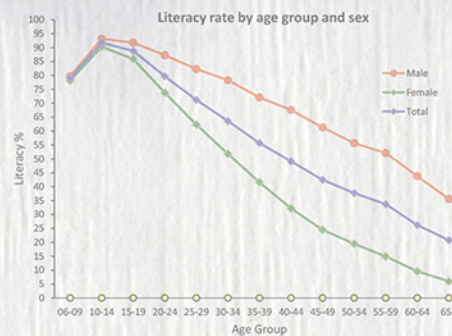




POPULATION MONOGRAPH OF NEPAL

VOLUME II (Social Demography)



Government of Nepal
National Planning Commission Secretariat
Central Bureau of Statistics
Ramshah Path, Kathmandu, Nepal

2014



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Vice-Chairman

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FOREWORD

The National Population and Housing Census 2011 (NPHC2011) marks hundred years in the history of population censuses in Nepal. Nepal has been conducting population censuses almost decennially and the census 2011 is the eleventh one, which was successfully carried out by the Government of Nepal. The census 2011 has been an historical event in many ways. It has successfully applied an ambitious questionnaire through which numerous demographic, social and economic information has been collected.

The 2014 Population Monograph that is being issued in three volumes, is the result of rigorous analysis of the information collected in the census and provides a comprehensive and in-depth picture of different aspects of the population in Nepal which is extremely important for planners, policy makers, researchers, private sectors and other users.

On behalf of the National Planning Commission, I would like to thank the members of the Population Monograph Management Committee headed by Bikash Bista, Director General, Central Bureau of Statistics. I would also like to thank all agencies and individuals, authors, reviewers and CBS staff who have contributed in bringing the publication in this form.

Any valuable comments from the readers would help in improving the Monograph in the future.

December, 2014

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PREFACE

The National Population Census 2011 has provided a wealth of information that is required to understand various socio-economic and demographic changes that have occurred in the country during the intervening period of the two censuses. The Population Monograph of Nepal 2014, an analytical report of the census 2011 presented in three volumes contains in-depth analysis of different topics related to the population of the country prepared by the eminent professionals dealing with such issues in their professional work. The first volume contains 12 chapters related to the population dynamics of Nepal, such as size and structure of the population, nuptiality, fertility, mortality, migration and population projections. The second volume contains 10 chapters on social demography dealing with caste/ethnicity, language, ageing, socioeconomic characteristics, status of gender, education, adolescents and youth, children and disability. Similarly, the third volume consists 9 chapters which include important interlinkages of population and economic variable such as economic activities, urbanization, economic development, environment, status of agriculture and other poverty indicators. Data has been disaggregated by caste, ethnicity, gender and spatial distribution wherever possible. Each chapter has been further reviewed by experts and edited by a professional editor to ensure consistency in the language and terminology used. On behalf of the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) and on my own behalf, I am grateful to all those authors, co-authors and reviewers who have contributed with write-ups and thorough review.

Thanks are due also to CBS staff for their dedication to bring out this publication in time.

Similarly, Giulia Vallese, UNFPA Representative, Bijay Thapa, Assistant Representative, Tirtha Man Tamang, Programme Officer, UNFPA Country Office and Nicholas McTurk, Population and Development Specialist, APRO/UNFPA deserve our special appreciation not only for their active involvement and encouragement in bringing these volumes to light, but also for their contribution in coordinating development partners' contribution in the refinement of the various chapters.

Finally, I would like to thank all respondents who provided invaluable information during the field operation and appreciate all those who had extended hands in this national endeavor and helped to make the census a grand success.

I welcome suggestions from the users of these volumes in order to improve CBS publications in future.

December, 2014
Kathmandu, Nepal.

Bikash Bista
Director General

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VOLUMES AND CHAPTERS

Volume I (Population Dynamics)

Chapter No.	Chapters
1	Centenary of the Population Census of Nepal: A Historical Perspective
2	Population Size, Growth and Distribution
3	Age Sex Composition
4	Nuptiality Trends and Differentials in Nepal
5	Fertility Levels, Patterns and Trend
6	Mortality Levels and Patterns in Nepal
7	Maternal Mortality
8	Life Table Analysis of Nepal
9	International Migration and Citizenship in Nepal
10	Internal Migration in Nepal
11	National Population Census 2011: A Brief Account of Operational Aspect
12	Population Projections for Nepal (2011-2031)

Volume II (Social Demography)

Chapter No.	Chapters
1	Social Composition of the Population: Caste/Ethnicity and Religion in Nepal
2	Language Use in Nepal
3	Aspects of Ageing
4	Social Demography of Nepal: Evidences from Population and Housing Census 2011
5	Literacy and Educational Status of Nepalese Population
6	Changing Gender Status: Achievements and Challenges
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8	Child Population
9	Persons with Disability and Their Characteristics
10	Population Policy in the Context of Changing Demographic Picture of Nepal

Volume III (Economic Demography)

Chapter No.	Chapters
1	Economically Active Population: Dimensions and Dynamics
2	Own Account Economic Activities of Nepalese Households
3	Population and Economic Development
4	Urbanisation in Nepal: Spatial Pattern, Social Demography and Development
5	Human Population and Environmental Problems in Nepal
6	Population and Status of Agriculture
7	Household and Household Structure in Nepal
8	Household Amenities and Durable Goods
9	Structure and Characteristics of Nepalese Housing

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1. Volume I (Population Dynamics)

1.1 Nepal has been conducting population censuses since 1911. The first four censuses were conducted under the Rana Regime and were limited to specific purposes. In 1952/54, the first attempt was made to collect internationally comparable data from the census. Computers were used first in 1971. The census of 1991, the first after the restoration of democracy, collected information on caste and ethnicity. The census of 2001 introduced sampling in the census for the first time. The National Population Census of 2011 is the eleventh census and marks 100 years in the history of census taking in the country.

1.2 The total population of Nepal, as of 22 June 2011, was 26.5 million with a decadal increase of 14.4% from 2001. The population a decade ago, or in 2001, was 23.2 million. The average annual growth rate of the population from 2001 to 2011 was 1.35%, a sharp decline from the 2.25% of the previous decade 1991-2001. The number of households stands at 5.4 million in 2011.

1.3 Households with 1 to 4 members are highest in the census 2011, whereas 5 person households were highest in the 2001 census. Female-headed households have increased by 11 percentage points from 14.87% in 2001 to 25.73% in 2011.

1.4 The number of housing units enumerated in 2011 stands at 4,466,931, which has increased by 868,719 units over the last ten years. Most households live in their own house. However, households residing in rented houses have been gradually increasing in urban areas. Ownership of housing in Tarai and eastern development regions was found to be comparatively low. Most of the houses in Nepal were eleven to twenty years old with single floors. The average number of households per house has increased from 1.16 in 2001 to 1.21 in 2011.

1.5 Discrepancies in access to household amenities and facilities (such as radio, television, mobile phone, vehicles etc.) exist in different parts of the country. The coverage of improved source of drinking water has substantially increased. However there was no substantial change in the use of solid fuel (firewood, leaves, cow-dung and agricultural residue) for cooking. On the contrary, the share of kerosene as cooking fuel has drastically decreased and the percentage of LPG users has significantly increased between the two censuses. Similarly, the coverage of kerosene as a source of lighting fuel has sharply declined during the census periods. Electricity is now a major source of lighting fuel and its coverage has significantly increased in 2011 compared to 2001. The coverage of toilet facilities has also increased during the intercensal period, exceeding 90% in urban areas. A higher disparity was observed in the possession of consumer durable goods and services among urban/rural, ecological zones and development regions.

1.6 The decline in population growth rate from 2.25% in 2001 to 1.35% in 2011 was attributed both to a decline in fertility and the emigration of youth. It will take 51 years to double the population of 2011 if the present growth rate prevails. The growth rate varies in urban and rural areas with 3.38 and 0.98 percentages per year respectively. The highest growth rate (4.78%) is observed in Kathmandu. Twenty-seven (27) districts, all from Mountain and Hill, have experienced negative growth over the last decade. It has been observed that the proportion of the population is gradually declining in Mountain and Hill and steadily increasing in Tarai. The urban population (58 municipalities) accounts for 17.1% of the total population compared to 14.2% in 2001. If the recently declared 72 municipalities are included, making 130 municipalities in total, the urban population is 27% of the total population.

1.7 The sex ratio of Nepal is 94 (94 males per 100 females) in 2011, the lowest in the SAARC region. The ratio was higher (104) in urban areas against 92 in rural areas. The ratio, if looked at by age groups, was found to be lowest in age groups 20-24, 25-29 and 30-34. In 2011, 43 districts were observed to have a sex ratio below 94,

against 20 in 2001 and 6 in 1981. The proportion of children age 0-4 was 9.7% of the total population in 2011, a sharp decline from 15.4% in 1981. On the other hand, the older population (population of age 65 +) has increased from 3.3% in 1981 to 5.3% in 2011. The median age has increased from 18.92 in 1991 to 22.26 in 2011, indicating the gradually ageing population of the country.

1.8 Universality of marriage still prevails in Nepal, although the proportion of single persons is growing. The mean age at marriage for both males and females has increased in both urban and rural areas. Child marriage seems to be persistent in the country. Half of the marriages of ever married persons aged 25 years and below took place before the age of 18, which is the minimum age for legal marriage. Singulate mean age at marriage (SMAM) between males and females is positively correlated with level of education. Divorce rates are an increasing trend. Education and employment programmes should be targeted more to the areas (specifically in central Tarai and mid western hill and mountain) where SMAM is relatively low.

1.9 The census of 2011 indicates that fertility has been declining at a faster rate over the last decade. The crude birth rate for the year 2011 is estimated to be around 22 per thousand. Similarly, the total fertility rate (TFR) of a woman throughout her lifetime is expected to be around 2.52 children against 3.25 in 2001. The rate is even lower in urban areas at just 1.54, which is below fertility replacement levels. This means that the number of children born to a mother in urban areas is not sufficient to replace parents. The rate was 3.04 children in rural areas.

1.10 Mortality is also a declining trend. The crude death rate (CDR), which shows the number of deaths per thousand populations, is estimated to be around 7.3 per thousand populations in 2011 against 10.3 in 2001. The rate is found to be lowest in Tarai, which differs from other demographic indicators of this region. CDR is reported to be lowest in Saptari, Sarlahi and Rautahat. This unusually low rate is attributed to gross under reporting of deaths in the census in that region as the infant mortality rate (IMR) was estimated to be 81 in Rautahat, which is the highest in the country. The CDR of Bhaktapur is the in the country. The IMR was 24 and 43 per thousand live births in urban and rural areas respectively. The rate was highest in Mountain followed by Tarai and Hill. The maternal mortality ratio, which is estimated for the first time on the basis of census data, stands at 480 per hundred thousand live births. The ratio seems to be higher compared to the estimates provided by NDHSs and other sources. The MMR estimated on the basis of census data is just a one point in time estimate so no comparison can be made with other sources. However, the rate is thought to be definitely a declining trend although the level can only be confirmed after the estimate is provided by the next census. MMR is highest again in Tarai (634) followed by Mountain (561) and Hill. Mid-West mountain had 1004, the highest among the ecological development regions.

1.11 Life expectancy at birth (e^0) for the census year 2011 is estimated at 66.6 years against 49.6 in 1981. The life expectancy of females has overtaken males in the last 30 years. Life expectancy at birth for females has increased from 48.1 years in 1981 to 67.9 years in 2011. Estimates of life expectancy at birth for urban and rural areas stand at 70.5 and 66.6 years respectively in 2011. Life expectancy is highest in Hill followed by Mountain and Tarai. Life expectancy is estimated for all 75 districts. Bhaktapur, Kaski, Lalitpur, Kathmandu and Parbat have the highest life expectancy where as Dolpa, Humla, Bajura, Kalikot, Mugu of Mid-West mountain have the lowest. Similarly, Dhanusha, Rautahat and Sarlahi also have the lowest life expectancy.

1.12 Migration has become a prominent phenomenon in the population dynamics of Nepal. Emigration has been outnumbering immigration, which is thought to have had a substantial effect on the decline in fertility. A large volume of the youth population has been consistently moving abroad to different destinations of the world. The absent population of Nepal has been a major issue in demographic, social and economic aspects of the country. The absent population reported in 2011 was 1,921,494, a big jump from the number of 762,181 of the census of 2001. The emigration rate, the number of emigrants (out movers) per thousand population stands at 10.77, whereas the immigration rate is estimated to be 0.46 per thousand populations. Thus, gross and net migration rate stand at 11.23 and 10.32 per thousand respectively. The proportion of female migrants out of total migrants was 12.4% in 2011.

India is still a destination for 37.5% of emigrants in 2011, but the rate has been declining compared to 1981. In 1981, 93.1% of emigrants were destined for India. Most male migrants (47%) were from the age group 15-34 in 2011. ASEAN and the Middle East were other popular destinations. Western hill districts such as Gulmi, Arghakhanchi and Pyuthan had the highest number of households with absent members. In terms of population, districts of Western Hill and Tarai reported the highest number of absentees.

Approximately 2.8% of the total population were born in countries other than Nepal in 2011, an increase from 1.6% in 1981. Of the total foreign-born population, 28.7% reported that they were born in India in 2011; this figure was 29.4 % in 1981. Regarding the length of stay in Nepal, 54% have been living in Nepal for more than 10 years (48% males and 57% females). Fifteen per cent reported that they had been living in Nepal for 6-10 years and 20% for 5 years or less.

1.13 Internal migration is also an important aspect of Nepalese demography. Horizontal (Hill to Hill) and vertical (Mountain and Hill to Tarai) movement of the population has substantially changed the spatial distribution of the population in Nepal. Every political change, be it the victory of King Prithvi Narayan Shaha, or the democratic movement of 1951 or the recent political events of 2005/06 has resulted in a huge tide of population movement in Nepal.

Altogether, 2.6 million inter-district migrants were reported to be lifetime migrants in 2011, an increase from 1.5 million in 1981. The volume of inter-zonal migrants was 2.1 million, out of that about 1.5 million were destined for Tarai. Altogether 56 districts, 49 districts (16 from Mountain, 33 from Hill and 7 from Tarai) experienced net out-migration. Out of the total internal migrants, 84% were literate and 60% were females.

It was reported that 4% of the population cross regional boundaries every year. Districts usually receive populations from adjoining or nearby districts. For example, Kavrepalanchowk, Sindhupalchowk, Dolakha, Ramechhap Dhading, Nuwakot, Makawanpur, Sindhuli, Sarlahi etc. were the source districts for Bhaktapur, Kathmandu, Lalitpur. Similarly, Kathmandu, Udayapur, Morang, Sunsari, Lalitpur, and Jhapa were the destinations for populations from Khotang, Bhojpur and Terhathum.

Volume II (Social Demography)

2. 1 Nepal's child population of age 14 and below constitutes 34.9% of the total population. Children age 16 years and below make up 39.8% of the population and 44.4% are below 19 years. Despite various legislative and programmatic measures to ensure the rights of children, they are still facing many problems that lead to uncertainty and vulnerabilities in their lives.

2.2 There were nearly 9 million young people aged 10-24 years in the country in 2011, which is one third of the total population made up of 51.5% females and 48.5% males. Similarly, adolescents, the young population of 10-19 years, make up 24.2% of the population and youth of the age group (15-24) years make up almost 20% of the total population of Nepal. The distribution of young people across the country by region shows that a significant number of youths live in the Central Development Region, about 36% of the total population of young people, and about one tenth (10%) live in Far-Western Development Region. Similarly, the majority of young people (82%) live in rural areas and almost half of the young people of the country live in the Tarai. Approximately, 9% of the youth of 15-19 years and 21% of the group age 20-24 years reported that they were working and 1% of children of age 10-14 are also employed.

2.3 With the improvement in living standards, educational status and health facilities, the life expectancy of the Nepalese population has been increasing. The ageing index, which indicates the number of old people compared to children, has been consistently increasing over decades. The index has increased from 7.78 in 1971 to 15.50 in 2011.

2.4 The analysis of data has indicated remarkable achievements in the status of literacy, educational attainment and/or school attendance rates of both the male and female population over the years. However, disparities continue to exist across sex, rural-urban, districts and regions. Overall literacy rates have increased to 67% in 2011 from 54% in 2001. Female literacy has increased from 43% in 2001 to 58% in 2011, which places Nepal in fourth position among SAARC countries and above Bhutan, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Afghanistan. About 90% of adolescents can read and write. Similarly, 69% of the population are attending school. Literacy rates of urban and rural areas stand at 82.3% and 62.5% respectively. Kathmandu has the highest literacy rate while Rautahat has the lowest.

2.5 The overall prevalence of disability as of the census of 2011 was 2% in Nepal, with 2.2% prevalence of male disability and 1.7% prevalence for females. The odds ratio of having a disability were 1.3 times more in males compared to females. Physical disability was the most common type of disability, which accounted for more than one third of total disabilities. Physical disability and blindness/low vision combined accounted for more than 50% of total disabilities. Disability in rural residents was more prevalent (2.1%) compared to disability in their urban counterparts (1.2%). The prevalence of disability was considerably higher in Mountain (3.0%) compared to Hill (2.2%) and Tarai (1.6%). More than one third of the disabled are less than 30 years old and only one-fourth of disabled persons are aged 60 years or more. The percentage of persons with a disability in the economically active age group (15 – 59 years) was higher in urban areas (59.5%) than in rural areas (56.1%). The proportion in older ages (60 and above) was higher among women (27.2%) compared to men (24.3%). Disability was significantly higher among illiterates (3.87%).

2.6 Gender equality is a key component of human development, but overall by sector Nepal still has a gender gap. As mentioned above, the female population exceeded the male population in 2011; as a result the sex ratio is low in Nepal mainly due to the huge outflow of youths from Nepal to the Middle East and East Asian countries. Female literacy has remarkably increased in the past decades as indicated above. Similarly, life expectancy of women has increased to 69.6 years, higher than men. There has been a rise in female-headed households in 2011 due to the increase in male migration. Nepal has experienced a decline in maternal mortality in past decades. But, economic empowerment is still a challenge. Only 20.5% of women have assets in 2011, although the proportion has increased from 17.1% in 2001. In addition, women's economic activity is still low in non-agriculture sectors possibly due to a lack of education and a tradition of working in agriculture. Naturally, women engaged in self-employment activities and/or unpaid family labour is very high (64% of females in total). Nevertheless, there has been an increase in female international migration (12.4% in 2011) in recent years. Although the gender gap between males and females in many areas has improved compared to previous censuses, the change is not significant. To overcome the existing gap, allocation and implementation of the gender responsive budget (GRB) has been recommended.

2.7 Identity has been an important issue since the restoration of democracy in 1991. Therefore, a question on caste was included in the censuses conducted in 1991, 2001 as well as in 2011. In fact, data on caste was first included and processed in the census of 1952/54 in Nepal. The total number of castes identified in the census of 2011 was 125, an increase from 100 in 2001 and from 60 in 1991. The increase in the number of castes in the census of 2011 was mainly due to people's awareness of their identity. Chhetri is the largest caste in terms of number (16.6%) as has been the case in all censuses, followed by Hill Brahmin, Magar, Tharu, Tamang, Newar, Kami, Musalman, Yadav and Rai. Substantial population increases in Kami, Patharkata, Hylhmo, Badi and Munda were recorded in 2011. However, the population of these castes is low in number. On the contrary, the population of Kayastha, Raute, Rai, Nurang, Kisan, Sunuwar, Sherpa, Bhote, Lepcha and Chidimar was less in 2011 compared to 2001. Twelve sub groups that were under Rai in the previous census were reported and classified separately in 2011.

Hinduism is reported to be the religion of 81.34% of the population followed by Buddhism (9.04 %), Islam (4.38%), Kirat (3.04 %), Christianity (1.41%), Prakriti and Bon. Christianity has seen a substantial increase in the number of its followers in the last ten years, although the number is still small compared to other religions.

2.8 One hundred and twenty three (123) languages were identified in the census of 2011, an increase from 92 reported in 2001. Nineteen mother tongues were spoken by 96% of the population, while 104 languages were spoken by 4% of the total population. Nepali is spoken by 44.64% of the population in 2011, which was reported to be spoken by 48% in 2001. The majority of the population (59%) were reported to be monolinguals and 41% of the population speak at least one second language.

