one of the main causes of inadequate opportunity of employment in own country. Actually, the roots cause of migration is poverty. Poverty is explained as a social problem (Heald, 2010, p. 140). According to the report of National Health Committee of New Zealand, poverty can be defined in absolute or relative terms. Poverty has long been recognized as an important determinant of ill health. People who are poor have worse self-reported health, higher rates of disability, and higher rates of death, disease and injury. Children from poor families have higher rates of illness, injury and death than other children (June 1998, p. 24). To explain the basic causes of poverty, sociologists are increasingly focusing their attention on society as a whole and particularly on the stratification system, rather than studying the poor in isolation. As Peter Townsend states, 'The description, analysis and explanation of poverty in any country must proceed within the context of a general theory of stratification'. Theories of stratification should provide theories of poverty since the poor are part of stratification systems- the bottom part (Heald, 2010, pp. 160-161). In connection between the poverty and HIV transmission, UNAIDS has reported that 'Poverty is also seen as enhancing vulnerability to HIV. The growing rates of HIV and AIDS in economically disadvantaged communities of the industrialized world and in developing countries emphasize the role played by poverty in fuelling the epidemic. There has long been worldwide recognition of the negative impact of poverty on health and of the need to undertake aggressive action towards poverty alleviation and development' (UNAIDS, 1998, p. 8).

Similarly, we can observe the close relationship between the political factors and risk of HIV transmission because politics can determine the quality and effectiveness of policy of concerned government. Nepal Government has developed next 5 years (2011-2016) National HIV and AIDS strategy following the 2006-2011 strategy. As stated in introduction of strategy, building on the achievements, lessons and experiences of the past five years, the strategy (2011- 2016) will focus on the following key points:

- Addressing the ***all dimensions*** of continuum of care from prevention to treatment care and support
- Effective coverage of quality interventions based on the epidemic situation and geographical prioritization
- Health system and community system strengthening
- Integration of HIV services into public health system in a balanced way to meet the specific needs of target populations
- Strong accountability framework with robust HIV surveillance, program monitoring and evaluation to reflect the results into NHSP-II and National Plan. (National Centre for AIDS and STD Control, November 2011)

"I can't blame society in increasing the risk of HIV. Government should be more careful about the treatment and job opportunities of people living with HIV (PLHIV)."

-29 years married HIV Positive male

In the perceptual data collected from the respondents shows that there is significant association between the conflict and risk of HIV transmission but analysis of secondary data of HIV prevalence generated by Nepal Government shows that there is similar trend of up and down ratio of HIV prevalence in pre-conflict, during conflict and post-conflict period of Nepal in last 20 years.

Education is one of the key factors which determine the personality of people. The study found that education has vital role to increase the risk of HIV transmission. There is significant association found among the response of different target groups regarding the influence of education on risk behaviour of people.

'In transport sectors, more time people live out of home and want to do romance so when they use to take drink then they desire sex. Comparatively now a days some educated people are also involved in transport sectors. Somehow they are aware about the HIV transmission. ***Education*** *is major factor which is associated with risk taking behaviour. Those people who have good education they are definitely aware about the HIV transmission.*'

- Transport workers (36 years, Mr. KC, resident of Kaski district (Western Region of Nepal).

The commutative effect of all these factors goes in individual factors because personality is affected by the whole cultural phenomena of society. How one people grow, observe the phenomena, got knowledge, develop their attitude and do the practices are depend on the structural function of social variables. In this study, researcher try to divide the individual factors into three main variables i.e. knowledge, attitude and practices. The observation found that around 95% people have knowledge of HIV transmission, only around 41% are ready to disclose their HIV status in society and only around 25% has practices to use the condom in their 1st sexual contact. Risk of HIV transmission can be reduced only by safer practices but it is found very weak. Various socio-cultural factors are responsible to determine the good practices in any movement.

"when attachment becomes closer with any sex partner and both will be ready for sexual intercourse, everything forgets at that time, when & how HIV transmits, and none cares either it transmits or not".