2.9 Demographic and social indicators of the Nepalese population have been improving on the whole, but, the trend and pattern vary by caste and by region. For example, the population growth rate of different castes varies. Chhetri population is growing annually by 2.%, Brahmin by 1.08%, Magar by 1.52%, Tharu by 1.25%, Tamang by 1.85%, Newar by 0.59%, Kami by 3.46%, Yadav by 1.64% and Rai by 0.24%.

Household size varies by caste. For example, Musalman has a household size of 6.5 persons, Madhesi of 6.0, Newar's of 4.5 and hill Brahmin's of 4.2 persons.

Mean age at marriage is highest for Newar's at 23 years followed by Hill Brahmin's. This age is lowest for Madhesi Dalits and Musalman. Kayastha, Marwadi, Dev, Brahmin, Thakali and Newar were among those who ranked top in literacy. A Musalman woman gives birth to 3.7 children in her lifetime while a Newar woman gives birth to only 1.73 children. However, at the national level, the TFR is declining faster than over the last decade.

Anomalies exist in life expectancy by caste. Estimates of life expectancy seem to be high for Madhesi Dalits, which may be misleading about the socio-economic status of this caste. In fact, illiterate and socially backward castes usually have high mortality, but there is a higher tendency to underreport deaths.

One fourth of hill Dalits do not have access to a supply of safe drinking water. Similarly, only one tenth of Madhesi Dalits had a toilet facility in their housing premises. Eighty three per cent of Hill Brahmin and Newar possess cell (mobile) phones whereas a little over one third of Dalits have one.

In a nutshell, people of Mid-West Mountain and Hill, and Central Tarai are lagging behind in terms of most socio-economic indicators. Eastern, Central, Western hill and Western Tarai are reported to be relatively well-off, although some pockets and selected caste groups of Hill are also reported to be deprived of facilities and amenities. Most Madhesi people are engaged in elementary works whereas Hill people are engaged in professional work.

Volume III (Economic Demography)

3.1 Nepal's urbanisation level is low and much of its urbanisation is induced. Twenty seven per cent of Nepal's population lived in 130 designated urban areas or municipalities in 2014. Today, 62 districts have at least one municipality. Designated municipalities are referred to as urban areas and 7.2 million people live in such municipalities currently. Despite a low level of urbanisation, the annual growth rate of the urban population is 8%, about 6 times higher than the national population. This growth rate is mainly due to the additions in the number of municipalities during the intercensal periods. Regional differences are evident with the central development region and Tarai being more urbanised than mid-west and Mountain. Urban areas of 20,000 to 49,999 people dominate in number and population share. The urban population is relatively mature and literate compared to the rural population. Most of the urban areas, especially those newly declared and those in the Mountain and mid-and far-west, have a rural character in respect to physical facilities, literacy, occupational structure and educational attainment.

3.2 There has been a remarkable shift in the structure of the economically active population in the last 30 years and the changes are also visible over the last 10 years. Census data reveal that economic activity rates have been gradually declining over the intercensal periods. Crude activity rates have declined from 46% of the total

population of 10 years and over in 1981 to 42% in 2011. The trend is similar across regions, ecological belts and by sex. The rate in urban areas is lower than in rural areas, and is lower for females than males. The proportion of the employed population in the primary sector, mainly in agriculture, is gradually declining. But the proportion in the tertiary sector has increased from 6% in 1981 to 24% in 2011. Sixty per cent of the employed population reported agriculture as their main occupation. Among the employed population 27% were employees, 2% were an employer and 66% were own account workers, while 4% of the employed population reported that they had only worked for less than 3 months.

3.3 Households engaged in own account activities in the non-agricultural sector has declined from 20% in 2001 to 14% in 2011. The trend is similar in both rural and urban areas. Of households engaged in own account activities, 40 % are engaged in service activities, 42% in trade and 10% in cottage type industries.

3.4 In the last five decades, while the population has increased by nearly 3 fold, the volume of cultivated land has increased by less than two fold (from 1.6 million hectares to almost 2.5 million hectares). During this period, the average farm size has decreased from 1.1 ha to 0.7 ha per holding. The per capita production of cereals has gone up from 286 to 345 kg from 1971 to 2011. The milk and meat production per capita per year has also been gradually increasing, but the import of food has been increasing during this period indicating external dependence.

3.5 With the change in the population dynamics, social demography and the economic structure of the Nepalese population, the macroeconomic scenario of the country has also been shifting. The contribution of the agriculture sector to the GDP has declined from 61% in 1981 to 31% in 2011, while the contribution of the service sector has increased from 27% to 48% during this period. This structural transformation of the gross domestic product (GDP) from agriculture to service industries has definitely increased real per capita GDP. But, the growth rates of real GDP and GDP per capita are quite slow compared to other developing countries due to a low propensity to save, low labour productivity and low Capital Output Ratio.

3.6 Overall, the census has recorded various socio-economic indicators by spatial area and social groups. It seems that Mid West Mountain and Central Tarai have been lagging behind compared to other parts of the country, although some pockets of other parts of the country are also deprived of basic services. Therefore, in the context of the changing socio-economic and demographic picture of Nepal, a new population policy is imperative to address issues related to women, children, youth, marginalised groups and backward regions with an aim to move the country from least developed to a developing country as envisaged by the Government of Nepal.

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SOCIAL COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION: CASTE/ETHNICITY AND RELIGION IN NEPAL

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CHAPTER 1

SOCIAL COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION: CASTE/ETHNICITY AND RELIGION IN NEPAL

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Abstract

In recent years, caste/ethnicity has become a major social variable in understanding the process of social inclusion/exclusion and the level of socio-economic development of the people in Nepal. Based on the 2011 census data, this chapter examines the social composition of the population encompassing two sets of data: (i) caste/ethnic composition with their population size and its emerging paradigms and issues, and (ii) religion and the changing social context of Nepal. Caste/ethnicity data from three different censuses (starting from the 1991 census when caste /ethnicity data were available) are compared to understand the changing scenario of caste/ethnicity and the religious make up of Nepal. The chapter contends that caste/ethnicity and religion data have become instrumental in understanding the interethnic and interreligious relationships among various groups of people. Finally, the chapter notes that the caste/ethnicity data of the Central Bureau of Statistics over a period of time have become very useful in Nepal not only for planning purposes but also equally useful for those who want to better understand the changes in Nepali society and culture.

1.1 Introduction

The national census plays a very important role not only in providing figures of socio-economic characteristics of the population but also the population size of various ethnic/castes, language and religious groups. After the establishment of a democratic government in Nepal in 1990, the Nepali census has enumerated virtually every aspect of Nepali life, such as family, religion, head of household, language, literacy, caste/ethnicity, occupation, marriage, diseases, and disabilities of the population. The national census has given virtually legal status for these various social categories.

As the rising awareness of caste/ethnicity as cultural identities of people has increased in recent years in Nepal, people have started identifying themselves as a separate cultural group than the “other” category. Caste/ethnicity has also become a distinct cultural identity of people. Some groups, particularly Adibasi/Janajati and Dalits also set out to influence the census taking process while answering the enumerator’s questions. The Nation’s Citizen’s Monitoring Group (2011) has influenced the census taking process. As a result the census has become an instrument to be used in the political, cultural, and religious contentions among various groups of people. The census of 2011 collected data on a vast list of caste/ethnic, language and religious groups in Nepal. The Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) 2011 recorded a list of 1,250 ethnic/caste and 207 religious groups in Nepal. The list contrasted sharply with

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the 2001 census which reported less than 350 ethnic/caste groups (excluding 3 unidentified categories) and 8 religious groups (excluding one other category) in Nepal. However, experts hired by the CBS processed these various code categories of caste/ethnicity and listed them under 125 codes. Those codes that could not be identified properly were categorised as follows:

- Adibasi/Janajati (Others)
- Dalit (Others)
- Tarai-Madheshi (Others)
- Un-identified (Others)
- Foreigners

In reality, these unidentified groups are not separate cultural groups per se; they are one of the groups within these broad cultural categories (such as Adibasi/Janajati, Dalits, and Madhesi).

The CBS could not collect household level individual data, including the caste/ethnicity in 80 villages of nine Maoist insurgency affected districts (Salyan, Kalikot, Jhapa, Surkhet, Mugu, Humla, Jumla and Sindhupalchowk districts) in the 2001 census. This was not the situation in the 2011 census. All cultural groups were interested in providing information on their caste/ethnicity, language, religion and other socio-economic characteristics in all 75 districts of Nepal. With this background information, this chapter attempts to provide a systematic overview and analysis of the social composition of the population based on the 2011 census. It encompasses three sets of social data: (i) ethnic/caste composition, (ii) language and (iii) religion. As the language of people is well covered in another chapter (Chapter 2, Volume 2), this chapter includes language only as a reference for cross tabulation.

Two terms need to be defined, caste and ethnicity. In English language both terms carry the same meaning, that a person born in a particular caste or ethnicity keeps this caste or ethnic status throughout their life. In other words, a person is ascribed his caste or ethnic status by birth. The last name or the family name reflects a person's caste and ethnic status or the distinct cultural identity of a person. In this sense it is an inbuilt position associated with certain kinds of status and rights by birth. However, the terms caste and ethnicity carry a special meaning in Nepal. In Nepal, the term caste basically refers to Dumont's model (1970) of those groups whose social structure is hierarchical and strongly embedded in the Hindu religious values of purity and impurity. In the caste system sometimes a particular person is placed at the top in the hierarchical structure whereas another person is placed at the bottom. Almost all Hindu groups of Nepal such as Brahman, Chhetri, Sanyasi, Maithil Brahman, Rajpur Kayastha and Dalits (so-called "untouchables") come under the "caste" category. The term "ethnicity" encompasses certain kinds of cultural attributes such as a collective name, a common myth of descent, a shared history and association with a specific territory (Smith 1986). Almost all Adibasi/Janajati groups of Nepal fall under this definition.

This chapter uses secondary data, primarily the census report of 2011, and other censuses from different periods for a comparative analysis of caste/ethnicity and religion data over a period of time. This chapter highlights that the democratic wave in Nepal after 1990 has played a major role not only in collecting better census data on ethnic/caste, language and religious groups but these data have also become instrumental in understanding the interethnic and interreligious relationships among various groups of people, which will eventually foster harmony rather than conflict between them. Even today, the institution of caste remains central in understanding the Nepali society. Despite its gradual decreasing importance in urban settings, it plays a major role in rural settings, where more than 75% of the popula-

tion live today. Caste rules cover virtually all major aspects of Nepali life. Even those ethnic groups who claim that they do not have a caste system also practice caste principles in their everyday life.

1.2 Ethnic/caste composition of Nepal

Despite the tremendous importance of ethnic/caste studies in Nepal, no detailed anthropological/sociological survey has been carried out in Nepal to date to identify different ethnic and caste groups and their cultures. Because of this gap in data, the number of ethnic/caste groups differs from one source to another. The CBS identified only 60 ethnic/caste groups in the 1991 census, 100 ethnic/caste groups were further identified in the 2001 census and the list of ethnic/caste groups was 125 in the 2011 census. The Adibasi/Janajati Uthan Prasthan (2002) provided a list of 59 cultural groups within the Adibasi/Janajati category alone. A Technical Committee formed by Adibasi/Janajati Prasthan under the leadership of Om Gurung further updated this list to 81 groups (Om Gurung et al. 2009). The Dalit Ayog (2003) listed 22 separate cultural groups within Dalits. A Technical Committee formed by the Rastriya Dalit Ayog further updated the list of Dalits, adding 7 more groups in the Dalit category, making a total of 29 cultural groups within Dalits (Dobate et al. 2011). The Government identified 92 cultural groups as “Madhesi” in Nepal (Kantipur 2010), although this list is vague as many of these groups are listed under the Madhesi Dalit and Adibasi/Janajati categories. The “Other Backward Caste” Committee listed 24 Madhesi groups in addition to high caste Hindu Madhesi and Dalits (OBC Bulletin 2007) in the Tarai.

In recent years, identification by a separate cultural category is increasing in Nepal. Due to a lack of knowledge of the history and culture of various ethnic/caste groups, sometimes a cultural group is placed either within the Adibasi/Janajati or Madhesi or Dalit category (World Bank, 2006). The ethnographic research carried out by the research team of SIA-EP of Central Department of Sociology and Anthropology (2012-2014) suggested that “Chidimar” community is no longer a Dalit community as outlined by the Rastriya Dalit Ayog (Dahal and Gurung 2014).

These diverse ethnic/caste groups were arranged into five broad cultural groups by Dahal (2003) based on the 2001 census (i) the caste-origin groups; (ii) the Newar, (iii) the Adibasi/Janajati or nationalities, (iv) Muslim or Musalman and (v) Other. As these categories are slightly broad for the purpose of socio-economic analysis, the author has further classified these cultural categories into 9 broad sub-cultural groups: (i) The caste –origin Hill groups, (ii) Hill Adibasi/Janajati groups, (iii) Hill Dalit, (iv) Madhesi caste-origin groups (Level 1), (v) Madhesi caste origin groups (Level 2), (vi) Madhesi caste-origin low caste groups or Dalits (Level 3), (vii) Tarai (Madhesi) Adibasi/Janajati, (viii) Musalman or Muslims, and (ix) Other cultural groups. Although this list of broad cultural subgroups could be debated, the author feels such classification will facilitate further socio-economic and inclusion/exclusion analysis as the caste groups are arranged in the hierarchical model of Nepali social structure. In his paper the author is not using terms such as “high, middle or low caste” to avoid inconsistency and confusion among the caste-origin groups. However, various scholars (Bhattachan 1995; Gurung 2002; Lawati 2005) have continuously argued that “high caste groups” are using much of the nation’s resources and have wielded political power throughout history. These broad cultural categories with the list of 125 ethnic/caste groups based on the 2011 census are provided in Annex 1.1. The summary of the same is given in Table 1.1 below.

Table 1.1: Ethnic/caste groups of Nepal based on nine broad cultural categories, 2011 Census

	Broad cultural groups	Number of ethnic/caste groups	Total population and percentage, 2011 census
1.	Caste – Origin : Hill groups	4	8,278,401 (31.2)
2.	Hill Adibasi/Janajati groups	50	7,228,463 (27.3)
3.	Hill Low caste or dalits	5	2,151,526 (8.1)
4.	Madhesi caste origin groups (socio-economic level 1)	3	220,382 (0.8)
5.	Madhesi caste-origin groups (socio-economic level 2)	31	3851,941 (14.5)
6.	Madhesi low caste groups (socio-economic level 3)	15	1192,517 (4.5)
7.	Madhesi(Tarai) Adibasi/Janajati groups	13	2039,407 (7.7)
8.	Musalman(Muslim)	1	1164,255 (4.4)
9.	Other cultural groups	4*	91,852 (0.3)
10.	Unidentified (noted within these broad cultural categories)		275,670 (1.0)
	Total	126	26,494,504 (100.0)

**Note; " Foreigner" as other cultural category is also included here; otherwise the total ethnic/caste groups is 125 only.*

These caste-origin groups have some distinct cultural features (i) hierarchical structure (one group is placed at the top and the other is placed at the bottom); (ii) hereditary basis of the membership; (iii) endogamy (marrying within one's own cultural group) and, (iv) purity and pollution, which govern the day-to-day life of people based on Hindu religious values. There are three distinct caste-origin groups in Nepal: (i) Caste origin Hill groups, (ii) Caste -origin Tarai groups and, (iii) Caste-origin Newar group. Newar has been placed under the Adibasi/Janajati category by Adibasi/Janajati Uthan Rastriya Prathistan, therefore this group is not treated separately and is grouped under the Adibasi/Janajati category.

1.2.1 Caste – Origin: Hill groups

As in the 2001 Census, the CBS 2011 recorded only 9 groups in the caste-origin Hill groups. The mother tongue of these groups is the Nepali language. The social structure of caste-origin Hill groups is simple, reflecting only three groups in hierarchy in the Varna model (Brahman, Chhetri and Sudra) and there is no four Varna (colour) or Vaisya category within this model. These 9 groups can be organised into two distinct groups considering their socio-economic level of development.

- i. Hill groups: Brahmin, Thakuri, Chhetri and Sanyasi (socio- economic level 1)
- ii. Low caste groups or Dalits: Kami, Damai, Damai, Badi and Gaine (socio-economic level 2).

Sanyasi/Dasnami cultural group has been put in level 1 for various socio-cultural reasons: (a) Like the Hill Brahman and Chhetri they also wear the sacred thread and do all Samskaras (rites-of-passage) like caste Hindus and (ii) Their social and economic conditions are just like Hill Brahman and Chhetri. However, Dasnami group put pressure on the CBS that they should be treated separately from the Sanyasi before publishing the list of caste /ethnic groups from the 2011 census, but the CBS did not record them separately. The caste origin Hill groups together (socio-economic level 1) comprise 31.2% of the total population of Nepal.

There is no change in the list of low caste groups or Dalits in the 2011 census but the Rastriya Dalit Ayog (National Commission on Dalits), a government organisation, has given a separate caste name to the following Dalit groups without giving any notice to the CBS.

- Viswarkama for Kami, Lohar, Sunar, Ode, Chunara, Parki, Tamata
- Sarki (Mijar, Charmakar, Bhul)
- Pariyar as Damai, Darji, Suchikar, Nagarchi, Dholi, and Hudke
- Gandharva as Gaine
- Badi.

Viswakarma (Creator of the earth in Hindu religion) is a title, just like Upadhyaya is for the Brahman. Pariyar is one of the clan names of Damai and Gandharva is the name of the Hindu deity whose profession is singing and dancing. It is likely that many of the Dalit groups wanted to conceal their identity so that other cultural groups did not humiliate them socially. However, the CBS has not changed these new names and put the same caste names as used in the 2001 census for the Hill Dalits. Hill Dalits or low caste groups made up 8.1% of the total population in the 2011 census.

1.2.2 Caste – Origin: Tarai groups

The CBS 2011 recorded 48 caste-origin groups in the Tarai (3 caste-origin groups, socio-economic level 1, 30 caste-origin groups, socio-economic level 2, and 15 low caste or Dalits, at socio-economic level 3). Most of these groups prefer to call themselves “Madhesi”. The social structure of the caste-origin of the Tarai groups is complex, reflecting four Varna groups with distinct hierarchical structures within them: Brahman (Maithil Brahman), Rajput (Chhetri), Vaisya (31 groups come under this category) and Sudra or low caste (15 sub groups). The three caste groups – Brahman, Rajput and Kayastha – comprise 0.835% of the total population; they are the most powerful groups even today in terms of literacy, economic and political status, not only in Tarai, but also in Nepal as a whole.

In the socio-economic level 2 or the Vaisya category, there are 30 caste groups such as Yadav, Halwai, Koeri, Hajam, Sonar, Lohar, Rajbhar and others. Unlike in the Hills, the Lohar of the Tarai is the water acceptable community and are not treated as Dalits. In total, these 30 sub-cultural groups comprise 14.5% of the total population. The 2011 census has added three more groups in this category: Rajdhob, Amat and Dev. In the 2001 census, the Rajdhob cultural group was merged into the Dhobi category. However, Rajdhob is the group from whom water is accepted by all caste groups of the Tarai and who are not treated as “untouchables”. Similarly Amat is treated as a separate cultural group, although they were merged in the Newar group in the 2001 census, considering them as “Amatya” (a typological error which converted Amat into Amatya). Although Dev claim to be a high caste group of the Tarai, they are placed under the level 2 socio-economic category as many Tarai respondents are not clear about their socio-economic status. Some years ago, cultural sub-groups such as Sudi, Kalwar and Teli (Saha) were not considered as water acceptable communities in the Tarai. Today, they are one of the powerful communities in the Tarai socially, economically and politically and therefore are treated as a water acceptable community in many areas of the Tarai. Many members of these communities run businesses, lend money to people, and are employed as engineers, doctors and technicians.

Among the low caste groups of the Tarai or Sudra, (so-called “untouchables”) there were 15 groups in the 2011 census. Six more groups were added as low caste groups of the Tarai in the 2011 census: Kalar, Natuwa, Dhandi, Dhanikar/Dharikar, Kori and Sarbariya. The Rastriya Dalit Ayog had already listed Kalar, Kori and Sarbariya (Sarabhanga) as Dalits as early as 2001 and the updated list of Dalits provided by the Technical Committee suggested that the following groups were included as Dalit: Natuwa, Dahandi and Dhanikar /Dharikar. They account for 4.5% of the total population of Nepal. For

the purpose of analysis “Chidimar” is not placed here under the Dalit category as they are not treated as Dalits in the Tarai (Dahal and Gurung 2014). However, the Rastriya Dalit Ayog treats this group as Dalits even today.