- Brick Factory worker (26 years resident of Salyan district)

Conclusion

People existence can only be meaningful when they interact with their phenomena. Personality cannot be developed in isolation so it is natural and mandatory that social variables should functional together to change the social structure. We can observe the positive and negative both types of influence of functional units in social change. HIV is one of social problem; it is acquired disease so it can be prevented by using the social treatment theory. Community and individual should be aware on the function of social variables which can directly or indirectly influence risk behaviour of HIV transmission. HIV can only be transmitted when individual behaviour will be wrong in practices. Cultural practices are one of the key drivers of personality development; but culture is manmade so individual can change the cultural practices if it becomes problematic for individual life. E.g. we have to convince for open discussion on sexual practices in our close society also which can give the broader knowledge of sexual transmitted infections. So, in researcher come to the conclusion that risk of HIV transmission should be observed from the holistic perspective of social structure.

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Socio-cultural Causes of Gender Disparity in Nepalese Society

Anita Shrestha[1]& Prof. Dr. Ritu Prasad Gartoulla[2]

[1]PhD Scholar, Mewar University, Rajasthan, India
[2]Professor, Institute of Medicine, TU, Kathmandu, Nepal
Corresponding Author
Anita Shrestha
Email: anitashrestha26@gmail.com

Abstract

Gender is socially constructed idea and disparity is the problem created by the society. The study was conducted from the socio-cultural perspective so the main objective of this study was to identify the socio-cultural causes of gender disparity in five different ethnic groups: Newar, Magar, Tamang, Rai/Limbu and Brahmin/Chhetri of Kathmandu Valley. Total 390 respondents were selected randomly from the all ethnic groups. Except the role of religion, the role of culture, patriarchy system, social perception, sources of income, level of education, political awareness & involvement and gender based division of labor had significant effect to increase the gender disparity in society. Political announcement that Nepal as a secular country had effected in the perception and practices related to the religious activities of people also. The government should address the socio-cultural problem and further researcher should explore the strategies to address the problem of gender disparity.

Keywords: Causes, Disparity, Gender, Nepal, Society, Socio-culture

Introduction

Society is the web of social relationship in one hand and on the other hand culture is man-made. People developed the culture to maintain the social norms, values and historical civilization in society. The cultural transformation and orientation determines the personality of every individual. There is interrelationship and interdependency between the culture and personality. When people feel suffocation because of the rigid cultural pattern, they try to break the traditional culture and reform the new culture to live the life in comfort zone.

Men and women always comprise the two halves of the population in every society. However, the rights and opportunities accorded to women have never been on per with the rights and opportunities accorded to men of the said societies. These differences in the opportunities of life found between men and women have forced women in many contexts to bear a subordinate position. This can be seen in a number of sectors, namely the economic, political, social, and cultural life of each society (Baker, 1999, p. 16).

In many countries, the birth of a boy becomes a reason to celebrate, whereas the birth of a girl is a disaster. Selective abortions of female fetuses and female infanticide are no exception, resulting in unnatural gender ratios.

A British Sociologist, Ann Oakley and a supporter of the Women's Liberation Movement, comes down strongly on the side of culture as the determinant of gender roles rather than biology. The sexual division of labour is supported and justified by a belief and value system which states that gender roles are normal, natural, right and proper (Heald M. H., 2010, p. 373). Study of the history of human society reveals that in no society of the world has women enjoyed absolute equality on par with men. Everywhere they were subjected to inequality, discrimination and exploitation (Rao, 2008, p. 813).Connell (1987) elaborated one of the most integrative theories of gender. This theory is important because it allows for an understanding of the complex interplay between gender and power beyond the individual perspective. A central emphasis of this theory is that the analysis of gender involves a three-part structural model involving sexual division of labor (e.g. financial inequality), sexual division of power (e.g. authority), and the structure of affective attachments (e.g. social norms) (Ngozi C Mbonu, 2010, p. 2).

In the Nepalese context, this gender based discrimination is mainly faith based, embedded with fear and myth, and is deep routed in the culture and social norms (SAMUHIK ABHIYAN, Mar 2008, p. 25).Gender disparity is also one effect of cultural transformation. People practice the discriminatory behavior unknowingly also. They think it as the continuation of their culture. So, here researcher has tried to identify the role of socio-cultural practices to determine the degree of gender disparity in study areas.

Method

The study was based on the descriptive cross-sectional research design. Total 390 respondents were selected from the 5 different ethnic groups; Newar, Magar, Tamang, Rai/Limbu and Brahmin/Chhetri for the study, among them respondents were equally distributed in three districts; Kathmandu, Lalitpur and Bhaktpur. So, 130 respondents were selected from the each district. Following the objectives of this study, researcher had collected data by using the 5 points Likert scales. Simple random sampling technique was applied to select the respondents. Statistical analysis; cross tab, Chi-square and correlation test was done to show the significant association between the different ethnic groups.

Result

The demographic information of the study showed that there was 50.3% male followed by 49.7% female were participated in study. Data shows that 4.6% wife were illiterate followed by 1.8% husband. Similarly, in total, 7.7 husbands had master and above degree followed by only 2.1% wife. In the study, the age distribution of wife shows 20 to 60 years followed by 24-60 years of husbands. Mean age of wife was 35.46 years followed by 39.13 years of husband. Marriage age of wife was found in between the 15-31 followed by husband had in between 16-35 ages. The mean age of wife during her marriage was 21.53 years followed by husband had 24.84 years.

1. Patriarchy system and gender disparity

Majority of the Nepalese societies had patriarchy system. Male headed societies are there. So, researcher also collected the perceptual data on patriarchy system as a cause of gender disparity in community.

Table 2: Patriarchy system and gender disparity

Patriarchy system causes the gender disparity in your community							
		Caste of Respondents					**Total**
		Newar	**Magar**	**Tamang**	**Rai or Limbu**	**Brahmin or Chhetri**	
Strongly Agree	Count	48	51	48	62	32	241
	% of Total	12.4%	13.2%	12.4%	16.0%	8.3%	62.3%
Agree	Count	17	22	20	11	34	104
	% of Total	4.4%	5.7%	5.2%	2.8%	8.8%	26.9%
Neutral	Count	5	1	1	3	1	11
	% of Total	1.3%	0.3%	0.3%	0.8%	0.3%	2.8%
Disagree	Count	3	3	5	2	7	20
	% of Total	0.8%	0.8%	1.3%	0.5%	1.8%	5.2%
Strongly Disagree	Count	3	1	3	0	4	11
	% of Total	0.8%	0.3%	0.8%	0.0%	1.0%	2.8%
Total	Count	76	78	77	78	78	387
	% of Total	19.6%	20.2%	19.9%	20.2%	20.2%	100.0%

Sources: Field survey, 2014

62.3% respondents strongly agreed that patriarchy system is one cause of gender disparity followed by 26.9% reported agree in the above statement. Caste wise, 16% Rai or Limbu followed by 13.2% Magar, 12.4% Newar and 12.4% Tamang and 8.3% Brahmin/Chhetri respondents strongly agreed on the perception that patriarchy system causes the gender disparity in all ethnic communities.

2. Cultural taboos causes the gender disparity

Socio-cultural orientation determined the personality development of individual. Cultural norms play the role of social law so people become compelled to accept the cultural barrier. Regarding this issue, the table no. 2 shows that 21.2% respondents were strongly agreed that cultural taboos causes the gender disparity followed by 30.1% agreed.

The data shows that regarding the cultural taboos as a cause of gender disparity, around 50% respondents were found in neutral and disagree.