These caste-origin Madhesi cultural communities belong to four distinct language groups: Maithili, Bajika, Bhojpuri, and Awadhi. More than 99% of these groups follow the Hindu religion. Excluding the Tarai Adibasi, these caste origin Tarai or Madhesi groups make up 19.86% of the total population of Nepal.

1.2.3 Adibasi/janajati (ethnic groups / Nationalities)

The National Committee of Nationalities has noted 59 distinct cultural groups as Janajati (published in Nepal Rajpatra, February 2, 2002). The definition of Adibasi/Janajati (or nationalities) by Adibasi/Janajati Uthan Rastriya Prathisthan is as follows:

“Nationality (Janajati) is that community which has its own mother tongue and traditional culture and yet do not fall under the conventional fourfold Varna of Hindu or Hindu hierarchical caste structure”.

Historically, many of these Janajati groups used to occupy a particular habitat or territory, and thus many of them claim that they are the true “First Settlers” (Adivasi) of Nepal. But the question of who should be treated as Adibasi/Janajati group is under contention among academics (e.g. Dahal 1993; Pradhan 1996.). The definition of Adibasi/Janajati seems extremely elusive and arbitrary in the context of Nepal as many of the “Adibasi/Janajati groups” are Hindus. For example, the Newar group, whose Hindu population was 84.1% according to the 2001 census has increased to 97.4% of the Hindu population in the 2011 census. Similarly 94% of Tharus and 79% of Magars were reported as Hindus in the 2011 census. In fact, many Adibasi/Janajati groups have claimed to be Hindus in various proportions (see Annex 1.4).

The Janajati groups are divided regionally into two distinct cultural groups: Hill Janajati and Tarai Janajati. Some of the Hill Janajati groups are: Newar, Magar, Gurung Rai, Limbu, Sherpa, Sunuwar, Bhote, Raji, Raute and others. Some of the Tarai (Madhesi) Janajati groups are: Tharu, Dhimal, Gangu, Satar/Santhal, Dahngar/Jhangar, Koche, and others. Some scholars do not consider Tharus and other Tarai Janajati groups within the Madhesi group as they are the real sons of the soils of the area (Chaudhary 2007).

The total population of Adibasi/Janajati groups (50 Hill and Mountain groups and 13 Tarai groups) is 9,267,870 or 34.97% of the total population of Nepal. Of them 50 groups (total population: 7,228,263) are from the Hill and Mountain districts and another 13 groups (total population: 2,039,407) are from the Tarai. Among the Hill Adibasi /Janajati, six groups alone (Magar, Tamang, Newar, Rai, Gurung and Limbu) make up (total population: 6,279,441) 86.9% of the total Adibasi/Janajati population. Among the Tarai Adibasi Janajati, one group Tharu (1,737,470) account for 85.2% of the total Tarai Adibasi/Janajati groups. These seven Adibasi/Janajati groups comprise (8,016,911) 86.5% of the total Adibasi/Janajati population of Nepal.

Though Newar is placed under the Adibasi/Janajati category, the case of Newar is unique and exceptional. This group not only illustrates the complicated social structures among all groups in Nepal, it also truly reflects the model of the four Hindu Varna categories and is clearly divided into two distinct religious groups, the Hindu and the Buddhists. Newars are divided internally into more than 40 distinct cultural groups with

different occupational categories, although they share a common language (mother-tongue) Newari. As in the 2001 census, the CBS has recorded Newar as a single cultural group in the 2011 census as well. The Newar population alone accounts for 14.3% of the total Adibasi/Janajati population.

The CBS could only record 42 Adibasi/Janajati groups with their population size in the 2001 census (17 groups were not identified) but the 2011 census added 6 more Adibasi/Janajati groups with their population size. However, the CBS in 2011 has not reported the following 11 groups: Chairotan, Tin Gaule Thakali, Thudam, Free, Bankariya, Barah Gaunle, Tabe, Marphali Thakali, Larke, Siyar and Surel. There could be two reasons for not reporting these groups in the 2011 Census: (i) The number of these groups is very small, and therefore the CBS finds it difficult to describe their various socio-economic characteristics and therefore omitted these groups from the list, and (ii) They were not found at the time of census enumeration. It is likely that the first reason is more plausible as the CBS has recorded many sub-groups with small numbers as well.

Among the Adibasi/Janajati groups, the CBS has reported many sub-cultural groups which could easily be labelled within the Adiabasi/Janajati category but yet are recognised as Adiabasi/Janajati by the Janajati Uthan Rastriya Prathisthan, a government organisation. For example, the case of Rai as a single cultural group posed many challenges for enumeration in the 2011 census. Many of the cultural groups under the label of Rai who were grouped together as Rai in the 2001 census were reported as separate cultural groups in the 2011 census. The Kirat Rai Yayokha even put pressure on the CBS not to publish the list of other Rai sub-groups as it felt this would cause the Rai Community to disintegrate as a whole (Rajdhani 21 Bhadau 2069 [August 2012]). The updated list of Adibasi/Janajati groups by Om Gurung and others (Om Gurung et al. 2009) has yet to be approved by the Adibasi/Janajati Uthan Rastriya Prathisthan. The updated list of various Rai groups and “other groups” in the 2011 census who could be treated as Adibasi/Janajati are listed in Table 1.2 below with their population size.

Table 1.2: Added Rai subgroups and other cultural groups with their population size, 2011 Census

S.No.	Caste/ethnic	Population	S.No.	Caste/ethnic	Population
Rai subgroups					
1.	Kulung	28,613	2.	Nachiring	7,154
3.	Yamphu	6,933	4.	Chamling	6,668
5.	Athpahariya	5,977	6.	Bantaba(Bantawa)	4,604
7.	Thulung	3,535	8.	Mewahang Bala (Mewahang)	3,100
9.	Bahing	3,096	10.	Sampang	1,681
11.	Khaling	1,571	12.	Lohorung	1,153
Rai subgroups total		72,404			
Other cultural groups (Hills) :					
1.	Ghale	22,881	2.	Khawas	18,513
Total		41,394			

In brief, 12 Rai subgroups and an additional 2 other cultural groups were reported in the 2011 Census. Although the population size of Dolpo, Lhopa and Topkegola was not reported in the 2001 Census, these groups, with their population size, were reported in the 2011 Census. The Chidimar is recorded

as Dalit by the Rasitrya Dalit Ayog, but the SIA-EP study (Dahal and Gurung 2014) clearly shows that Chidimar are not treated as Dalits in their everyday life by communities of the area. So Chidimar is placed under the Adiabsi/Janajati category in this chapter as well.

1.2.4 Musalman

In the 2001 census, the CBS recorded two cultural groups within Musalman: i) Musalman and ii) Churaute. A large number of the Musalman population live in the Tarai, while the small Hill Musalman group, popularly known as Churaute, live in the Western Hill districts. However not a single Hill Churaute is reported in the 2011 Census. It is likely that Hill Churaute have identified themselves as Musalman rather than identifying themselves as Churaute per se. The Musalman account for 4.4% of the total population and numerically occupy the 8th highest position in the 2011 census. So population wise, the Musalman is not a minority group.

1.2.5 Other (cultural groups)

In the 2011 census the CBS recorded four subgroups within this category: Marwari, Bangali, Punjabi/Sikh and Foreigner. Most of these cultural groups are relatively recent migrants in Nepal who came to do business and other specialised work (Dahal 1978; Bista 1967). Apart from the “foreigner category” most of the members of these communities have obtained Nepali citizenship. In the 2001 census, foreigners were not reported separately. Although they represent only 0.34% of the population, they are the most powerful economic groups in Nepal. For example, although the Marwari community has a recent history in Nepal (see Himal Khabarpatrika, March 2014), they are the most powerful merchant groups living in Nepal today. They possess one of the highest literacy rates in the 2011 census. Similarly, the Bangali populations maintain professional positions as doctors, pharmacists, businessmen and politicians. Likewise, Punjabi/Sikh came to Nepal as transport businessmen, motor mechanics and repairers and they run auto shops and are employed in government jobs as well. Birgunj was developed as a city and municipality by Mr. Pasupati Ghosh, a Bangali Nepali, who became a minister during the Panchayat regime (1960-90) and also a town, Pasupatinagar, is named after him in Birjung municipality.

1.3 Distinct ethnic/caste features reported in various censuses

Some of the distinct ethnic/caste features reported in various censuses are given in Table 1.3 below.

Table 1.3: Some distinct ethnic/caste features reported in the 1991, 2001 and 2011 censuses

Region	1991 census	2001 census	2011 census
Total ethnic /caste groups reported	60	100	125
Mountain	3	5	9
Hill	27	45	55
Tarai	29	50	61
Addition of ethnic/caste groups from previous census	Not applicable	40	25
Ethnic/caste groups listed in the previous census were not reported in following census	Not applicable	1	2
Ethnic/caste groups' population counted in "other" category (%)	4.44	1.80	1.04
Number of ethnic /caste groups whose population size declined than the previous census	Note applicable	9	10

Source: CBS, 1991, 2001 and 2011 censuses

The increased number of ethnic caste groups over a period of time is due to the rising ethnic awareness and cultural identity among various groups of people in Nepal since 1990. Twenty-five ethnic/caste groups were added in different ecological regions. From the Hill region, a large number of Adibasi/Janajati groups were added because many sub-cultural groups were listed in the 2011 census (see Table 1.2 above).

The Table clearly shows that a number of ethnic/caste groups were added in the Mountain, Hill and Tarai in the 2011 census. In the Mountain, Hill and Tarai, 80.%, 22.2% and 22% of groups have been added respectively. The increasing number of groups over the period of time between censuses clearly shows that ethnic awareness and the cultural identity of people have become more pronounced over the years. It further shows that Nepal is a multi-ethnic country, which could pose challenges for the nation-building process in the coming years (such as the federalisation of Nepal with caste/ethnicity principles). On the other hand, diverse cultural groups are also assets of the nation as they have distinct forms of art, technology, food, dance, songs etc. contributing to the greater Nepali culture.

There are only two ethnic/caste groups which were reported in the 2001 census and not reported in the 2011 census: Jain and Churaute. The Jain or Jaine group, which was reported separately in the 2001 census, is merged with the Marwari category in the 2011 census. It is because Jain is a religious rather than a separate cultural group. The reasons Churaute did not report themselves as a separate cultural group is mentioned above.

The percentage of "other" category cultural groups are declining which suggests that the CBS is more prepared than before in identifying the various cultural groups of Nepal.

In a normal situation, the population size of an ethnic/caste group does not decline substantially over a period of time and changes occur only in the following conditions: natural calamities or war or deadly diseases during a period of time. Similarly, the population size of a group increases in substantial num-

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bers only when the flow of the same group of people increases from outside of the country or the fertility rates of that group are very high during a certain period. In some cases, both reasons could occur. In Nepal, the population size of some groups has substantially declined or increased between the 2001 and 2011 census periods, without any such events taking place. The ethnic/caste group whose population size has increased/decreased between the 2001 and 2011 censuses is presented in Table 1.4 below.

Table 1.4: Ethnic/caste groups whose population size increased /decreased substantially between 2001 and 2011 censuses

Ethnic/caste groups	Total population of ethnic/caste groups (2001 Census)	Total population of ethnic/caste groups (2011 Census)	Decreased/increased in number, percentage
Ethnic/caste group whose Population increased substantially between 2001-2011 censuses			
1. Kami	895,954	1,258,554	+362,600 (+40.5%)
1. Patharkatta/Kushwadia	552	3,182	+2,630 (+476.4%)
2. Hylhmo (or Hyolmo)	579	10,752	+10,173 (+1757%)
3. Badi	4,893	38,603	+033710 (677.9%)
4. Munda	660	2,350	1690 (+256.1%)
Total	902,638	1,313,441	410,803 (45.5%)
Ethnic/caste groups whose Population decreased substantially between 2001-2011 censuses			
1. Kayastha	53,545	44,304	-9,241 (-17.3%)
2. Raute	658	618	- 40 (-6.1%).
3. Rai	635,151	620,004	-15,147 (-2.4%)
4. Nurang	17,522	278	-17,244 (-98.4%)
5. Kisan	2,876	1,739	-1137 (-39.5%)
6. Sunuwar	92,254	55,172	37082 (-40.2%).
7. Sherpa	154,622	112,946	41,676 (27.0%)
8. Bhote	19,621	13,397	-6624 (33.8%)
9. Lepcha	3,600	3,445	155 (4.3%)
10 Chidimar	12,296	1,254	-11042 (89.8%)
Total	992,145	853,157	138,988 (-14.0)

Source: CBS 2001 and 2011 censuses.

In total, the population size of ten ethnic/caste groups has declined substantially between the 2001 and 2011 censuses. In the 2011 census, the cultural group Nurang was virtually absent, although this group was recorded in substantial numbers in the 2001 census. This could be due to misreporting of the cultural group Nurang in the 2001 census. The Sherpa population declined because many Hyolmo who identified as Sherpas in the 2001 census identified themselves as Hyolmo in the 2011 Census This is due to the rising ethnic identity of the population as a whole. The Rai population declined because many Rai sub-groups (12 sub-groups with a total population of 72,404) who identified as Rai in the 2001 census, reported themselves as a separate cultural group other than Rai in the 2011 census. The cases of Chidimar and Kisan are very different. In the 2001 census, many of them were simply reported mistakenly as Kisan and Chidimar due to similar caste groups living in the surrounding areas. The research undertaken by research institutions (CNAS, 2012 and SIA-EP, 2014) justify that the 2011 census

data are more accurate in providing figures of these respective groups. The decline in population of other groups is also caused by the over enumeration of their respective communities in the 2001 census.

The substantial population growth of five cultural groups is interesting. In the case of Kami, many of them had concealed their own caste identity, putting down a surname of either the high caste Hindu groups or simply reporting themselves as Dalit, without identifying their own caste in the 2001 census. Recording of Badi was also the same in the 2001 census. Many of them simply put their family name “Nepali”, and later the CBS labelled them as Dalit or unidentified Dalit. However due to the affirmative policy of the government for Dalit groups after 2001, and rising ethnic awareness among them, these cultural groups have started enumerating themselves in their own ethnic/caste category. As the government started providing special allowances for marginal groups among the Adiabsi/Janajati groups, the Kushwadia and Munda reported themselves correctly in the 2011 census.

It is also pertinent to compare whether the major groups by number have changed or not over the period since 1991. Ten major groups by number recorded in 1991, 2001 and 2011 censuses are given in Table 1.5 below.

Table 1.5: Changes in population size among 10 major groups in Nepal , 1991, 2001 and 2011 Censuses

10 numerically dominant ethnic/caste groups by number	1991 Census (pop. size and % of total)	2001 Census (pop. size and % of total)	2011 Census (pop. Size and % of total)	Changes in number and (2001-2011 census)	Population growth rate (2001-2011 censuses)
Chhetri	2,968,082 (16.1)	3,593,496 (15.8)	4,398,053 (16.6)	804,657	2.04
Brahman-Hill	2,388,456 (12.9)	2,896,477 (12.7)	3,226,903 (12.2)	330,426	1.08
Magar	1,339,308 (7.2)	1,622,421 (7.1)	1,887,733 (7.1)	265,312	1.52
Tharu	1,194,224 (6.5)	1,533,879 (6.8)	1,737,470 (6.6)	203,591	1.25
Tamang	1,081,252 (5.8)	1,282,304 (5.6)	1,539,830 (5.8)	257,526	1.84
Newar	1,041,090 (5.6)	1,245,232 (5.6)	1,321,933 (5.0)	76,701	0.59
Kami	963,656 (5.2)	895,954 (4.0)	1258,554 (4.8)	362,600	3.46
Musalman	653,055 (3.5)	971,056 (4.3)	1164,255 (4.4)	193,199	1.83
Yadav	765,137	895,423 (4.0)	1054,458 (4.0)	159,035	1.64
Rai	525,557 (2.8)	635,151 (2.8)	620,004 (2.3)	-15,147	-0.24
Total (10 groups)	12,919,815 (69.7)	14,675,439 (68.7)	18,209,196 (68.7)	3,533,757	2.18
Nepal	18,491,097	23,151,423	26,494,504		1.35

Source: CBS 2001 and 2011 Censuses

Four things are worth mentioning about Table 1.5 above: (i) All ten ethnic/caste virtually maintained the same ranking in their population size over the last three censuses, 1991, 2001 and 2011; ii) The population size and ranking of Kami and Musalman had slightly changed in the 2001 census; iii) The population of Rai group has declined moderately between the 2001 and 2011 censuses, whereas the population of Kami has increased substantially between the 2001 and 2011 censuses. The growth rate of the Newar population between the 2001 and 2011 censuses has remained low, compared with growth rates in Nepal and other groups as well. Ten ethnic/caste groups almost maintained 69% of the total population of Nepal. Chhetri alone constituted 16.6% of the total population, an increase of 0.8% from the 2001 Census. Chhetri and Hill Brahman (Brahmin) together comprised 28.8% of the total population. One can easily say that these ten ethnic/caste are major or dominant ethnic/caste groups by number in Nepal.

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1.4 Ethnic/caste groups highest in number by district

Considering the context of a federal structure and the restructuring of the state in Nepal as the crux of the issues in the Constitution drafting process of the Constituent Assembly, it is useful to know and understand which ethnic/caste groups represent the highest number by districts in Nepal. The four ethnic/caste groups whose number is highest in the 75 districts of Nepal are given in Annex 1.2. A summary, representing highest ethnic/caste groups by number in different districts of Nepal is given in Table 1.6 below.

Table 1.6: Ethnic/caste groups highest in number by district, 2001 and 2011 Censuses

Ethnic/caste groups	No. of groups highest by district, 2001 Census	Number of groups highest by district, 2011 Census	Districts highest in Number in 2001 Census	Changes in number of ethnic/caste groups by district (highest/not highest by number in 2011 Census
1.Chhetri	21	24	Okhaldhunga; Udaypur; Ramechhap; Dolakha; Rukum; Salyan; Surkhet; Dailekh; Jajarkot; Dolpa; Jumla; Mugu; Humla; Bajura; Bajhyang; Acham; Doti; Kailali; Dadeldhura; Baitadi; and Darchula	Four more districts were added from the 2001 census : (Dhankuta, Sankhuwasabha Kalikot and Kanchanpur) but no Rukum district in 2011 census
2.Hill Brahmin/ Brahman)	10	11	Jhapa; Morang; Chitwan; Syanga; Kaski; Parbat Gulmi; Rupandehi; Arghakhanchi and Kalikot	one district is added (Kathmandu)
3.Rai	6	4	Ilam; Bhojpur; Solukhumbhu; Khotang; Dhankuta and Terathum	No Dhankuta and Terathum districts in 2011 census
4. Limbu	3	3	Taplejung; Panchthar and Terathum	No change between 2001 and 2011 censuses
5. Newar	3	2	Kathmandu; Lalitpur; Bhaktapur	No Kathmandu district in 2011 census
6. Magar	7	9	Tanahu; Myagdi; Baglung; Palpa; Nawalparasi; Piuthan and Rolpa	Two more districts(Rukum, and Rupandehi) were added in 2011 census
7. Gurung	4	3	Gorkha; Lamjung; Mannag; Mustang	No Mustang district in 2011 census
8. Tamang	7	6	Sindhuli; Kavrepalanchowk, Nuwakot; Rasuwa; Dhading; Makwanpur and Sindhupalchowk ;	No Sindhupalchowk district in 2011 census
9. Tharu	4	3	Sunsari; Dang; Bardiya and Kailali	No Kailali district in 2011 census
10. Yadav	5	5	Saptari; Siraha; Dhanusa; Mahottari and Sarlahi	No change in districts between 2001 and 2011 censuses
11. Musalman	5	5	Rautahat; Bara; Parsa; Kapilbastu; and Banke	No change in districts between 2001 -2011 censuses

Source: CBS 2001 and 2011 censuses

In 2011, Hill Brahman and Chhetri together comprised the single largest cluster in 35 districts (46.7%) of the population of Nepal, although they account for only 28.6% of the total population. In other words, the spread of these groups has resulted in a gain of four districts compared to a decade ago, giving them first rank in population by district.