Table 3: Cultural taboos causes the gender disparity

Cultural taboos (female should be obedient, they should not speak in front of Father-in-law or brother-in-law) causes the gender disparity							
		Caste of Respondents					Total
		Newar	Magar	Tamang	Rai or Limbu	Brahmin or Chhetri	
Strongly Agree	Count	15	18	19	11	19	82
	% of Total	3.9%	4.7%	4.9%	2.8%	4.9%	21.2%
Agree	Count	15	32	29	21	19	116
	% of Total	3.9%	8.3%	7.5%	5.4%	4.9%	30.1%
Neutral	Count	9	3	9	10	6	37
	% of Total	2.3%	0.8%	2.3%	2.6%	1.6%	9.6%
Disagree	Count	23	14	12	27	16	92
	% of Total	6.0%	3.6%	3.1%	7.0%	4.1%	23.8%
Strongly Disagree	Count	15	10	8	8	18	59
	% of Total	3.9%	2.6%	2.1%	2.1%	4.7%	15.3%
Total	Count	77	77	77	77	78	386
	% of Total	19.9%	19.9%	19.9%	19.9%	20.2%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	31.636[a]	16	.011

Symmetric Measures					
		Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Interval by Interval	Pearson's R	.011	.053	.214	.831[c]

Sources: Field survey, 2014

There was significant association found on perception of five different ethnic groups (p = .011) regarding the cultural taboos as a causes of gender disparity. Similarly, there was significant relation (r = .011, p = .053) found on perception of female and male regarding the cultural taboos as a causes of gender disparity.

3. Social perception toward gender that Male is stronger than female causes the gender disparity

Social perception is important to understand the meaning of phenomena. Social behavior is strongly guided by the social understanding. The table no. 3 shows that 63.6% respondents strongly agreed that gender disparity is caused by the social perception towards the gender that males are stronger than females followed by 21.8% agreed on the same statement.

Table 4: Social perception toward gender

Social perception toward gender that Male is stronger than female causes the gender disparity							
		Caste of Respondents					**Total**
		Newar	**Magar**	**Tamang**	**Rai or Limbu**	**Brahmin or Chhetri**	
Strongly Agree	Count	39	54	49	60	43	245
	% of Total	10.1%	14.0%	12.7%	15.6%	11.2%	63.6%
Agree	Count	22	18	15	14	15	84
	% of Total	5.7%	4.7%	3.9%	3.6%	3.9%	21.8%
Neutral	Count	4	1	2	1	4	12
	% of Total	1.0%	0.3%	0.5%	0.3%	1.0%	3.1%
Disagree	Count	12	3	7	3	11	36
	% of Total	3.1%	0.8%	1.8%	0.8%	2.9%	9.4%
Strongly Disagree	Count	0	1	3	0	4	8
	% of Total	0.0%	0.3%	0.8%	0.0%	1.0%	2.1%
Total	Count	77	77	76	78	77	385
	% of Total	20.0%	20.0%	19.7%	20.3%	20.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	30.391[a]	16	.016

Symmetric Measures				
	Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Pearson's R	.006	.055	.115	.909[c]

Sources: Field survey, 2014

There was significant association found on perception of five different ethnic groups (p = .016) regarding the perception of society that males are stronger than females as a causes of gender disparity. Similarly, there was significant relation (r = .006, p = .055) found on perception of female and male regarding the perception of society that males are stronger than females as a causes of gender disparity.

4. Religious belief that female should do the fasting for the welfare of family causes the gender disparity

In total, 44.6% respondents were found disagree that religious belief that female should do the fasting for the welfare of family is one cause of gender disparity followed by 41.9% agree on the same statement. Comparatively, more people were found disagree on this cause than the no. of people who agree.

Table 5: Religious belief

Religious belief that female should do the fasting for the welfare of family causes the gender disparity							
		Caste of Respondents					**Total**
		Newar	**Magar**	**Tamang**	**Rai or Limbu**	**Brahmin or Chhetri**	
Strongly Agree	Count	13	11	9	17	17	67
	% of Total	3.4%	2.9%	2.3%	4.4%	4.4%	17.4%
Agree	Count	10	24	16	21	23	94
	% of Total	2.6%	6.2%	4.2%	5.5%	6.0%	24.5%
Neutral	Count	7	9	21	10	5	52
	% of Total	1.8%	2.3%	5.5%	2.6%	1.3%	13.5%
Disagree	Count	29	25	18	25	20	117
	% of Total	7.6%	6.5%	4.7%	6.5%	5.2%	30.5%
Strongly Disagree	Count	17	8	12	5	12	54
	% of Total	4.4%	2.1%	3.1%	1.3%	3.1%	14.1%
Total	Count	76	77	76	78	77	384
	% of Total	19.8%	20.1%	19.8%	20.3%	20.1%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	37.008[a]	16	.002

Symmetric Measures				
	Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Pearson's R	-.130	.053	-2.564	.011[c]

Sources: Field survey, 2014

There was significant association found on perception of five different ethnic groups (p = .016) regarding the religious belief on fasting of female as a causes of gender disparity. Similarly, there was significant relation (r = .006, p = .055) found on perception of female and male regarding the religious belief on fasting of female as a causes of gender disparity

5. Income causes the gender disparity

Income of male and female also play the role to determine the gender relationship in family and society. Regarding this issue, 66.8% respondents strongly agree that income causes the gender disparity followed by 20.6% respondent found in agree in the same.

Table 6: Income causes the gender disparity

Income causes the gender disparity							
		Caste of Respondents					Total
		Newar	Magar	Tamang	Rai or Limbu	Brahmin or Chhetri	
Strongly Agree	Count	50	53	50	64	39	256
	% of Total	13.1%	13.8%	13.1%	16.7%	10.2%	66.8%
Agree	Count	14	22	18	8	17	79
	% of Total	3.7%	5.7%	4.7%	2.1%	4.4%	20.6%
Neutral	Count	3	0	1	3	6	13
	% of Total	0.8%	0.0%	0.3%	0.8%	1.6%	3.4%
Disagree	Count	6	3	5	2	7	23
	% of Total	1.6%	0.8%	1.3%	0.5%	1.8%	6.0%
Strongly Disagree	Count	3	0	3	1	5	12
	% of Total	0.8%	0.0%	0.8%	0.3%	1.3%	3.1%
Total	Count	76	78	77	78	74	383
	% of Total	19.8%	20.4%	20.1%	20.4%	19.3%	100.0%

Sources: Field survey, 2014

Ethnicity wise, out of 66.8% responses, 16.7% Rai/Limbu found strongly agrees that income is one cause of gender disparity compared with 10.2% Brahmin/Chhetri.

6. Illiteracy causes the gender disparity

Education is the light of knowledge. So, it supports to understand the social norms and values and also teach to solve the social problem and makes life easy for the social adjustment. Gender disparity is one social problem, created from the perception and practices of society. So, researcher asked respondent about the role of education in gender disparity.

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Table 7: Illiteracy causes the gender disparity

Illiteracy causes the gender disparity							
		Caste of Respondents					Total
		Newar	Magar	Tamang	Rai or Limbu	Brahmin or Chhetri	
Strongly Agree	Count	54	56	53	62	47	272
	% of Total	14.0%	14.5%	13.7%	16.1%	12.2%	70.5%
Agree	Count	14	19	20	13	18	84
	% of Total	3.6%	4.9%	5.2%	3.4%	4.7%	21.8%
Neutral	Count	3	0	3	1	3	10
	% of Total	0.8%	0.0%	0.8%	0.3%	0.8%	2.6%
Disagree	Count	4	2	0	2	6	14
	% of Total	1.0%	0.5%	0.0%	0.5%	1.6%	3.6%
Strongly Disagree	Count	2	0	1	0	3	6
	% of Total	0.5%	0.0%	0.3%	0.0%	0.8%	1.6%
Total	Count	77	77	77	78	77	386
	% of Total	19.9%	19.9%	19.9%	20.2%	19.9%	100.0%

Sources: Field survey, 2014

In total, 70.5% respondents strongly agree that illiteracy is one cause of gender disparity followed by 21.8% agree on the same cause. In total, more than 90% respondents agreed that illiteracy is one cause of gender disparity.