Although Newar populations have increased between the 2001 and 2011 censuses, the Newar group no longer maintains numerically the highest position in Kathmandu district in the 2011 census. It is simply because a large number of Hill Brahman populations, and other groups have migrated into the Kathmandu valley because of the Maoist insurgency in Nepal from 1996 to 2006 for reasons of security and employment. In addition, every year a lot of people migrate to the Kathmandu valley searching for jobs, etc. and eventually settle in Kathmandu district.

Although the Rai maintained numerically the highest position in six districts in the 2001 census this is not the case in the 2011 Census. This is not only because the population of Rai has declined over this period of time but also because many sub-cultural groups, such as Lohorung, Thulung, Kulung, Athapahariya, Yamphu and others consider themselves as separate cultural groups from the Rai. Similarly Gurung maintained the highest rank in only three districts and Manang was no longer included in their list in the 2011 census. Likewise, Tamangs could not maintain their numerical strength in Sindhu-palchowk district in the 2011 census.

Limbu, Yadav and Musalman maintained their status quo and their positions being numerically highest have not changed between the 2001 and the 2011 censuses. On the other hand, Magars have improved, maintaining their strength in population, being numerically third in the country, and also gaining two more districts, Rukum and Rupandehi, in the 2011 census. As a lot of Maoist cadres from Rukum were Magars, they did not cooperate in the census taking operation in 2001, but the situation was different in the 2011 census and Magars populations of Rukum district cooperated in census taking and reported themselves correctly.

Though Kami ranks 5th, 8th and 7th position in population size in the 1991, 2001 and 2011 censuses respectively, they did not rank first numerically in any district of Nepal. This is because they are spread over the country in various proportions.

In the 2011 census as well, most of the Hill and Mountain districts are relatively homogenous in terms of ethnic/caste composition compared with Tarai districts. Considering the four most represented (numerically highest) ethnic/caste groups in the Hill and Mountain districts, the population size of these four groups fluctuates from 45.3% (lowest in Sankhuwasabha district) to 92.8% in Rolpa district. In the 2001 census Bhaktapur district maintained the highest percentage of a homogeneous population. Some of the most homogeneous Hill and Mountain districts in terms of combining four ethnic/caste compositions in the 2011 census are: Darchula (91.3%), Rasuwa (89.5%), Rukum (89.3%), Bhaktapur (88.9%) and Bajhyang (88.9%).

The Nepal Tarai is far more diverse in terms of ethnic/caste composition than the Hill and Mountain districts. Except for the two far-western Tarai districts, such as Kailali (where Tharu is the major group) and Kanchanpur (Tharu group) and the eastern Tarai district such as Jhapa (where the Hill Brahman population is the highest), the rest of the Tarai districts have hardly any uniformity, 49% Arghakhanchi to 36.4% Morang, representing four major ethnic/caste groups of the district. The most heterogeneous Tarai districts combining four ethnic/caste groups are: Morang (36.4%), Sarlahi, (36.7%), Parsa (37.0%) and Bara (38.9%) .

There are several reasons why the Tarai districts are heterogeneous in terms of ethnic/caste composition: i) There is a highly hierarchically stratified society, particularly among the Hindu caste groups and ii) There has been heavy migration of Hill people to the area after the 1960s.

1.5 Rural/urban population by ethnic /caste groups, 2011 Census

According to the 2011 census, only 17.1% (urban people: 4,523,820 based on 58 municipalities) of the total population of Nepal are urban. However, the Government of Nepal has recently announced 72 new municipalities (incorporating 283 VDCs), making a total of 130 municipalities in Nepal. Combing all these new municipalities, the total urban population is 27.2% in Nepal today. In fact many of these municipalities lack urban characteristics in the absence of even minimum infrastructural facilities. In terms of ethnic/caste composition the most urban and least urban by ethnic groups is detailed in Table 1.7.

Table 1.7: Ten ethnic/caste groups, representing highest percentage of urban population in 2001 and 2011 Censuses

<i>Ethnic/caste groups</i>	<i>Ethnic/caste groups with % of urban population, 2001</i>	<i>Ethnic/caste groups with % of urban population, 2011</i>
Marwari	72.5	70.1
Bangali	56.3	40.9
Punjabi/Sikh	-	39.3
Newar	46.5	48.6
Thakali	39.6	45.0
Halkhor	69.0	74.1
Chidimar	38.3	77.0
Kayatha	41.0	48.5
Dev	-	53.0
Kathbaniya (Baniya)	29.6	31.3

Source: CBS 2001 and 2011 censuses

Considering its 6th position in population size in the 2011 census, Newar could be considered a highly urbanised population in Nepal (urban population: 641,963). As Newars are historically businessmen and settled mostly in the Kathmandu valley (comprising the three big cities of Nepal: Kathmandu, Lalitpur and Bhaktapur) and other market areas of Nepal outside the Kathmandu Valley, it is natural that the urban population is higher among them as a whole. But in terms of numbers, the Hill Brahman group has the highest urban population (875,720 or 27.1%) in Nepal.

Compared with Hill Dalits, the Tarai skilled groups such as Halkhor and Dom are highly urbanised in Nepal. This is simply because Halkhor, who are popularly known as Mehattar, are involved in menial work - they clean toilets and streets in urban areas. The other group is the Dom (23.1% urban) who along with their occupation of basket making, also clean toilets and work as sweepers in urban areas. These groups are mostly employed in the municipalities of the Tarai, such as Janakpur and Birgunj. Similarly Chidimar is the most urbanised group (77.0%) because most of them have lived historically in the Nepalgunj municipality area. In other words, the urban area provides employment to many poor people, who make their livelihood doing different kinds of odd jobs.

Except Newar and Hill Brahmin, all the other 8 major groups by number are the least urbanised ethnic/caste groups (in most of the cases the urban population is 10-17% only). Only 8.0% of the Yadav popu-

lation is urban, suggesting that they are mostly rural people or farmers. As a whole, the least urbanised populations come mainly from the Adibasi/Janajati groups; Dolpo (0.04%), Lhopa (1.9%), Chepang (2.4%), and Gangai (1.3%). The low proportion of urban population is simply because historically they live in their traditional habitat, which is mostly farming areas made up of forests and riverbeds. The other highly urbanised group among the Adibasi/Janajati is Thakali (45%) as many of them have migrated to city areas from their traditional homeland (Mustang) and do business of different types (hotels, contractors, and grocery shops).

1.6 Literacy by ethnic/caste groups

As a whole, the literacy rate of Nepal is increasing consistently over time by sex. The literacy rate, which was barely 4.3% in the 1952/54 census, has increased to 65.9% in the 2011 census. Likewise, the male and female literacy rate has also increased significantly, although the female literacy rate has remained lower than males throughout the censuses. Throughout history, the female literacy rate has always been lower than the male literacy rate among various ethnic/caste groups. It is only in recent years that female literacy is equally encouraged at primary and secondary levels of education. In higher education, women are still not fully encouraged to go outside of their hometown or their district area for higher education (see Dahal, 2009).

Literacy of all ethnic/caste groups based on the 2011 census by sex is given in Annex 1.3. Despite all the efforts of the government, NGOs and INGOs, the literacy rate of 76 ethnic/caste groups is below the national average. The lowest literacy rate is that of Dom, Musahar, Bin, Dolpo, Natawa, Kori, Dhuniya, Nuniya, Dushad and Chamar. In brief, 76 ethnic/caste groups of Nepal (60.88%) do not meet the national average levels of literacy and this demands immediate attention by concerned agencies to improve their literacy status in Nepal. Ten ethnic/caste groups whose literacy rate is highest in the 2011 census by sex are given in Table 1.8.

Table 1.8: Ten ethnic /caste groups with the highest literacy rate , 2011 Census

Ethnic/Caste groups	Male literacy rate	Female literacy rate	Total literacy rate (2011)	Total literacy rate (ranking in 2001 census)
Kayastha	92.13	82.11	87.27	82.05 (3 rd)
Marwadi	90.83	82.91	87.06	89.31 (2 nd)
Dev	90.86	77.14	84.51	Not reported
Hill Brahman	90.59	74.02	81.89	74.90 (fifth)
Brahman (Tarai)	88.93	72.62	81.06	70.70 (8 th)
Thakali	89.11	73.04	80.48	75.66 (4 th)
Newar	87.94	72.72	80.07	71.22 (7 th)
Rajput	86.80	72.10	79.93	70.33 (10 th)
Loharung (Lohorung)	87.62	71.53	79.40	Not reported
Chamling	84.63	70.62	77.07	Not reported
Nepal	75.13	57.38	65.94	

Source: CBS 2011 Census

The highest literacy rate by caste/ethnicity in 2011 has changed moderately compared with the 2001 census. Jain, who had the highest literacy rate in the 2001 census, (93.94%) is no longer recorded as a

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separate cultural group in the 2011 census. In the 2011 census, Kayastha has the highest literacy rate, followed by Marwari, Dev (a new Madhesi caste group added in the 2011 census) and Hill Brahman. Although Thakali has substantially improved their literacy rate in the 2011 census, they only rank in sixth position. The new cultural groups added in the 2011 census, such as Dev, Lohorung and Chamling ranked 3rd, 9th and 10th in position in terms of literacy rates respectively. Lohorung and Chamling cultural groups were part of the Rai group in the 2001 Census but were recorded separately in the 2011 census.

All four so called high caste ranking Hindu groups of the Tarai, such as the Maithil Brahmin, Kayastha, Rajput and Dev have the highest literacy rates in the 2011 census. The so-called politically dominant high caste Hill Hindu groups such as Thakuri (literacy rate: 73.60%) and Chhetri (literacy rate: 72.13%), respectively ranked 14th and 15th in terms of literacy rates in the 2011 census.

The literacy rate of ten ethnic/caste groups whose literacy rate is the lowest in the 2011 census is given in Table 1.9.

Table 1.9: Literacy rate of ten ethnic/caste groups with the lowest literacy rate, 2011 Census

Ethnic/caste groups	Male literacy rate	Female literacy rate	Total literacy rate (2011 census)	Total literacy Rate (Ranking lowest in 2001 census)
Dom	26.37	14.16	20.31	9.39 (2 nd)
Musahar	26.90	16.66	21.82	7.28 (1 st .)
Bin	35.97	18.99	27.52	Reported as Bing/Binda (14.8, 3 rd)
Dolpo	38.46	18.97	28.35	Not reported
Natawa	40.53	23.09	32.03	Not reported
Kori	43.05	23.90	34.15	Not reported
Dhuniya	44.81	24.19	34.35	21.86 (6 th)
Nuniya	45.29	24.41	35.25	23.20 (7 th)
Dushad/Paswan/Pasi	43.92	26.53	35.37	19.59 (5 th)
Chamar/Harijan/Ram	46.17	27.74	37.03	19.24 (4 th)
Nepal	75.13	57.38	65.94	

Source: CBS 2011 Census

The most deprived groups in terms of education are the Tarai Dalits or untouchables. Of them, the lowest literacy rates are recorded by the Dom in the 2011 Census, followed by Musahar, Natwa, Kori, Dushad and Chamar. Out of 15 Tarai Dalits groups, six Tarai Dalits have the lowest literacy rates. Following them are groups such as Dolpo (Janajati) and Bin, Dhuniya and Nuniya, the water acceptable community of the Tarai. The Hill Dalit groups have better literacy rates than the Tarai Dalits, except Gaine, with a literacy rate of 68.6%. All other Hill Dalit groups – Kami, Sarki, Damai and Badi have literacy rates that are lower than the national average.

The highest literate groups among the Adibasi/Janajati are: Thakali (80.5%), Newar (80.1%), Loharung (79.4%), Limbu (74.69), Lepcha (75.70), and Chamling (70.70%). The literacy rate of some of the numerically and politically dominant Hill and Tarai Janajatis groups is as follows: Gurung (74.36%), Rai (74.33%), Magar (71.09%), Tharu (64.41%) and Tamang (62.60%). Despite living close to the Kathmandu Valley for centuries, Tamangs' literacy rate is below the national average.

1.7 Religion in Nepali context

In recent years, religion has become a crucial sociological variable for self-identification. The Hindu religion in particular remained a philosophical guide for Shah Rulers to rule the country for more than 240 years (1769-2006) before Nepal eventually became a secular state. Nevertheless, various religious groups lived side by side with the Hindu religion over the years.

The number of people practicing various types of religion has increased in every census record since the 1952/54 census onwards. Compared with the 2001 census, two more religious groups were added in the 2011 census: Prakrit (Animism) and Bon, an old religion of Tibet and Nepal. In addition, “Unidentified religious groups” was also listed in the 2011 census as many respondents reported their dharma (religion), which was not previously known in Nepal. The distribution of population by religion in Nepal over the last 60 years is given in Table 1.10.

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Table 1.10: Distribution of population by religion, 1954-2011 censuses

Religion	1952/54		1961		1971		1981		1991		2001		2011	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Hindu	7,318,392	88.87	825,4403	87.69	10,330,009	89.39	13,445,787	89.50	15,996,653	86.51	18,330,121	80.62	21,551,492	81.34
Buddhist	707,104	8.59	870,991	9.25	866,411	7.50	799,081	5.32	1,439,142	7.78	2,442,520	10.74	2,396,099	9.04
Islam	208,899	2.54	280,597	2.98	351,186	3.04	399,197	2.66	653,218	3.53	954,023	4.20	1,162,370	4.38
Kirat	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	318,389	1.72	818,106	3.60	807,169	3.04
Jain	-	-	831	0.01	5,836	0.05	9,438	0.06	7,561	0.04	4,108	0.02	3,214	0.01
Christianity	-	-	458	-	2,541	0.02	3,891	0.03	31,280	0.17	101,976	0.45	375,699	1.41
Sikh	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5,890	0.02	609	0.01
Bahai	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,211	0.01	1,283	0.01
Prakriti	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	121,982	0.46
Bon	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13,006	0.04
Other	684	0.01	-	-	-	-	365446	2.43	26,416	0.14	78,994	0.34	-	-
Unstated/un-defined	-	-	5716	0.06	-	-	-	-	18,138	0.10	-	-	61,581	0.23
Total Population	8,235,079	100	9,412,996	100	1,155,983	100	15,022,839	100	18,491,097	100	22,736,934	100	26,494,504	99.93

Sources: DQS, 1958 Population Census 1952/54, Part II, Table 5

CBS, 1968 Population Census 1961, Vol. II, Table 7.

CBS, 1975 Population Census 1971, Vol. II, Table 13.

CBS, 1984 Population Census 1981, Vol. I, Part III 13

CBS, 1993 Population Census 1991.

CBS, 2002, Population Census, 2001 (National Report), Table 18, p. 80

CBS, 2012, National Population and Housing Census, 2011 (National Report, Table, 22, p. 199).

The table shows that 81.4% of the total population of Nepal are Hindus, followed by Buddhists (9.0%), Islam (4.4%), Kirat (3.0%) and Christianity (1.4%) in the 2011 census. Religion of a sizable number of people (61,581 or 0.23%) is still unidentified or unknown. The number of people following different kinds of religion by ethnic/caste groups is given in Annex 1.4.

The absolute number of people has increased in all religions over the last 60 years. However, the percentage of the Hindu population has declined gradually since the 1981 Census. Although there was a 5.89 percentage points decline of the Hindu population between the 1991 and 2001 censuses, the number and percentile of the Hindu population has increased in the 2011 Census by 0.72%. The number of Hindus increased during this period by 3,221,371. The followers of a particular religion living in urban and rural areas are given in Table 1.11.

Table 1.11: Number of people following particular religion by urban/rural area, 2011 census

Types of religious groups	Number of people with % following religion in urban area	Number of people with % following religion in rural area	Total population with % of particular religious group in total population
Hindu	3,767,037 (17.5)	17,784,445 (82.5)	21,551,492 (81.3)
Buddhist	395,769 (16.5)	2,000,330 (83.5)	2,396,069 (9.0)
Islam	175,526 (15.1)	986,844 (84.9)	1,162,370 (4.4)
Kirant	73,813 (9.1)	733,356 (90.9)	807,169 (3.0)
Christian	85,823 (22.8)	289,876 (77.2)	375,699 (1.4)
Prakrit	9,201 (7.5)	112,781 (92.5)	121,982 (0.5)
Bon	3,800 (29.2)	9,206 (70.8)	130,06 (0.05)
Jain	2,335 (72.7)	879 (27.3)	3,214 (0.01)
Bahai	175 (13.6)	1,108 (86.4)	1,283 (0.0)
Sikh	384 (63.1)	225 (36.9)	609 (0.0)
Others (Unidentified)	9, 957 (16.2)	51,624 (83.8)	61,581 (0.2)
Total	4,523,820 (17.1)	21,970,684 (82.9)	26,494,504 (100.0)

Source: CBS, 2011 Census

As most of the Nepali people live in rural areas, it is natural that there are more people following a particular type of religion in rural areas. But it also gives a strong message that rural people could be motivated more easily to change their religion if external factors play a role in following their religious faiths/values. However, a good number of religious followers are also found in urban areas from the Jain, Sikh, Bon, and Christian communities. Jain and Sikh are merchant people and run business in the city or urban areas. Likewise, many Sherpas and Hyolmo who follow Bon religion also live in city areas. On the other hand, most Hindus and Buddhists live in rural areas and are mostly farmers.

1.7.1 Followers of Hinduism

Until the country was declared a secular state in 2008, the country was a Hindu state presided over by a Hindu monarch. Hindu religion was the most dominant religion and mode of life of many Nepali people. Hindu concepts of purity and pollution were followed throughout history and this is the case even today. Eleven major ethnic/caste groups following Hindu religion are detailed in Table 1.12.

Table 1.12: Eleven Major ethnic/caste groups following Hinduism, 2001-2011 Censuses

Ethnic/caste groups, following Hinduism	Total population by ethnic/caste groups, 2001	Ethnic/caste groups following Hinduism with population and percentage 2001 Census	Total population by ethnic/caste groups, 2011	Ethnic/caste groups following Hinduism with population and percentage 2011 Census
1. Chhetri	3,593,496	3,547,976 (99.5)	4,398,053	4,365,113 (99.3)
2. Hill Brahman	2,896,477	2,887,317 (99.7)	3,226,903	3,212,704 (99.6)
3. Tharu	1,533,879	1,497,516 (97.6)	1,737,470	1,632,546 (94.0)
4. Magar	1,622,421	1,210,276 (74.6)	1,887,733	1,490,611 (79.0)
5. Newar	1,245,432	1,047,561 (84.1)	1,321,933	1,155,134 (97.4)
6. Kami	895,954	866,296 (97.7)	1,258,554	1,212,674 (96.4)
7. Yadav	895,423	893,427 (99.8)	1,054,458	1,051,165 (99.7)
8. Damai/Dholi	390,305	381,739 (97.8)	472,862	456,179 (96.5)
9. Thakuri	334,120	332,107 (99.4)	425,623	422,679 (99.3)
10. Sarki	318,989	312,277 (97.9)	374,186	357,791 (95.6)
11. Teli	304,536	302,056 (99.2)	369,688	368,151 (99.6)
Total population following Hinduism 2001-2011 Censuses	18,301,201	13,278,548	21,551,492	15,724,747
	(100.0)	(72.6)	(100.0)	(73.0)

Source: CBS, 2011 Census

Although Teli had a lower Hindu population in the 2001 Census compared with Sarki, the Teli community as a whole has a higher Hindu population than Sarki in the 2011 census. Teli was not shown in the list of 10 major groups following Hindu religion in the previous census (Dahal 2003). Table 1.12 clearly indicates that 72.6 % and 73.0% of the Hindu population belong to only 11 major groups in the 2001 and 2011 censuses respectively. Newar, Tharu, and Magar also have a significant proportion of the Hindu population. Annex 1.4 clearly shows that in virtually every ethnic/caste group, there are some numbers of Hindu populations who are spread over the country.