7. Lack of political awareness causes the gender disparity

Politics of country prepared the rules and regulation of social development and change. 27.2% respondents followed by 25.1% respectively strongly agree and agree on the statement that lack of political awareness causes the gender disparity. Around 30% respondents disagree on the same cause followed by 19.1% had neutral response.

Table 8: Lack of political awareness causes the gender disparity

Lack of political awareness causes the gender disparity							
		Caste of Respondents					Total
		Newar	Magar	Tamang	Rai or Limbu	Brahmin or Chhetri	
Strongly Agree	Count	27	13	28	23	13	104
	% of Total	7.0%	3.4%	7.3%	6.0%	3.4%	27.2%
Agree	Count	18	23	17	27	11	96
	% of Total	4.7%	6.0%	4.4%	7.0%	2.9%	25.1%

Neutral	Count	11	18	17	14	13	73
	% of Total	2.9%	4.7%	4.4%	3.7%	3.4%	19.1%
Disagree	Count	16	13	8	10	17	64
	% of Total	4.2%	3.4%	2.1%	2.6%	4.4%	16.7%
Strongly Disagree	Count	5	9	7	4	21	46
	% of Total	1.3%	2.3%	1.8%	1.0%	5.5%	12.0%
Total	Count	77	76	77	78	75	383
	% of Total	20.1%	19.8%	20.1%	20.4%	19.6%	100.0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	45.841[a]	16	.000

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Interval by Interval	Pearson's R	.134	.052	2.644	.009[c]

Sources: Field survey, 2014

There was significant association found on perception of five different ethnic groups (p = .000) regarding the illiteracy as a causes of gender disparity. Similarly, there was significant relation (r = .134, p = .052) found on perception of female and male regarding the illiteracy as a cause of gender disparity.

8. Gender based division of labor causes the gender disparity

We can observe in many work places that there is gender based division of labor. Basically, physically males are taken stronger than females. In government job also, very few female can be seen in the decision making level.

Table 9: Gender based division of labor causes the gender disparity

Gender based division of labor causes the gender disparity							
		Caste of Respondents					**Total**
		Newar	**Magar**	**Tamang**	**Rai or Limbu**	**Brahmin or Chhetri**	
Strongly Agree	Count	55	55	52	65	42	269
	% of Total	14.4%	14.4%	13.6%	17.0%	11.0%	70.2%
Agree	Count	13	16	14	8	22	73
	% of Total	3.4%	4.2%	3.7%	2.1%	5.7%	19.1%
Neutral	Count	3	2	5	1	3	14
	% of Total	0.8%	0.5%	1.3%	0.3%	0.8%	3.7%
Disagree	Count	5	2	2	3	6	18

	% of Total	1.3%	0.5%	0.5%	0.8%	1.6%	4.7%
Strongly Disagree	Count	1	1	3	1	3	9
	% of Total	0.3%	0.3%	0.8%	0.3%	0.8%	2.3%
Total	Count	77	76	76	78	76	383
	% of Total	20.1%	19.8%	19.8%	20.4%	19.8%	100.0%

Sources: Field survey, 2014

In response of participants, 70.2% respondents responded strongly agree followed by 19.1% responded agree that gender based division of labour is one cause of gender disparity. In total, around 90% respondents agreed that gender based division of labour causes the gender disparity.

Discussion

As the finding of the study showed that around 90% respondents had agreed patriarchal culture had contributed to gender disparity in Nepalese society. From the previous study, it was reported that historically the development of Hindu society has been one of ever increasing hierarchy –of hierarchy based explicitly on an ideology of a parallel development of institutions concerned with the control of female sexuality… [Whenever] purity is the primary idiom of status differentiation**,** there is certain to be a major preoccupation with the maintenance of female chastity. This is especially so in India where the purity of the caste is a direct function of the purity of its womenfolk. The male members of the caste are in large measure dependent for their status rating on the purity of their women (Allen, 1982). It is commonly acceptable that culture dominates the personality of people. In many cultures, arranged or forced marriages are still very common, often resulting in sexual abuse. Women often do not have the same rights regarding divorce or inheritance. Polygamy is also a cause of discrimination (Spagnoli, 2008). As (Clafer, 1997) states, that standards Norms are that standards that define the obligatory and expected behaviors of people in various situations. This reflects belief of society about correct and incorrect behaviors. Once these behaviors become second nature, members of a society, do not able to analyze every situation consciously and decide what there appropriate actions ought to be. Norms also can inhibit the type of thinking that might result in challenges to the dominant members of society (Dr. Safdar Rehman Ghazi, 2011, p. 102).In Nepalese society; usually, girls and women take meals last in the family as the norms of specific ethnic groups. They have to serve the food first to the elderly people, male members and children of the family before taking food themselves. They have to make do with the remaining food after the males, elderly and children eat. On the other hand they prefer to provide nutritious food to their sons first by considering that the boys will have to do hard work in future to earn money for the family. They provide such food to daughters after providing for their sons. Because of this, the women are malnourished compared to the men and it is even more difficult to go outside to do hard work (SAMUHIK ABHIYAN, Mar 2008, p. 37).

Similarly, religion is one culture of people. Religion creates one rule to control the society. People may not ignore the basic belief of religion so it may determine the level of gender disparity in society. The previous study explained that one of the main causes of gender discrimination is religion. Many religions place women below men, and create a patriarchal society. Religion was, to Marx, "the opium of the people" (Marx 7 Engels, 1964; Stark & Bainbridge, 1996). Ellis (1986) referred to religion as a form of psychopathology. But in this study, less than 50% (only around 42%) agreed that religion causes the gender disparity.

The study found that more than 50% respondents agreed that level of political awareness causes the gender disparity in Nepal. The previous study showed that in terms of ethnic participation in the political parties and their sister organizations; there is overwhelming majority of the Brahmins and Chhetries. From the inclusion perspective, status of hill Janajati and Dalit is rather satisfactory but Terai Middle Caste and Terai Janajati representing a huge portion of population fall far behind (Nepal R. S., 2009, p. 9). Women’s inclusion in decision making in local governance remains a challenge. Proportionally, their inclusion is far lower at the local level (around 10%) than at the national level (33%). This meets local governance reservations of one woman member in each of the VDCs/DDCs but it is clear that these are way below national reservations (DFIDN Nepal Operational Plan: Gender Equality and Social Inclusion Annex, 2011).

Gender based division of labour also found causes to gender disparity. According to the Gurung 1995; Brown 1997, in the context of rural Nepal, gender analysis is critical. Women are largely responsible for the day-today today tasks within the farming system. Cash crop production and the migration of males to urban work centers is increasing the workload of rural Nepali women (2003, p. 338).

Conclusion

Gender disparity is one great problem of Nepal. It causes the problem in social change and development. By nature, male and female are born equally and have equal rights in society and Nation. The study found that more than 88% agreed patriarchy system causes the gender disparity followed by around 51% agreed on culture taboos, 85% agreed on social perception toward gender, 41% agreed on religious belief, 92% agreed on illiteracy, 88% agreed on income, 52% agreed on lack of political awareness and 89% agreed on gender based division of labor. Nepal is announced as the secular (irreligious) country which gave the opportunity to accept the any religion of own interest. So, it may be cause that less than 50% people agreed the role of religion to create the gender disparity in society. Now, people become free from the rule of religion. They want to change their religion if they felt problem because of the rigid norms of religion. Basically, economic sources, social perception and patriarchy system were prevailed in the all types of society so the study found that there was need of further research to explore the corrective measure to address the socio-culture causes of gender disparity.

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