1.7.2 Followers of Buddhism

The Buddhist population has also been increasing substantially since 1981; almost a 100% increase between the 1981 and 1991 censuses and close to a 70% increase between the 1991 and 2001 censuses. However, both the Buddhist population and its percentage have declined by 1.9% (46,421 in number) between the 2001 and 2011 censuses (see Table 1.11). It is likely that some ethnic caste groups following Buddhism may have shifted from Buddhism to Bon, Prakrit and Christian religions. Eleven major ethnic/caste groups following Buddhism are detailed in Table 1.13.

Table 1.13: Eleven major ethnic/caste groups following Buddhism, 2001-2011 Censuses

Ethnic/caste groups	Total population by ethnic/caste groups, 2001 Census	Ethnic/caste groups following Buddhism, with population and percentage, 2001 Census	Total population by ethnic/caste groups, 2011 census	Ethnic/caste groups following Buddhism, with population and percentage, 2011 Census
1. Tamnag	1,282,304	1,157,461 (90.3)	1,539,830	1,344,139 (87.3)
2. Magar	1,622,421	397,036 (20.5)	1,887,733	340,608 (18.0)
3. Gurung	543,571	375,252 (69.0)	522,641	327,813 (62.7)
4. Newar	1,242,232	190,629 (15.3)	1,321,933	141,982 (10.7)
5. Sherpa	154,622	143,528 (92.8)	112,946	111,068 (98.3)
6. Bhote	19,621	11,655(65.0)	13,397	13,173 (98.3)
7. Chantel	9,814	6,301 (64.2)	11,810	00 (0.0)
8. Jirel	5,316	4,625 (87.0)	5,774	00 (0.0)
9. Lepcha	3,660	3,250 (88.0)	3,445	00 (0.0)
10.Yehlmo	579	570 (98.4)	10,752	9,819 (91.3)
11.Ghale	--		22,881	11,451 (50.0)
Total population of respective ethnic/caste groups following Buddhism, 2001-2011 censuses	4,884,140	2,298,741 (47.1)	5,453,142	2,300,053 (42.2)
Total population following Buddhism, 2001-2011 censuses		2,442,520 (100.0)		2,396,099(100.0)

Source: CBS, 2011 Census

In the 2011 census, a total of 11,233 Chantel population (95.1%) reported themselves as Hindu. Likewise, 4,604 populations (79.7%) of Jirel and 2,907 populations (84.4%) of Lepcha reported themselves as Bon religion followers. Of the Ghale group, which was added in the 2011 Census, more than 50% of them reported themselves as Buddhist religion followers. If taken together, 94.1% of people in the 2001 census and 96.0% of people in the 2011 census from these 11 major ethnic/caste groups follow Buddhism in Nepal. In other words, Buddhism is mainly followed by Adibasi/Janajti groups and it has become the religious symbol for many Adibasi/Janajati groups in Nepal today.

1.7.3 Followers of Kirat religion

The Kirat religion followers have declined by 1.3% or 10,937 populations in number between the 2001 and 2011 censuses. The number of Kirat religion followers has declined due to the addition of the followers of Prakrit dharma during the 2011 Census. In fact, there is little difference between Kirat and Prakrit dharma in practice. It is likely that many Kirat religion followers wrote themselves as Prakrit Dharma. Major ethnic/caste groups following the Kirat religion are given in Table 1.14.

Table 1.14: Major ethnic/caste groups following Kirat, 2001-2011 Censuses

Ethnic/caste groups	Total population, 2001	Major ethnic/caste groups following Kirat religion with number and percentage, 2001 Census	Total population, 2011	Major ethnic/caste groups following Kirat religion with number and percentage, 2011 Census
1. Rai	635,1567	450,283 (70.9)	620,004	405,279 (65.4)
2. Limbu	359,379	310,128 (86.3)	387,300	315,991 (81.6)
3. Sunuwar	92,254	16,533 (17.4)	55,712	00 (0.0)
4. Yakha	17,003	13,846 (81.4)	24,336	19,750 (81.2)
Total population following Kirat with %, 2001-2011			807,169	
			(100.0)	

Source: CBS, 2011 census

The major ethnic groups following the Kirat religion are: Rai, Limbu, Sunuwar and Yakha and these groups make up 81.2% of the Kirat religious followers in Nepal. However, it is interesting to note that in the 2011 census not a single Sunuwar reported themselves as a Kirat religion follower. Of their total population, 51,419 Sunuwars reported themselves as Hindu (92.3%) and another 4,032 reported themselves as Christians (7.2%).

In brief, Buddhism and Kirat religions appear to be increasingly invoked in the ethnic identity politics in Nepal since 1990.

1.7.4 Followers of Christianity

In recent years Christianity has become a popular religion in Nepal, particularly after democracy in 1990. The number of Christian Churches and Christian population is increasing every year. The Christian populations, who were not even reported in the 1952/54 Census, numbered only 458 in the 1961 Census, and reached 101,976 in the 2001 Census. Between the 1991 and 2001 censuses, followers of Christianity increased more than 226%. The followers of the Christian religion have substantially increased in terms of number and percentage between the 2001 and 2011 census periods. The number of Christian religion followers has increased by 268.4% or a total of 273,723 populations during this period. But many Christian religion followers and associations are not satisfied with this number of the CBS. While quoting an article of Subhas Sharma, Dhruvahari Adhikari (Kantipur, 20 July 2014) writes that there are 1,000 Churches (Girgaghar), 805,000 Christian religion followers and about 350 Christian mission offices, Bible colleges and Training Centres operating in Nepal.

Eleven ethnic/caste group whose number is higher following Christianity is given in Table 1.15.

Table 1.15: Eleven major ethnic/caste groups following Christianity, 2001-2011 Censuses

Ethnic/caste groups	Total population 2001	Total population and % following Christianity, 2001 Census	Total population 2011	Total population and % following Christianity, 2011 Census
1. Tamang	1,283,304	24,235 (1.9)	1,539,830	54,809 (3.6)
2. Rai	635,151	13,069 (2.1)	620,004	32,907 (5.3)
3. Magar	1,622,421	8,310 (0.5)	1,887,733	40,904 (2.2)
4. Chepang	53,237	4,589 (8.6)	68,399	17,487 (25.6)
5. Limbu	359,379	4,228 (1.2)	387,300	11,536 (3.0)
6. Sarki	318,989	3,229 (1.0)	374,816	16,300 (4.3)
7. Santhal/Satar	42,698	2466 (5.8)	51,735	3,156 (6.1)
8. Tharu	1,538,879	3,332 (0.2)	1,737,470	30,314 (1.7)
9. Kami	895,954	6,747 (0.8)	1,258,554	42,666 (3.4)
10. Chhetri	3,593,496	5,435 (0.2)	4,398,053	25,807 (0.6)
11. Newar	1,245,232	5,007 (0.4)	1,321,933	22,276 (1.7)
Total	11,588,740	80,647 (0.7)	13,645,467	298,162 (2.2)
Total Number of Christians	101,970 (100.0)		375,699 (100.0)	

Source: CBS, 2001 and 2011 censuses.

It is worth mentioning that like Hinduism, Christianity is adopted by most of the ethnic/caste groups of Nepal (see Annex 1.4). In total, 11 major ethnic/caste groups comprise 79.4% of the total Christian religion followers in Nepal. Among them the number of Christian religion followers has substantially increased in Chepang, Tamang, Magar, Sarki, and Kami between the 2001 and 2011 censuses.

In the name of providing services in the fields of education, health, women's rights and children's rights many INGOs and NGOs are working as catalysts to spread the Christian religion in Nepal. In Nepal, it seems that more and more poor people and those who are exploited by their religious values (such as Hinduism and Buddhism) are gradually shifting over to Christianity from their original religion. The faith is adopted largely because it provides support to the discriminated.

Conversion of religion is not an easy task in Nepal. A person can be jailed for converting to Christianity and most certainly for proselytizing. But the fact is that Christian populations are increasing dramatically in Nepal and not only Hindus (particularly low caste Hindus) but also Buddhist populations (such as Tamang) have converted to Christianity over the years.

Likewise, the number of Jain and Sikh religions followers has declined over a period of time. The Sikh religion followers have declined substantially by 876.1% (5,281 populations) from the 2001 to 2011 censuses. On the other hand, the population size of Punjabi/Sikh has increased in the 2011 census, numbering 7,176 populations. It is likely that many of these groups simply mentioned Hindu as their religion for convenience.

1.8 Ethnic/caste groups vs. Mother –tongue speakers

A member of any ethnic/caste can switch over to another language because of the continuous interaction with members of other language groups. This is popularly known as “language shift”. People see

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the benefits of acquiring an additional language. In particular, switching to some other higher status language, provides more prestige in public domains than speaking one's own language or mother tongue (Pattern 2003: 361). "We are experiencing a new culture by communicating through language - in use; culture is how it is practiced in everyday life" (Silverstein 2004).

In the context of Nepal not only marginalised but also dominant groups, such as Newar, Magar and Rai are switching over in large numbers to the Nepali language, not only because it is an official language but also because of their day to day interaction with the Nepali language speaking communities (see Table 1.16 below). It is also interesting to note that in the 2011 census, more and more ethnic caste groups, even the marginalised communities by number, reported their mother tongue more accurately than in the 2001 census. In some cases, the number of mother tongue speakers is higher than the number of caste ethnicity. Normally the number–mother tongue speakers becomes higher than the number of caste/ethnicity for two reasons: a) the language shift or mother tongues is more prestigious in public domains and thus other groups also speak the same language, and b) Misreporting of the number by caste/ethnicity or language in the censuses . In the case of the Nepali census, misreporting is more likely than the former reason. A comparative figure of the population size of the ethnic/caste group and the number of mother tongue speakers in the 2001 and 2011 censuses is given in Table 1.16.

Table 1.16 : Population size of the ethnic/caste group and the number of mother tongue speakers in 2001 and 2011 censuses

Ethnic / caste group	Total population (2001 Census)	Number of Mother-tongue speakers with %	Total Population (2011 Census)	Number of Mother-tongue Speakers with %
Tharu	1,533,879	1,331,546 (86.8)	1737,470	1,529,875 (88.1)
Newar	1,242,232	824,458 (66.4)	1321,933	846,551 (64.0)
Magar	1,622,421	770,116 (47.5)	1887,733	788,530 (41.8)
Rai	635,151	00 (0.0)	620,004	159,114 (25.7%)
Limbu	359,379	333,633 (92.8)	387,300	343,603 (88.7)
Santhal/Satar	42,698	40,260 (94.3)	51,735	49,858 (96.4)
Meche	3,763	3,301 (87.7)	4,867	4,375 (89.9)
Bangali	9,860	23,602	26,582	21,061 (79.2)
Hyolmo	579	3,986	10,752	10,176 (94.6)
Punjabi/sikh	9,292	1,165 (12.5)	7,176	808 (11.3)
Urdu(Musalman)	653,055	174,840 (26.8)	1164,255	691,546 (59.4)
Sherpa	110,358	129,771	112,946	114,830
Rajbanshi	82,177	174,840	115,242	122,214
Bantawa	Not reported	371,056	4604	132,583 (287.8)
Chamling	Not reported	44,093	6,668	76,800
Kulung	Not reported	18,686	28,613	33,170

Source : CBS, 2001 and 2011 Censuses .

The ethnic/caste groups whose number of mother tongue speakers substantially increased in relation to their population size compared to the 2001 census are: Hyolmo, and Bangali. In the case of Bangali, the caste/ethnicity number was mistakenly reported in the 2001 census. Hyolmo, in contrast to the 2001 census, reported their mother tongue correctly in the 2011 census as they want to be treated as a separate cultural group to the Sherpa. The number of mother tongue speakers substantially declined among

the following groups compared to their population: Punjabi (11.3%), and Rai (25.7%). In fact, there is no such language as “Rai”. Rai (meaning Headman) is the combination of several other groups such as Bantawa, Chamling, Thuling, Kulung, Khaling, Athapahriya and Yamphu. In the 2001 census, not a single Rai claimed that they spoke Rai as their mother tongue. Once these groups started identifying themselves as separate cultural groups, the number of Rai speakers declined. In addition groups such as Bantawa and Chamling must have reported their ethnicity as Rai. Therefore the decline is because their population size is lower than the mother tongue speakers.

The ethnic groups who maintain their mother tongue in large numbers are Limbu (88.7%), Tharu (88.1%), Meche (89.9%) and Santhal/satar (96.4%). The ethnic groups whose number of mother tongue speakers is gradually shrinking are Magar (41.8%) and Newar (64.0%). The Urdu speaking Musalman population is increasing compared to the 2001 census but a large number of them today speak the Maithili, Bhojpuri and Awadhi languages, the major language groups of the Tarai.

1.9 Conclusion

- Nepal is a multi-ethnic nation with diverse languages, religions and cultural traditions. The 1991 census deserves attention as it started providing data on caste/ethnicity with population size and socio-economic characteristics of various ethnic/caste groups. The 2011 census seems to be more liberal in terms of providing caste/ethnicity and religious data.
- The 1991, 2001 and 2011 census data clearly demonstrate that nearly 70% of the total population belongs to just ten major groups. The Hill Brahmin, Chhetri and Thakuri by themselves account for 30.4% of the total population, with Chhetri and Brahmin alone comprising the largest single cluster in 35 districts (46.7%) of Nepal, increasing their concentration in four more districts than in the 2001 census. Within the whole country, the Chhetri is the largest group in population size and ranks 1st by number, while at the other extreme the Kusunda group ranks 125th in population size. The Kusunda also has the lowest population in the 2001 census. The 2011 census allows a count of the smallest groups in population size numbering from 273 up. Fourteen ethnic/caste groups (Kusunda, Nurang, Raute, Yehlmo, Walung, Lhomi, Sampang, Khaling, Topkegola, Loharung, Kamar, Kisan, Koche, Kalar and Dhandi) have a population size of less than 2,000 and their total population (19,161) constitutes less than 0.072% of the total population. These people could be considered as endangered communities in population as their culture and language could die or be merged into other groups because of the process of sanskritisation and modernisation. In other words, cultural capital, as assets of the nation, is on the verge of extinction.
- Most of the Hill and Mountain districts are relatively homogenous in their group representation compared with the Nepal Tarai districts as a whole. Looking at the four most represented groups within a given district; the Hill district, such as Rolpa, has the highest level of such homogeneity with 92.8% of its population restricted to four caste/ethnic groups, while Morang district in the Tarai has the least homogeneity with its four largest groups comprising just 36.4% of its total population. The diversity of population in terms of ethnic/caste structure in the Nepal Tarai could be due to the heavy migration of Hill people as well as an uncontrolled flow of Indian people over the last 50 years.
- The Hindu religion still represents more than 81% of the total population in the census reports, though other religions have been carving a substantial place in Nepali society since 1990. But Christianity has become increasingly reported as a religious affiliation among various caste/ethnic groups in Nepal. A special feature of the 2001 and 2011 censuses is its provision of figures for

religion by ethnic/caste category, allowing a much more detailed accounting of the relationship between caste/ethnic and religious identities in Nepal.

- The CBS data on caste/ethnicity and religion are extremely useful in various ways: (i) They provide basic figures of living culture of Nepal: these figures are an essential foundation to understand larger societal and compositional trends in population size over a period of time; (ii) In recent years, the CBS data on caste/ethnicity, language and religion have become extremely useful for planners, teachers, students and people working in INGOs/NGOs for many reasons: (a) they establish basic facts and figures (including socio-economic characteristics) about the various ethnic/caste groups living in different parts of Nepal; (b) these data draw attention to the specific development needs of particular social and cultural groups and aid the formulation of relevant programmes; (c) basic data on caste/ethnicity aid the targeting of specific groups for development purposes. Briefly, the study on caste and ethnicity and their culture has become a prerequisite to understanding the process of inclusion/exclusion and the level of socio-economic development in Nepal. The CBS data can help in understanding the caste/ethnic socio-economic conditions and provides an essential base or foundation for restructuring the federalisation process of Nepal.
- In the context of Nepal, ethnicity, nationalism and state building processes are complementary to each other. Until and unless “the culture of multiculturalism” is properly understood and “diversity” is respected, the state building process will remain weak.

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Annex 1.1: Population size of various ethnic/caste groups based on broad 9 social categories , 2011 Census

Broad ethnic/ caste category	Ethnic/ caste groups	Total population (2011)	% of total population	Ethnic/caste groups	Total population (2011)	% of total population
Caste – Origin: Hill groups						
1. Brahman-Hill		3,226,903	12.2	2. Chhetri	4,398,053	16.6
3. Thakuri		425,623	1.6	4. Sanyasi (Dasnami)	227,822	0.8
Sub-group (Total) :4		8,278,401	31.246			
Hill Adibasi/Janajati groups						
1. Magar		1,887,733	7.1	2. Tamang	1,539,830	5.8
3. Newar		1,321,933	5.0	4. Rai	620,004	2.3
5. Gurung		522,641	2.0	6. Limbu	387,300	1.5
7. Kumal		121,196	0.5	8. Gharti/Bhujel	118,650	0.4
9. Majhi		83,727	0.3	10. Sherpa	112,946	0.4
11. Danuwar		84,115	0.3	12. Sunuwar	55,712	0.2
13. Chepang/Praja		68,399	0.3	14. Thami	28,671	0.1
15. Kulung		28,613	0.1	16. Yakkha	24,336	0.1
17. Ghale		22,881	0.08	18. Khawas	18,513	0.07
19. Darai		16,789	0.06	20. Pahari	13,615	0.05
21. Thakali		13,215	0.05	22. Bhote	13,397	0.05
23. Chantyal/ Chhantel		11,810	0.04	24. Hyolmo	10,752	0.04
25. Bote		10,397	0.04	26. Brahm/ Baramo	8,140	0.03
27. Nachhring		7,154	0.03	28. Yamphu	6,933	0.03
29. Chamling		6,668	0.03	30. Athpahariya	5,977	0.02
31. Jirel		5,774	0.02	32. Dura	5,394	0.02
33. Bantaba		4,604	0.02	34. Raji	4,235	0.01
35. Dolpo		4,107	0.02	36. Byansi/Sauka	3,895	0.01
37. Thulung		3,535	0.01	38. Lepcha	3,445	0.01
39. Mewahang Bala		3,100	0.01	40. Bahing	3,096	0.01
41. Hayu		2,925	0.01	42. Lhopa	2,624	0.01
43. Sampang		1,681	0.006	44. Lhomi	1,614	0.004
45. Khaling		1,571	0.006	46. Topkegola	1,523	0.006
47. Walung		1,249	0.004	48. Lohorung	1,153	0.005
49. Raute		618	0.002	50. Kusunda	273	0.001
Sub-group (Total) : 50		7,228,463	27.283			
Hill Dalit						
1. Kami		1,258,554	4.8	2. Damai/Dholi	472,862	1.8
3. Sarki		374,816	1.4	4. Badi	38,603	0.1
5. Gaine		6,791	0.02			
Sub-group (Total) : 5		2,151,626	8.121			

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Broad ethnic/ caste category	Ethnic/ caste groups	Total population (2011)	% of total population	Ethnic/caste groups	Total population (2011)	% of total population
Caste – Origin : Madhesi groups (Socio-economic level 1)						
1. Brahman-Tarai		134,106	0.5	2. Rajput	41,972	0.2
3. Kayastha		44,304	0.2			
Sub-group (Total) : 3		220,382	0.832			
Caste – Origin : Madhesi groups (socio-economic level 2)						
1. Yadav		1,054,458	4.0	2. Teli	369,688	1.4
3. Koiri/Kushhawa		306,393	1.2	4. Kurmi	231,129	0.9
5. Dhanuk		219,808	0.8	6. Mallaha	173,261	0.7
7. Kewat		153,772	0.6	8. Kathbaniya	138,637	0.5
9. Kalwar		128,232	0.5	10. Kanu	125,184	0.5
11. Hajam/Thakur		117,758	0.4	12. Lohar	101,421	0.4
13. Sudhi		93,115	0.4	14. Halwai	83,869	0.3
15. Baraee		80,597	0.3	16. Bin	75,195	0.3
17. Sonar		64,335	0.2	18. Nuniya	70,540	0.3
19. Kumhar		62,399	0.2	20. Kahar	53,159	0.2
21. Lodh		32,837	0.1	22. Badahee	28,932	0.1
23. Gaderi/Bhediyar		26,375	0.1	24. Mali	14,995	0.06
25. Dhuniya		14,846	0.06	26. Rajdhob	13,422	0.05
27. Rajbhar		9,542	0.04	28. Amat	3,830	0.014
29. Dev		2,147	0.008	30. Kamar	1,787	0.006
31. Nurang		278	0.001			
Sub-group (Total) : 31		3,851,941	14.539			
Madhesi (Adibasi/janajati)						
1. Tharu		1,737,470	6.6	2. Rajbansi	115,242	0.4
3. Satar/Santhal		51,735	0.2	4. Jhangad/Dhajar	37,424	0.1
5. Gangai		36,988	0.1	6. Dhimal	26,298	0.1
7. Tajpuriya		19,213	0.07	8. Meche	4,867	0.02
9. Pathakatta/ Kushwadia		3,182	0.005	10. Munda	2,350	0.009
11. Kisan		1,739	0.006	12. Koche	1,635	0.006
13. Chidimar		1,254	0.005			
Sub-group (Total) : 13		2,039,397	7.697			
Madhesi (Dalit) or low caste (socio economic level 3)						
1. Chamar/Harijan/Ram		335,893	1.3	2. Musahar	234,490	0.9
3. Dushad/Paswan/Paswan		208,910	0.8	4. Dhobi	109,079	0.4
5. Tatma/Tatwa		104,865	0.4	6. Khatwe	100,921	0.4

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7. Bantar/Sardar		55,104	0.2	8. Dom	13,268	0.05
9. Kori		12,276	0.05	10. Sarabaria	4,906	0.02
11. Halkhor		4,003	0.02	12. Natuwa	3,062	0.011
13. Dhankar/Dharikar		2,681	0.01	14. Dhandi	1,982	0.007
15. Kalar		1,077	0.004			
Sub-group (Total) : 15		1,192,517	4.500			
Other Cultural groups						
1. Marwadi		51,443	0.2	2. Bangali	26,582	0.1
3. Punjabi/Sikh		7,176	0.03	4. Foreigner	6,651	0.025
Sub-group(total) : 4		91,852	0.347			
Musalman		1,164,255	4.394			
Janajati others		1,228	0.004			
Dalit others		155,354	0.6			
Tarai others		103,811	0.4			
Unidentified others		15,277	0.06			
Sub Group (total) : 0 (They are the groups mentioned in above categories)		275,670	1.040			
Grand total (all groups combined) 126 (including the foreigner category)		26,494,504	100%			

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Annex 1.2: Four major ethnic/caste groups by number and districts, 2011 Census

1. Taplejung district (Total population : 127,461)			2. Panchthar district (Total population : 191,817)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Limbu	52,784 (41.4)	1.	Limbu	80,339 (41.9)
2.	Chhetri	15,268 (12.0)	2.	Rai	26,424 (13.8)
3.	Sherpa	12,043 (9.4)	3.	Brahman-Hill	20,954 (10.9)
4.	Brahman-Hill	9,916 (7.8)	4.	Chhetri	18,927 (9.9)
Total (population and %)		(70.6)	Total (Population and %)		(76.5%)

3. Ilam district (Total population : 290,254)			4. Jhapa district (Total population : 812,650)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Rai	68,965 (23.8)	1.	Brahman-Hill	192,287 (23.7)
2.	Limbu	45,626 (15.7)	2.	Chhetri	128,030 (15.8)
3.	Brahman-Hill	40,340 (13.9)	3.	Rajbanshi	73,382 (9.0)
4.	Chhetri	39,735 (13.7)	4.	Limbu	53,721 (6.6)
Total (Population and %)		(67.1)	Total (Population and %)		(55.1)

5. Morang district (Total population : 965,370)			6. Sunsari district (Total population : 763,487)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Brahman-Hill	126,195 (13.1)	1.	Tharu	91,500 (12.0)
2.	Chhetri	116,195 (12.0)	2.	Musalman	88,173 (11.5)
3.	Tharu	60,566 (6.3)	3.	Chhetri	71,428 (9.4)
4.	Rai	47,957 (5.0)	4.	Brahman-Hill	61,012 (8.0)
Total (Population and %)		(36.4)	Total (Population and %)		(40.9)

7. Dhankuta district (Total population : 163,412)			8. Terhathum district (Total population : 101,577)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Chhetri	33,253 (20.3)	1.	Limbu	36,375 (35.8)
2.	Rai	32,129 (19.7)	2.	Chhetri	19,636 (19.3)
3.	Limbu	21,305 (13.0)	3.	Brahman Hill	13,532 (13.3)
4.	Magar	15,887 (9.7)	4.	Tamang	6,675 (6.6)
Total (Population and %)		(62.7)	Total (Population and %)		76,218 (75.0)

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9. Sankhuwasabha district (Total population : 158,742)			10. Bhojpur district (Total population : 182,459)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Chhetri	29,125 (18.3)	1.	Rai	58,338 (32.0)
2.	Rai	16,298 (10.3)	2.	Chhetri	36,106 (19.8)
3.	Tamang	16,574 (10.6)	3.	Tamang	17,235 (9.4)
4.	Kulung	9,755 (6.1)	4.	Newar	14,663 (8.0)
	Total (Population and %)	(45.3)		Total (Population and %)	(69.2)

11. Solukhumbu district (Total population : 105,886)			12. Okhaldhunga district (Total population : 147,984)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Rai	20,767 (19.6)	1.	Chhetri	33,782 (22.8)
2.	Sherpa	17,692 (16.7)	2.	Magar	16,588 (11.2)
3.	Chhetri	15,943 (15.1)	3.	Brahman Hill	15,692 (10.6)
4.	Tamang	10,485 (9.9)	4.	Rai	14,672 (9.9)
	Total (Population and %)	(61.3)		Total (Population and %)	(54.5)

13. Khotang district (Total population: 206,312)			14. Udaypur district (Total population : 317,532)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Rai	75,530 (36.6)	1.	Chhetri	68,372 (21.5)
2.	Chhetri	44,378 (21.5)	2.	Rai	54,816 (17.3)
3.	Brahman Hill	14,867 (7.2)	3.	Magar	43,997 (13.9)
4.	Newar	11,165 (5.4)	4.	Tharu	24,240 (7.6)
	Total (Population and %)	(70.7)		Total (Population and %)	(60.3)

15. Saptari district (Total population : 639,284)			16. Siraha district (Total population : 637,328)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Yadav	100,781 (15.8)	1.	Yadav	155,391 (24.4)
2.	Tharu	73,697 (11.5)	2.	Musalman	47,715 (7.5)
3.	Musalman	57,145 (8.9)	3.	Muahar	39,929 (6.3)
4.	Teli	46,713 (7.3)	4.	Koiri/Kushhawai	38,325 (6.0)
	Total (Population and %)	(43.5)		Total (Population and %)	44.2

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17. Dhanusa district (Total population : 754,777)			18. Mahottari district (Total population : 627,580)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Yadav	132,007 (17.5)	1.	Yadav	95,077 (15.1)
2.	Musalman	63,697 (8.4)	2.	Musalman	83,849 (13.4)
3.	Kewat	45,974 (6.1)	3.	Dhanuk	40,384 (6.4)
4.	Teli	39,211 (5.2)	4.	Koiri/Kushhawa	36,171 (5.8)
Total (Population and %)		44.2	Total (Population and %)		40.7

19. Sarlahi district (Total population : 769,729)			20. Sindhuli district (Total population : 296,192)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Yadav	119,359 (15.5)	1.	Tamang	79,590 (26.9)
2.	Koiri/Kushhawa	61,019 (7.9)	2.	Magar	44,146 (14.9)
3.	Musalman	60,754 (7.9)	3.	Chhetri	40,459 (13.7)
4.	Teli	41,325 (5.4)	4.	Brahman –Hill	23,077 (7.8)
Total (Population and %)		(36.7)	Total (Population and %)		(63.3)

21. Ramechhap district (Total population : 202,646)			22. Dolakha district (Total population : 186,557)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Chhetri	54,461 (26.9)	1.	Chhetri	62,335 (33.4)
2.	Tamang	38,842 (19.2)	2.	Tamang	31,307 (16.8)
3.	Newar	29,377 (14.5)	3.	Newar	17,498 (9.4)
4.	Magar	22,544 (11.1)	4.	Brahman -Hill	17,159 (9.2)
Total (Population and %)		(71.7)	Total (Population and %)		(68.8)

23. Sindhupalchowk district (Total population : 287,798)			24. Kavrepalanchok district (Total population : 381,937)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Tamang	98,570 (34.2)	1.	Tamang	129,913 (34.0)
2.	Chhetree	52,455 (18.2)	2.	Brahman –Hill	82,246 (21.5)
3.	Newar	31,977 (11.1)	3.	Chhetri	52,275 (13.7)
4.	Brahman - Hill	29,725 (10.3)	4.	Newar	50,670 (13.3)
Total (Population and %)		(73.9)	Total (Population and %)		(82.5)

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25. Lalitpur district (Total population : 468,132)			26. Bhaktapur district (Total population : 304,651)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Newar	155,604 (33.3)	1.	Newar	138,873 (45.6)
2.	Chhetril	88,306 (18.9)	2.	Chhetri	61,102 (20.1)
3.	Tamang	61,368 (13.1)	3.	Tamang	43,353 (14.2)
4.	Brahman –Hill	61,060 (13.0)	4.	Brahman –Hill	27,249 (9.0)
Total (Population and %)		(78.3)	Total (Population and %)		(88.9)

27. Kathmandu district (Total population : 1744,240)			28. Nuwakot district (Total population : 277,471)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Brahman-Hill	410,126 (23.5)	1.	Tamang	118,873 (42.8)
2.	Newar	383,136 (22.0)	2.	Brahman-Hill	52,564 (19.0)
3.	Chhetri	347,754 (19.9)	3.	Chhetri	34,957 (12.6)
4.	Tamang	192,311 (11.0)	4.	Newar	20,655 (7.4)
Total (Population and %)		(76.4)	Total (Population and %)		(81.8)

29. Rasuwa district (Total population : 43,300)			30. Dhading district (Total population : 336,067)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Tamang	29,782 (68.8)	1.	Tamang	74,239 (22.1)
2.	Brahman-Hill	6,525 (15.1)	2.	Brahman-Hill	50,346 (15.0)
3.	Gurung	1,335 (3.1)	3.	Chhetri	49,457 (14.7)
4.	Chhetri	1,084 (2.5)	4.	Newar	31,587 (9.4)
Total (Population and %)		(89.5)	Total (Population and %)		(61.2)

31. Makwanpur district (Total population : 420,477)			32. Rautahat district (Total population : 686,722)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Tamang	201,081 (47.8)	1.	Musalman	135,519 (19.7)
2.	Brahman-Hill	59,253 (14.1)	2.	Yadav	84,017 (12.2)
3.	Chhetri	45,031 (10.7)	3.	Kurmi	39,028 (5.7)
4.	Newar	26,065 (6.2)	4.	Teli	38,557 (5.6)
Total (Population and %)		(78.8)	Total (Population and %)		(43.2)

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33. Bara district (Total population : 687,708)			34. Parsa district (Total population : 601,017)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Musalman	89,834 (13.1)	1.	Musalman	87,212 (14.5)
2.	Yadav	72,253 (10.5)	2.	Kurmi	50,559 (8.4)
3.	Tharu	71,993 (10.5)	3.	Tharu	45,620 (7.6)
4.	Kanu	33,030 (4.8)	4.	Yadav	39,885 (6.6)
Total (Population and %)		(38.9)	Total (Population and %)		(37.1)

35. Chitwan district (Total population : 579,984)			36. Gorkha district (Total population : 271,061)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Brahman –Hill	165,652 (28.6)	1.	Gurung	53,342 (19.7)
2.	Chhetri	65,894 (11.4)	2.	Brahman –Hill	41,229 (15.2)
3.	Tharu	63,359 (10.9)	3.	Chhetri	31,479 (11.6)
4.	Tamang	46,198 (8.0)	4.	Magar	31,390 (11.6)
Total (Population and %)		(58.9)	Total (Population and %)		(58.1)

37. Lamjung district (Total population : 167,724)			38. Tanahu district (Total population : 323,288)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Gurung	52,421 (31.3)	1.	Magar	87,078 (26.9)
2.	Chhetri	26,823 (16.0)	2.	Brahman –Hill	38,382 (11.9)
3.	Brahman –Hill	21,386 (12.7)	3.	Chhetri	37,809 (11.7)
4.	Kami	14,474 (8.6)	4.	Gurung	37,325 (11.5)
Total (Population and %)		(68.6)	Total (Population and %)		(62.0)

39. Syanga district (Total population : 289,148)			40. Kaski district (Total population : 492,098)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Brahman –Hill	89,291 (30.9)	1.	Brahman –Hill	136,834 (27.8)
2.	Magar	62,074 (21.5)	2.	Gurung	81,597 (16.6)
3.	Chhetri	33,327 (11.5)	3.	Chhetri	71,808 (14.6)
4.	Gurung	25,926 (8.7)	4.	Magar	42,547 (8.6)
Total (Population and %)		(72.6)	Total (Population and %)		(67.6)

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41. Manang district (Total population : 13,452)			41. Mustang district (Total population : 13,452)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Gurung	2,885 (21.4)	1.	Gurung	2,885 (21.4)
2.	Thakali	2,535 (18.8)	2.	Thakali	2,535 (18.8)
3.	Lhopa	2,512 (18.7)	3.	Lhopa	2,512 (18.7)
4.	Magar	1,123 (8.3)	4.	Magar	1,123 (8.3)
Total (Population and %)		(67.2)	Total (Population and %)		(67.3)

42. Myagdi district (Total population : 113,641)			43. Parbat district (Total population : 146,590)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Magar	44,846 (39.5)	1.	Brahman –Hill	52,370 (35.7)
2.	Chhetri	19,516 (17.2)	2.	Chhetri	25,353 (17.3)
3.	Kami	17,393 (15.3)	3.	Magar	16,068 (11.0)
4.	Brahman-Hill	9,142 (8.0)	4.	Kami	13,510 (9.2)
Total (Population and %)		(80.0)	Total (Population and %)		(73.2)

44. Baglung district (Total population : 268,613)			46. Gulmi district (Total population : 280,160)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Magar	75,310 (28.0)	1.	Brahman –Hill	70,917 (25.2)
2.	Brahman –Hill	52,483 (19.5)	2.	Chhetri	63,202 (22.6)
3.	Chhetri	50,249 (18.7)	3.	Magar	58,079 (20.7)
4.	Kami	42,891 (16.0)	4.	Kami	33,452 (11.9)
Total (Population and %)		(82.2)	Total (Population and %)		(80.4)

47. Palpa district (Total population : 261,180)			48. Nawalparasi district (Total population : 643,508)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Magar	136,588 (52.3)	1.	Brahman –Hill	112,559 (17.5)
2.	Brahman –Hill	45,608 (17.5)	2.	Magar	112,331 (17.5)
3.	Chhetri	20,628 (7.9)	3.	Tharu	97,275 (15.1)
4.	Kami	17,562 (6.7)	4.	Chhetri	39,977 (5.5)
Total (Population and %)		(84.4)	Total (Population and %)		(55.6)

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49. Rupandehi district (Total population : 880,196)			50. Kapilbastu district (Total population : 571,936)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Brahman –Hill by number	140,249 (15.9)	1.	Musalman	103,856 (18.2)
2.	Magar	94,267 (10.7)	2.	Tharu	70,096 (12.3)
3.	Tharu	84,788 (9.6)	3.	Yadav	57,967 (10.1)
4.	Musalman	72,468 (8.2)	4.	Brahman-Hill	48,834 (8.5)
Total (Population and %)		(44.4)	Total (Population and %)		(49.1)

51. Arghakhanchi district (Total population : 197,632)			52. Pyuthan district (Total population : 228,102)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Brahman-Hill	64,757 (32.8)	1.	Magar	74,312 (32.6)
2.	Chhetri	36,045 (18.2)	2.	Chhetri	56,917 (25.0)
3.	Magar	35,584 (18.0)	3.	Kami	31,760 (13.9)
4.	Kami	22,365 (11.3)	4.	Brahman-Hill	22,488 (9.9)
Total (Population and %)		(80.3)	Total (Population and %)		(81.4)

53. Rolpa district (Total population : 224,506)			54. Rukum district (Total population : 208,567)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Magar	97,011 (43.2)	1.	Magar	93,857 (45.0)
2.	Chhetri	75,886 (33.8)	2.	Chhetri	49,743 (23.8)
3.	Kami	27,489 (12.2)	3.	Kami	32,965 (15.8)
4.	Damai- Dholi	8,014 (3.6)	4.	Damai- Dholi	9,885 (4.7)
Total (Population and %)		(92.8)	Total (Population and %)		(89.3)

55. Salyan district (Total population : 242,444)			56. Dang district (Total population : 552,583)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Chhetri	138,205(57.0)	1.	Tharu	163,116(29.5)
2.	Magar	36,536(15.1)	2.	Chhetri	137,672(24.9)
3.	Kami	28,599(11.8)	3.	Magar	75,131(13.6)
4.	Dasnami/Sanyasii	8,543(3.5)	4.	Brahman -Hill	56,615(10.2)
Total (Population and %)		(87.4)	Total (Population and %)		(78.2)

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57. Banke district (Total population : 491,313)			58. Bardiya district (Total population : 426,576)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Musalman	93,298 (19.0)	1.	Tharu	226,089 (53.0)
2.	Tharu	76,879 (15.6)	2.	Chhetri	48,835 (11.4)
3.	Chhetri	72,507 (14.8)	3.	Brahman –Hill	37,180 (8.7)
4.	Brahman -Hill	32,657 (6.6)	4.	Kami	24,407 (5.7)
Total (Population and %)		(56.0)	Total (Population and %)		(78.8)

59. Surkhet district (Total population : 350,804)			60. Dailekh district (Total population : 261,770)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Chhetri	110,907(31.6)	1.	Chhetri	91,280(34.9)
2.	Magar	66,219(18.9)	2.	Kami	48,451((18.5)
3.	Kami	64,149(18.3)	3.	Thakuri	36,816(14.1)
4.	Brahman –Hill	40,440(11.5)	4.	Brahman –Hill	28,487(9.4)
Total (Population and %)		(80.3)	Total (Population and %)		(76.9)

61. Jajarkot district (Total population : 171,304)			62. Dolpa district (Total population : 36,700)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Chhetri	65,085(38.0)	1.	Chhetri	65,085(38.0)
2.	Kami	38,085(22.2)	2.	Kami	38,085(22.2)
3.	Thakuri	28,655(16.7)	3.	Thakuri	28,655(16.7)
4.	Magar	15,487(9.0)	4.	Magar	15,487(9.0)
Total (Population and %)		(85.9)	Total (Population and %)		(85.9)

63. Jumla district (Total population : 108,921)			64. Kalikot district (Total population : 136,948)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Chhetri	65,609(61.2)	1.	Chhetri	39,478(28.8)
2.	Brahman-Hill	11,924(10.9)	2.	Thakuri	34,350(25.1)
3.	Thakuri	8,063(7.4)	3.	Kami	24,189((17.7)
4.	Kami	8,017(7.4)	4.	Brahman-Hill	23,430(17.1)
Total (Population and %)		(86.9)	Total (Population and %)		(88.7)

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65. Mugu district (Total population : 55,286)			66. Humla district (Total population : 50,858)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Chhetri	27,016(48.9)	1.	Chhetri	19,682(38.7)
2.	Thakuri	8,485(15.3)	2.	Thakuri	9,986(19.6)
3.	Kami	5,235(9.5)	3.	Tamang	6,841(13.5)
4.	Tamang	4,353((7.9)	4.	Kami	4,937(9.7)
Total (Population and %)		(81.6)	Total (Population and %)		(81.5)

67. Bajura district (Total population : 134,912)			68. Bajhang district (Total population : 195,159)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Chhetri	77,978(57.8)	1.	Chhetri	129,865(66.5)
2.	Kami	13,115(9.7)	2.	Brahman-Hill	19,897(10.2)
3.	Brahman-Hill	9,446(7.0)	3.	Kami	14,303(7.3)
4.	Thakuri	6,998(5.2)	4.	Thakuri	9,480(4.9)
Total (Population and %)		(79.7)	Total (Population and %)		(88.9)

69. Achham district (Total population : 257,477)			70. Doti district (Total population : 211746)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Chhetri	142,934(55.5)	1.	Chhetri	122,106(57.7)
2.	Brahman-Hill	26,272(10.2)	2.	Kami	25,622(12.1)
3.	Kami	24,273(9.4)	3.	Brahman-Hill	17,028(8.0)
4.	Damai(Dholi)	8,069(3.1)	4.	Damai(Dholi)	9,627(4.5)
Total (Population and %)		(78.2)	Total (Population and %)		(82.3)

71. Kailali district (Total population : 211, 746)			72. Kanchanpur district (Total population : 451,248)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Chhetri	122,106(57.7)	1.	Chhetri	130,532(28.9)
2.	Kami	25,622(12.1)	2.	Tharu	115,876(25.7)
3.	Brahman-Hill	17,028(8.0)	3.	Brahman-Hill	72,035(16.0)
4.	Damai(Dholi)	9,627(4.5)	4.	Kami)	34,853(7.7)
Total (Population and %)		(82.3)	Total (Population and %)		(78.3)

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73. Dadeldhura district (Total population : 142,094)			74. Baitadi district (Total population : 250,898)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage	S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Chhetri	76,147(53.6)	1.	Chhetri	130,894(52.2)
2.	Brahman-Hill	22,477(15.8)	2.	Brahman-Hill	46,541(18.5)
3.	Kami)	14,934(10.5)	3.	Thakuri	16,976(6.8)
4.	Sarki	6,293(4.4)	4.	Kami	11,626(4.6)
Total (Population and %)		(84.3)	Total (Population and %)		(82.1)

75. Darchula district (Total population : 133,274)		
S. No.	Major groups by number	Total population with percentage
1.	Chhetri	86,025(64.5)
2.	Brahman-Hill	22,268(16.7)
3.	Kami	7,022(5.3)
4.	Thakuri	6,458(4.8)
Total (Population and %)		(91.3)

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Annex 1.3: Literacy rate by ethnic/caste groups, 2011 Census

S. No.	Ethnic/caste groups	Male			Female			Total Literacy (%)
		Literate	Total	Literacy (%)	Literate	Total	Literacy (%)	
1.	Chhetree	1549579	1874489	82.67	1309408	2089340	62.67	72.13
2.	Brahman – Hill	1285580	1419046	90.59	1160752	1568147	74.02	81.89
3.	Magar	624864	781660	79.94	588095	924651	63.60	71.09
4.	Tharu	577578	781115	73.94	451101	815873	55.29	64.41
5.	Tamang	478408	674084	70.97	398493	726731	54.83	62.60
6.	Newar	526517	598720	87.94	465526	640191	72.72	80.07
7.	Musalman	270076	509127	53.05	171326	504128	33.98	43.56
8.	Kami	357937	506722	70.64	326532	597185	54.68	62.00
9.	Yadav	311894	486383	64.13	175941	455726	38.61	51.78
10.	Rai	217416	267039	81.42	204254	300241	68.03	74.33
11.	Gurung	182072	218750	83.23	177089	264256	67.01	74.36
12.	Damai/Dholi	135600	191486	70.81	125209	225625	55.49	62.53
13.	Limbu	134612	163627	82.27	129845	190423	68.19	74.69
14.	Thakuri	151666	180522	84.02	128385	199660	64.30	73.66
15.	Sarki	104405	150757	69.25	97267	181263	53.66	60.74
16.	Teli	126590	172063	73.57	77814	159594	48.76	61.63
17.	Chamar/Harijan/Ram	68574	148516	46.17	40569	146258	27.74	37.03
18.	Koiri/Kushwaha	96809	141263	68.53	59220	132489	44.70	57.00
19.	Kurmi	66301	106285	62.38	36530	98567	37.06	50.20
20.	Sanyasi/Dashnami	77322	96544	80.09	67325	109125	61.70	70.33
21.	Dhanuk	59699	97849	61.01	35369	97096	36.43	48.77
22.	Musahar	27725	103064	26.90	16898	101406	16.66	21.82
23.	Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	40816	92928	43.92	23887	90024	26.53	35.37
24.	Sherpa	37187	49487	75.14	30882	53725	57.48	65.95
25.	Sonar	20497	29245	70.09	13488	27791	48.53	59.59
26.	Kewat	41746	67796	61.58	26453	69096	38.28	49.82
27.	Brahman - Tarai	57056	64158	88.93	43436	59816	72.62	81.06
28.	Kathbaniyan	53494	65642	81.49	36263	59565	60.88	71.69
29.	Gharti/Bhujel	38525	50833	75.79	35659	57331	62.20	68.58
30.	Mallaha	36750	76952	47.76	19681	74482	26.42	37.26
31.	Kalwar	48572	60757	79.94	31827	54661	58.23	69.66
32.	Kumal	36520	51048	71.54	31832	57291	55.56	63.09
33.	Hajam/Thakur	36442	54248	67.18	21588	50589	42.67	55.35
34.	Kanu	38342	58107	65.99	21334	52268	40.82	54.07
35.	Rajbansi	39946	51021	78.29	30484	53798	56.66	67.19
36.	Sunuwar	17755	24224	73.30	15459	26437	58.47	65.56
37.	Sudhi	33227	42947	77.37	22836	41345	55.23	66.51

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S. No.	Ethnic/caste groups	Male			Female			Total Literacy (%)
		Literate	Total	Literacy (%)	Literate	Total	Literacy (%)	
38.	Lohar	29320	44850	65.37	17912	43881	40.82	53.23
39.	Tatma/Tatwa	22953	46062	49.83	13098	46118	28.40	39.11
40.	Khatwe	20146	43282	46.55	11534	45419	25.39	35.72
41.	Dhobi	26611	49110	54.19	14737	46840	31.46	43.09
42.	Majhi	24013	36642	65.53	19733	38765	50.90	58.01
43.	Nuniya	14465	31941	45.29	7249	29699	24.41	35.23
44.	Kumhar	16739	28370	59.00	9516	26839	35.46	47.56
45.	Danuwar	24725	35977	68.72	19633	40220	48.81	58.21
46.	Chepang/Praja	16130	29591	54.51	11999	28746	41.74	48.22
47.	Haluwai	29761	38843	76.62	20460	36673	55.79	66.50
48.	Rajput	17898	20619	86.80	13060	18114	72.10	79.93
49.	Kayastha	19444	21106	92.13	16339	19898	82.11	87.27
50.	Badhaee	9044	13311	67.94	5257	12388	42.44	55.65
51.	Marwadi	22780	25080	90.83	18860	22748	82.91	87.06
52.	Satar/Santhal	12692	22652	56.03	9471	23233	40.77	48.30
53.	Jhangad/Dhagar	9394	16266	57.75	7317	17446	41.94	49.57
54.	Bantar/Sardar	12965	24137	53.71	8761	25101	34.90	44.12
55.	Baraee	25356	36488	69.49	15277	35140	43.47	56.73
56.	Kahar	14521	24047	60.39	8164	22888	35.67	48.33
57.	Gangai	12317	16426	74.98	8784	16861	52.10	63.39
58.	Lodh	8319	14666	56.72	4346	14225	30.55	43.84
59.	Rajbhar	2883	4350	66.28	1788	4146	43.13	54.98
60.	Thami	7999	12363	64.70	6620	13112	50.49	57.39
61.	Dhimal	8707	11077	78.60	8186	13215	61.94	69.54
62.	Bhote	3854	5727	67.30	3158	6446	48.99	57.60
63.	Bin	11853	32953	35.97	6204	32662	18.99	27.52
64.	Gaderi/Bhedhar	7343	11908	61.66	4383	11469	38.22	50.16
65.	Nurang	59	102	57.84	61	161	37.89	45.63
66.	Yakkha	7568	10159	74.50	6879	11642	59.09	66.27
67.	Darai	5554	7152	77.66	5420	8299	65.31	71.02
68.	Tajpuriya	6248	8390	74.47	4666	9028	51.68	62.66
69.	Thakali	5132	5759	89.11	4883	6685	73.04	80.48
70.	Chidimar	264	561	47.06	188	552	34.06	40.61
71.	Pahari	3606	5989	60.21	2889	6240	46.30	53.11
72.	Mali	4112	6779	60.66	2497	6532	38.23	49.65
73.	Bangali	10289	13622	75.53	5844	10540	55.45	66.77
74.	Chhantyal/Chhantel	3849	4636	83.02	3896	6014	64.78	72.72
75.	Dom	1475	5594	26.37	779	5503	14.16	20.31
76.	Kamar	540	803	67.25	358	792	45.20	56.30

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S. No.	Ethnic/caste groups	Male			Female			Total Literacy (%)
		Literate	Total	Literacy (%)	Literate	Total	Literacy (%)	
77.	Bote	3055	4517	67.63	2668	4870	54.78	60.97
78.	Brahmu/Baramo	2339	3311	70.64	2338	4083	57.26	63.25
79.	Gaine	2222	2889	76.91	1944	3188	60.98	68.55
80.	Jirel	1954	2541	76.90	1612	2830	56.96	66.39
81.	Dura	1937	2209	87.69	1913	2797	68.39	76.91
82.	Badi	11463	15925	71.98	9911	18084	54.81	62.85
83.	Meche	1624	2076	78.23	1429	2395	59.67	68.28
84.	Lepcha	1291	1605	80.44	1117	1576	70.88	75.70
85.	Halkhor	826	1812	45.58	501	1711	29.28	37.67
86.	Punjabi/Shikh	2733	3379	80.88	1891	3127	60.47	71.07
87.	Kisan	473	744	63.58	445	826	53.87	58.47
88.	Raji	1105	1793	61.63	913	1925	47.43	54.28
89.	Byasi/Sanka	1197	1669	71.72	828	1746	47.42	59.30
90.	Hayu	854	1213	70.40	711	1378	51.60	60.40
91.	Koche	492	734	67.03	335	725	46.21	56.68
92.	Dhunia	2838	6333	44.81	1579	6527	24.19	34.35
93.	Walung	396	568	69.72	294	552	53.26	61.61
94.	Munda	688	978	70.35	542	1188	45.62	56.79
95.	Raute	130	275	47.27	97	257	37.74	42.67
96.	H Yolmo	3391	4819	70.37	2877	5286	54.43	62.03
97.	Pattharkatta/Kush-wadiya	815	1386	58.80	608	1408	43.18	50.93
98.	Kusunda	84	118	71.19	75	135	55.56	62.85
99.	Lhomi	434	672	64.58	364	820	44.39	53.49
100.	Kalar	269	454	59.25	222	501	44.31	51.41
101.	Natuwa	546	1347	40.53	296	1282	23.09	32.03
102.	Dhandi	532	884	60.18	301	857	35.12	47.85
103.	Dhankar/Kharikar	579	1180	49.07	377	1157	32.58	40.91
104.	Kulung	9096	12381	73.47	7918	13150	60.21	66.64
105.	Ghale	6886	9487	72.58	6351	11357	55.92	63.51
106.	Khawas	6277	8156	76.96	4880	9001	54.22	65.03
107.	Rajdhob	4435	6023	73.63	2569	5854	43.88	58.97
108.	Kori	2446	5629	43.45	1222	5113	23.90	34.15
109.	Nachhiring	2290	3136	73.02	1851	3250	56.95	64.84
110.	Yamphu	2288	3028	75.56	1935	3297	58.69	66.77
111.	Chamling	2379	2811	84.63	2327	3295	70.62	77.07
112.	Aathpariya	1934	2426	79.72	2051	3041	67.44	72.89
113.	Sarbaria	1250	2180	57.34	737	2123	34.72	46.18
114.	Bantaba	1687	1988	84.86	1625	2252	72.16	78.11

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S. No.	Ethnic/caste groups	Male			Female			Total Literacy (%)
		Literate	Total	Literacy (%)	Literate	Total	Literacy (%)	
115.	Dolpo	693	1802	38.46	368	1940	18.97	28.35
116.	Amat	1123	1716	65.44	675	1696	39.80	52.70
117.	Thulung	1286	1594	80.68	1125	1651	68.14	74.30
118.	Mewahang Bala	1011	1326	76.24	903	1481	60.97	68.19
119.	Bahing	1092	1310	83.36	981	1516	64.71	73.35
120.	Lhopa	715	1207	59.24	428	1245	34.38	46.62
121.	Dev	974	1072	90.86	712	923	77.14	84.51
122.	Samgpang	588	709	82.93	587	840	69.88	75.86
123.	Khaling	505	644	78.42	497	777	63.96	70.51
124.	Topkegola	419	636	65.88	357	708	50.42	57.74
125.	Loharung	453	517	87.62	387	541	71.53	79.40
126.	Dalit Others	43551	63783	68.28	32114	70682	45.43	56.27
127.	Janajati Others	423	559	75.67	326	582	56.01	65.64
128.	Terai Others	31514	48271	65.29	18399	44594	41.26	53.75
129.	Undefined Others	4867	6915	70.38	3933	7165	54.89	62.50
	Total	8663476	11530631	75.13	7109709	12389779	57.38	65.94

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Annex 1.4: Caste/Ethnicity by Religion, 2011 Census

Caste	Religion											Total
	Hindu	Bouddha	Islam	Kirat	Jain	Christian	Shikha	Bahai	Bon	Prakriti	Undefined	
Chhetree	4365113					25807		241		744	6148	4398053
Brahman - Hill	3212704					10245		117			3837	3226903
Magar	1490611	340608				40904			565	9229	5816	1887733
Tharu	1632546	56949				30314		626		13732	3303	1737470
Tamang	136739	1344139				54819			107	327	3699	1539830
Newar	1155134	141982				22276			63	196	2282	1321933
Musalman			1161810								2445	1164255
Kami	1212674					42666		79			3135	1258554
Yadav	1051165				14	277					3002	1054458
Rai	170671	8198		405279		32907		104	67	749	2029	620004
Gurung	168195	327813				11123		114	12134	121	3141	522641
Damai/Dholi	456714					15235					913	472862
Limbu	55525	3077		315991		11356				163	1188	387300
Thakuri	422679					2328					616	425623
Sarki	357791					16300					725	374816
Teli	368151					207					1330	369688
Chamar/Harijan/Ram	334365					603					925	335893
Koiri/Kushwaha	305501					176					716	306393
Kurmi	230767					83					279	231129
Sanyasi/Dashnami	225649					1799					374	227822
Dhanuk	218920					108					780	219808
Musahar	232377					505				961	647	234490
Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	208225					258					427	208910
Sherpa		111068		483		1086			12		297	112946
Sonar	64007					189					139	64335
Kewat	153385					74					313	153772
Brahman - Tarai	133474					93				62	477	134106
Kathbaniyan	138199					138					300	138637
Gharti/Bhujel	115806					2424					420	118650
Mallaha	172844					81					336	173261
Kalwar	127936					57					239	128232
Kumal	119078					1770					348	121196

SOCIAL COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION:
CASTE/ETHNICITY AND RELIGION IN NEPAL

Caste	Religion											Total
	Hindu	Bouddha	Islam	Kirat	Jain	Christian	Shikha	Bahai	Bon	Prakriti	Undefined	
Hajam/Thakur	117353					107					298	117758
Kanu	124852					134					198	125184
Rajbansi	113975					851					416	115242
Sunuwar	51419					4032				53	208	55712
Sudhi	92642					89					384	93115
Lohar	100951					316					154	101421
Tatma/Tatwa	104342					66					457	104865
Khatwe	100517					22					382	100921
Dhobi	108770					96					213	109079
Majhi	68641					1121				13366	599	83727
Nuniya	70415					13					112	70540
Kumhar	62136					28					235	62399
Danuwar	70368					970				12541	236	84115
Chepang/ Prajā	44118					17487				6643	151	68399
Haluwai	83558					78					233	83869
Rajput	41809					83					80	41972
Kayastha	44135					57					112	44304
Badhaee	28812					17					103	28932
Marwadi	48023				3156	57					207	51443
Satar/Santhal	39829					5953				5621	332	51735
Jhangad/ Dhagar	30500					997				5809	118	37424
Bantar/Sardar	54639					50				183	232	55104
Baraee	80435					32				17	113	80597
Kahar	52887					23				156	93	53159
Gangai	32295					49				4537	107	36988
Lodh	32320					26				461	30	32837
Rajbhar	9510					3					29	9542
Thami	12595					766				15250	60	28671
Dhimal	14757					537				10766	238	26298
Bhote		13173				201			3	7	13	13397
Bin	75028					7				9	151	75195
Gaderi/Bhed- har	26289					24					62	26375
Nurang		272				3				1	2	278
Yakkha	2799			21040		451				9	37	24336
Darai	15940					422				375	52	16789
Tajpuriya	14832					178				4141	62	19213

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Caste	Religion											Total
	Hindu	Bouddha	Islam	Kirat	Jain	Christian	Shikha	Bahai	Bon	Prakriti	Undefined	
Thakali	4047	8995				98			29	22	24	13215
Chidimar	1243					1				3	7	1254
Pahari	12414					521				648	32	13615
Mali	14945					23					27	14995
Bangali	26334					152					96	26582
Chhantyal/ Chhantel	11223					172				272	143	11810
Dom	13160					10				57	41	13268
Kamar	1785					2						1787
Bote	9154					215				997	31	10397
Brahmu/ Baramo	6479					421				1224	16	8140
Gaine	6403					374					14	6791
Jirel	1003					163				4604	4	5774
Dura	5360					25					9	5394
Badi	37038					1476					89	38603
Meche	3679					56				1062	70	4867
Lepcha	329					200				2907	9	3445
Halkhor	3976					25					2	4003
Punjabi/Shikh	6533					47	579				17	7176
Kisan	1648					83					8	1739
Raji	4151					84						4235
Byasi/Sanka		3890				4					1	3895
Hayu	1393					3				1449	80	2925
Koche	1547					9				73	6	1635
Dhunia	14769					32					45	14846
Walung		1249										1249
Munda	2281					63					6	2350
Raute	595					3				20		618
H yolmo		10677				60					15	10752
Pattharkatta/ Kushwadiya	2987					46					149	3182
Kusunda	226					6				37	4	273
Lhomi		1460				147			1		6	1614
Kalar	1069					6					2	1077

SOCIAL COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION:
CASTE/ETHNICITY AND RELIGION IN NEPAL

Caste	Religion											Total
	Hindu	Bouddha	Islam	Kirat	Jain	Christian	Shikha	Bahai	Bon	Prakriti	Undefined	
Natuwa	3054					8						3062
Dhandi	1982											1982
Dhankar/ Kharikar	2670					6					5	2681
Kulung	650			26768		1136				5	54	28613
Ghale	8227	12825				1755			5	4	65	22881
Khawas	16220					103				2127	63	18513
Rajdhob	13392					1					29	13422
Kori	12273										3	12276
Nachhiring	227			6806		115					6	7154
Yamphu	489			6117		309				2	16	6933
Chamling	1914			4432		291				1	30	6668
Aathpariya	350			5592		13					22	5977
Sarbaria	4884									1	21	4906
Bantaba	1964			2397		214				12	17	4604
Dolpo		4095				1			11			4107
Amat	3796										34	3830
Thulung	617			2624		278				11	5	3535
Mewahang Bala	317			2726		51				4	2	3100
Bahing	456			2531		104					5	3096
Lhopa	7	2616							1			2624
Dev	2135										12	2147
Samgpang	426			1132		111				1	11	1681
Khaling	328			1106		130					7	1571
Topkegola		1516		3		3				1		1523
Loharung	117			1009		17				5	5	1153
Dalit Others	152031					3021					302	155354
Janajati Others	864	137				196				22	9	1228
Terai Others	102681					362					768	103811
U n d e f i n e d Others	10743	778	260	1116	8	307	12	1	6	177	1869	15277
Foreigner	4471	582	300	17	36	1086	18	1	2	5	133	6651
Total	21551492	2396099	1162370	807169	3214	375699	609	1283	13006	121982	61581	26494504

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CHAPTER 2

LANGUAGE USE IN NEPAL

Yogendra P. Yadava*

Abstract

This chapter aims to analyse the use of languages as mother tongues and second languages in Nepal on the basis of data from the 2011 census, using tables, maps, and figures and providing explanations for certain facts following sociolinguistic insights. The findings of this chapter are presented in five sections. Section 1 shows the importance of language enumeration in censuses and also Nepal's linguistic diversity due to historical and typological reasons. Section 2 shows that the number of mother tongues have increased considerably from 92 (Census 2001) to 123 in the census of 2011 due to democratic movements and ensuing linguistic awareness among Nepalese people since 1990. These mother tongues (except Kusunda) belong to four language families: Indo-European, Sino-Tibetan, Austro-Asiatic and Dravidian, while Kusunda is a language isolate. They have been categorised into two main groups: major and minor. The major group consists of 19 mother tongues spoken by almost 96 % of the total population, while the minor group is made up of the remaining 104 plus languages spoken by about 4% of Nepal's total population. Nepali, highly concentrated in the Hills, but unevenly distributed in other parts of the country, accounts for the largest number of speakers (44.64%). Several cross-border, foreign and recently migrated languages have also been reported in Nepal. Section 3 briefly deals with the factors (such as sex, rural/urban areas, ethnicity, age, literacy etc.) that interact with language. Section 4 shows that according to the census of 2011, the majority of Nepal's population (59%) speak only one language while the remaining 41% speak at least a second language. Finally, this chapter summarises its major findings and explores the implications for formulating language policy on language use in administration, education, etc. and applying it in academic research.

2.1 Background

Language occupies a central role in human self-expression, interpersonal communication, activity, and identity. It is deemed crucial in formulating inclusive national policy. From this perspective language has been considered important for achieving equitable and sustainable development as envisaged in the UN Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (UNESCO 2012; Tamang and Gurung, (Eds.) 2014). Hence, it is recognised as one of the significant social characteristics by the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS), Government of Nepal, that they need to be well-informed about when formulating national language plans and policies relevant to developing various national sectors.

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Historically, Nepal has been a conglomeration of different groups of peoples with different cultures and languages. In addition, its topography is varied ranging from different altitudes of high mountains and hills to the plains of Tarai. Accordingly, it has gradually evolved into a multiethnic, multicultural and multilingual country, despite being small in area.

In Nepal, data on language use have been collected every 10 years in the decennial censuses since the first census in 1952/54 in the modern sense, although it was first collected in 1911. The estimates on the languages used in the country reveal that Nepal is a country where every Nepali speaks at least one language, called their ‘mother tongue’¹ and/or other languages, known as ‘second languages’². In this multilingual situation, mother tongues are global to Nepalese people but they also optionally use second languages. It is therefore essential to collect data on both mother tongues and second languages.

Although the question on language use has varied over time, two questions designed for the census of 2011 have been in practice since 1952/54 (see Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1: The question on language use (CBS 2011)

Q. 10. What are the mother tongue and the second language of(a given respondent)?
1. Mother tongue
2. Second language

The first question seeks a response on the mother tongue acquired from parents during childhood. The second question asks respondents to name the second language learned later than the mother tongue for communicating with neighbours or others in carrying out activities.

Census enumerators were not provided with a list of languages/dialects spoken in Nepal during the data collection of 2011. As a result, several blurry, indistinct or wrong language names were enumerated as responses to mother tongues and second languages. This issue was resolved to a large extent through the formation of a subcommittee of linguists representing different language groups. Eventually, 123 languages were identified in Nepal (despite being small in area), merging a number of indistinct languages as ‘others’ (spoken by 21,173 respondents) in the lack of complete information, while 47,718 respondents were coded as non-responses.

This chapter is an attempt to understand the linguistic diversity and the languages used as mother tongues and second languages in Nepal on the basis of the data acquired and recorded from the census of 2011. Data from earlier censuses have also been referenced where relevant.

1 The term ‘mother tongue’ usually refers to the first language acquired from parents at home during childhood. The CBS Nepal (2011) assumes that every respondent during census enumeration will claim a single mother tongue; however, more than one mother tongue has been reported in some censuses elsewhere. Besides, a first language acquired from birth may not be learnt from mothers or parents but from playmates, neighbors, etc.. Hence, applied linguists prefer to use the term ‘first language’ instead of ‘mother tongue’.

2 CBS Nepal Guidelines (2011) define the term ‘second language’ as a language learnt later than a mother tongue for performing certain communicative functions in society. The CBS questionnaire also has a single slot for the second language although the Nepalese linguistic context is often different, in that an individual may often know more than one second language besides his/her mother tongue. Hence, there is a need to record more than one second language (as well as mother tongue) for a valid and reliable enumeration of the country.

2.2 Mother tongues

2.2.1 Approximations

There have been several attempts to enumerate the languages spoken in the country as mother tongues, including the decennial censuses. The census-based approximations of Nepal's languages listed in Table 2.1 show variation. This table suggests two distinct trends. Of the seven censuses, five censuses were numerically larger (1952/54, 1961, 1991, 2001 and 2011) than two (1971 and 1981) in terms of the number of languages enumerated, with the 1971 and 1981 censuses having a lower number. In addition, there has been a steady increase in language enumeration from the 1991 to 2011 census.

Table 2.1: A comparison of census enumerations of languages (1952/54 - 2011)

Censuses	1952/54	1961	1971	1981	1991	2001	2011
Number of languages	44	36	17	18	31	92	123

The existing rise in languages since the 1991 census may be attributed to a number of factors. Since the restoration of democracy in 1990, there has been a drastic increase in ethno-linguistic awareness among linguistic minorities (including indigenous peoples) about their mother tongues. Subsequently, linguists and other social scientists have been consulted for a precise identification of Nepal's languages enumerated in different censuses (Yadava 2003, 2013). Uncertainty about the number of Nepal's languages has been prevailing due to the lack of a detailed and comprehensive linguistic survey (LinSuN 2008³; Sharma 2014).

The reason why there was a decrease in the number of languages in the 1971 and 1981 censuses was mainly due to the assimilation policy ('one language, one nation') and the social exclusion prevailing in Nepal, especially during the Panchayat regime as well as earlier, apart from a lack of ethno-linguistic awareness in ethnic and other minority communities (Yadava 2003).

In addition to the seven consecutive decennial censuses, there have also been individual attempts to rationalise the number of Nepal's languages. Malla (1989) and Toba (1992) mentioned 70 while Noonan (2005:2) has estimated that at least 140 languages are spoken in Nepal. Recently, the *Ethnologue: Languages of Nepal* (Epele et al. 2012) has listed 124 languages.

All these attempts (including the seven censuses) for enumeration of languages spoken in Nepal as mother tongues have so far remained a sort of approximation or rationalisation. There is obviously a need for an in-depth study to arrive at their accurate number; the on-going Linguistic Survey of Nepal, started in 2008, could be conclusive in this direction (LinSuN 2008).

2.2.2 Language families

The mother tongues enumerated in the census of 2011 (except Kusunda) belong to four language families: Indo-European, Sino-Tibetan, Austro-Asiatic and Dravidian, while Kusunda is a language isolate⁴ consisting of a single language without any genetic relationship with other languages. Their number of speakers with percentages is shown in Table 2.2.

3 For the details of the LinSuN proposal search <http://cdltu.edu.np/site/LinSuN%20Proposal%20Final%20Draft.pdf>

4 "A language isolate is a language which has no known structural or historical relationship to any other language." (Crystal 1997: 328). Whitehouse et al. (2004) mention that Kusunda has been misclassified as a Tibeto-Burman language. Instead, they claim on some linguistic evidence that this language is a member of the Indo-Pacific family though it needs to be further supported by its speakers' DNA evidence.

Table 2.2: Population by the language families of mother tongues (1952/54-2011).

Language families	Census years													
	1952/54		1961		1971		1981		1991		2001		2011	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1.Indo-European	6,351,899	77.13	7,449,604	79.14	9,062,435	78.42	12,417,886	82.66	14,701,283	79.50	17,982,769	79.1	21,753,009	82.10
2.Sino-Tibetan	1,795,337	21.08	1,813,083	19.26	1,982,635	17.16	1,811,944	12.06	3,098,698	16.76	4,183,995	18.4	4,584,523	17.30
3.Austro-Asiatic	16,751	0.20	29,485	0.31	23,853	0.21	28,208	0.19	33,332	0.18	40,260	0.2	49,858	0.19
4. Dravidian									15,175	0.1	28,615	0.1	33,651	0.13
5.Others (including the foreign languages)	70,340	0.85	114,392	1.22	487,060	4.21	764,802	5.09	648,627	3.51	NA	NA	25,745 *	0.09
6.Not stated	752	0.01	6,432	0.07					9,157	0.05	503,295	2.2	47,718	0.18
Total	8,235,079	100.00	9,412,996	100.00	11,555,983	100.00	15,022,839	100.00	18,491,097	100.00	22,738,934	100.00	26,494,504	100%

This figure includes Kusunda, foreign and sign languages in addition to others.

Sources: *Population censuses (1952/54-2011)*.

Nepal's languages are mostly either Indo-European or Sino-Tibetan, while only a very few of them are Austro-Asiatic and Dravidian. The 48 Indo-European languages,

which are of the Indo-Aryan subfamily (excluding English), constitute the largest group in terms of the numeric strength of their speakers, nearly 82.1% (Census 2011).

The Sino-Tibetan family of Nepal’s languages forms a part of its Tibeto-Burman group. Though spoken by relatively less number of people than the Indo-European family (17.3%), it includes a greater number of languages, about 63 languages (Census 2011).

Austro-Asiatic and Dravidian languages rank third at 0.19% and fourth at 0.13%, respectively, while only about 28 people speak Kusunda.

According to Table 2.2, the percentages of speakers of individual languages within the four language groups show inconsistent trends in their increase and decline.⁵

2.2.3 Distribution

The distribution of Nepal’s languages is shown in the map below.

Map 2.1: Distribution of Nepal’s languages (mother tongues) (Census 2011)⁶



Nepali, spoken by 44.6% of Nepal’s total population, is the largest language in terms of the number of speakers in all the censuses. It is spoken across the country; however, it is not evenly distributed throughout. As shown in

5 See Annex 2.1 for the family wise languages with the number and percentages of their speakers.
 6 Thanks are due to Irene Tucker, SIL Lead Cartographer, who produced this map with the help the help of Matt Benjamin, Eva (Ujlakyova) Horton, and Stephen Tucker for *Ethnologue* (2012, eds. Epele et al).

Table 2.3, it is spoken mostly in the Hills but less in the Tarai and even less so in the Mountains.

Table 2.3: Region wise distribution of Nepali as a mother tongue (in percentage)

Ecological regions			
Mountains	Hills	Tarai	Total
4.16	27.29	13.19	44.64

Maithili is spoken by 11.7% of the population and ranks first in the Tarai and second (i.e. next to Nepali) in the national context. Its core area are the 6 districts of the eastern and central Tarai (Sunsari, Saptari, Siraha, Dhanusha, Mahottari, and Sarlahi) while it occupies second position in Morang and Nawalparasi, and is also spoken significantly in the four central Tarai districts (Rautahat, Bara, Parsa and Rupandehi).

Bhojpur, spoken by 5.98% of the population, is the third largest language at the national level but second in the Tarai. It is mostly spoken in the four central Tarai districts (Rautahat, Bara, Parsa and Rupandehi).

Tharu is spoken by 5.77% of the population across the Tarai, although primarily in two districts (Bardiya and Kanchanpur) and constitutes the fourth largest language at the national level and ranks as the fourth Tarai language. Bajjika, Urdu, Avadhi, and Rajbanshi are other major Tarai languages mainly spoken in Rautahat and Bara, and throughout the Tarai, Kapilvastu and Banke, and Jhapa districts, respectively.

Tamang is another major language largely spoken in the Hills and also in the Mountains. Newar is mainly confined to the three districts of the Kathmandu Valley, Kathmandu, Lalitpur, and Bhaktapur.

Magar, another important language of the hilly region, occupies the second position in 12 districts (Tanahu, Syangja, Parbat, Pyuthan, Arghakhanchi, Myagdi, Rolpa, Salyan, Baglung, Rukum, Surkhet and Gulmi) whereas it occupies the third position in 3 districts (Khotang, Udayapur and Sindhuli).

The Rai-Kirati languages (including Bantawa) are primarily spread across the eastern Hills districts, namely, Bhojpur, Dhakuta, Okhaldhunga, Khotang, Udaypur and Ilam. The Limbu language is mainly concentrated in Panchthar, Taplejung and Tehrathum districts and also largely spoken in Ilam and Dhankuta districts.

Moreover, a considerable number of Sherpa speakers reside in the mountains, namely, Taplejung, Sankhuwasabha, Solukhumbu and Dolakha districts⁷.

To sum up, the percentages of mother tongue Nepali speakers has gradually declined across the last seven decennial censuses (1952/54-2011). Concurrently, there has been an increase in languages other than Nepali and their speakers. The increase in these languages has been mainly due to two factors. First, Doteli, Baitadeli, Achchami, Bajhang, Dailekhi, Darchuleli, Jumli, Dadeldhuri and Gadhwali have been recorded as separate languages in the census of 2011, while they were treated as dialects of Nepali and merged into it in 2001 and other earlier censuses. Secondly, as mentioned earlier, various ethnic and other minority communities have been determined to have their mother tongues recognised as separate languages owing to the growth of their ethno-linguistic awareness.

The approximations arrived at in the census of 2011 (as well as earlier censuses) may give the impression that these languages are 'isolated units' (Watters 2008). Instead, they may in fact be interrelated.

⁷ See Table 21 (CBS 2012) for details about the distribution of all major and minor mother tongues in Nepal.

The Indo-European languages of the Indo-Aryan subfamily spoken all across the Tarai, from Mechi (in the east) to Mahakali (in the west), for example, are continuously related from the perspective of mutual intelligibility. It is difficult to demarcate where one language ends and another begins. This may also be true for other genetically related language groups such as Rai-Kirati, Himalayish, and other subgroups. Owing to this linguistic continuum, people living in two adjacent separate language communities can understand each other's languages and communicate with each other.

2.2.4 Language groupings: major and minor languages

Nepal's mother tongues may be categorised into major and minor groups in terms of the number of their speakers recorded in the census of 2011. If 100,000 speakers is the cut off for 'major' languages, their number in Nepal is 19, and their cumulative percentage of the population is approximately 96%. Inversely, the remaining 104 plus languages (barring a few of the cross-border languages with their kin states) are spoken by about 4% of Nepal's total population (Yadava 2013). Nepali accounted for the largest number of speakers (almost 12 million speakers; 44.64%) although it decreased in percentages of its speakers from earlier decennial censuses carried out since 1952/54⁸. The other 18 languages spoken by at least 100,000 populations are listed with their speakers, percentages and cumulative percentages in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Nepal's major languages (minimum 100, 000 speakers, CBS 2012)

S.No.	Languages	Speakers	Per cent	Cumulative per cent
1.	Nepali	11,826,953	44.64	44.64
2.	Maithili	3,092,530	11.67	56.31
3.	Bhojpuri	1,584,958	5.98	62.29
4.	Tharu	1,529,875	5.77	68.07
5.	Tamang	1,353,311	5.11	73.18
6.	Newar	846,557	3.20	76.37
7.	Bajjika	793,416	2.99	79.37
8.	Magar	788,530	2.98	82.34
9.	Doteli	787,827	2.97	85.32
10.	Urdu	691,546	2.61	87.93
11.	Avadhi	501,752	1.89	89.82
12.	Limbu	343,603	1.30	91.12
13.	Gurung	325,622	1.23	92.35
14.	Baitadeli	272,524	1.03	93.37
15.	Rai	159,114	0.60	93.97
16.	Achhami	142,787	0.54	94.51
17.	Bantawa	132,583	0.50	95.01
18.	Rajbanshi	122,214	0.46	95.48
19.	Sherpa	114,830	0.43	95.91

Inversely, the remaining 104 plus languages comprising less than 100,000 speakers may be referred to as 'minor'

⁸ In the earlier censuses the percentages of Nepali mother tongue speakers were 48.74% (1952/54), 50.96% (1961), 52.45% (1971), 58.36% (1981), 50.31% (1991), and 48.61% (2001).

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languages and are spoken by about 4% of Nepal's total population (Yadava 2013). These minor languages can be further subcategorised into three subtypes in terms of their respective number of speakers: (i) minor languages with 99,999 to 10,000 speakers, (ii) minor languages with 9,999 to 1,000 speakers, and (iii) minor (or marginalised) languages with less than 1,000 speakers. They are listed with their speakers, percentages and cumulative percentages in Tables 2.4, 2.5 and 2.6, respectively.

Table 2.5: Minor languages (10,000 - 99,999 speakers, CBS 2012)

S.No.	Languages	Speakers	Percent	Cumulative percent
20.	Hindi	77,569	0.29	96.20
21.	Chamling	76,800	0.29	96.49
22.	Bajhangi	67,581	0.26	96.75
23.	Santhali	49,858	0.19	96.94
24.	Chepang	48,476	0.18	97.12
25.	Danuwar	45,821	0.17	97.29
26.	Sunuwar	37,898	0.14	97.33
27.	Magahi	35,614	0.13	97.46
28.	Uranw	33,651	0.13	97.59
29.	Kulung	33,170	0.13	97.72
30.	Kham (Magar)	27,113	0.10	97.82
31.	Rajasthani	25,394	0.10	97.92
32.	Majhi	24,422	0.09	98.01
33.	Thangmi	23,151	0.09	98.10
34.	Bhujel	21,715	0.08	98.18
35.	Bangla	21,061	0.08	98.26
36.	Thulung	20,659	0.08	98.34
37.	Yakkha	19,558	0.07	98.41
38.	Dhimal	19,300	0.07	98.48
39.	Tajpuriya	18,811	0.07	98.55
40.	Angika	18,555	0.07	98.62
41.	Sampang	18,270	0.07	98.69
42.	Khaling	14,467	0.05	98.74
43.	Wambule	13,470	0.05	98.79
44.	Kumal	12,222	0.05	98.84
45.	Darai	11,677	0.04	98.88
46.	Bahing	11,658	0.04	98.92
47.	Bajhangi	10,704	0.04	98.96
48.	Yholmo	10,176	0.04	99.00
49.	Nachhering	10,041	0.04	99.04

Table 2.6: Minor languages with 1,000 to 9,999 speakers, CBS 2012)

S.No.	Languages	Speakers	Percent	Cumulative percent
50.	Yamphu	9,208	0.03	99.07
51.	Bote	8,766	0.03	99.10
52.	Ghale	8,092	0.03	99.13
53.	Dumi	7,638	0.03	99.16
54.	Lapcha	7,499	0.03	99.19
55.	Puma	6,686	0.03	99.22
56.	Dungmali	6,260	0.02	99.24
57.	Darchuleli	5,928	0.02	99.26
58.	Athpariya	5,530	0.02	99.28
59.	Thakali	5,242	0.02	99.30
60.	Jirel	4,829	0.02	99.32
61.	Mewahang	4,650	0.02	99.34
62.	Sign language	4,476	0.02	99.36
63.	Tibetan	4,445	0.02	99.38
64.	Meche	4,375	0.02	99.40
65.	Chantyal	4,283	0.02	99.42
66.	Raji	3,758	0.01	99.43
67.	Lohorung	3,716	0.01	99.44
68.	Chhintang	3,712	0.01	99.45
69.	Gangai	3,612	0.01	99.46
70.	Pahari	3,458	0.01	99.47
71.	Dailekhi	3,102	0.01	99.48
72.	Lhopa	3,029	0.01	99.49
73.	Dura	2,156	0.01	99.50
74.	Koce	2,080	0.01	99.51
75.	Chhiling	2,046	0.01	99.52
76.	English	2,032	0.01	99.53
77.	Jerung	1,763	0.01	99.54
78.	Khas	1,747	0.01	99.55
79.	Sanskrit	1,669	0.01	99.56
80.	Dolpali	1,667	0.01	99.57
81.	Hayu	1,520	0.01	99.58
82.	Tilung	1,424	0.01	99.59
83.	Koi	1,271	0.00	—
84.	Kisan	1,178	0.00	—
85.	Waling	1,169	0.00	—
86.	Musalban	1,075	0.00	—

In Table 2.6, there are quite a few marginalised languages with less than 1,000 speakers.

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Table 2.7: Minor languages (less than 1,000 speakers, CBS 2012)

S.No.	Languages	Speakers	Percent	Cumulative percent
87.	Hariyani	889	0.00	
88.	Jumli	851	0.00	
89.	Lhomi	808	0.00	
90.	Punjabi	808	0.00	
91.	Belhare	599	0.00	
92.	Oriya	584	0.00	
93.	Sonaha	579	0.00	
94.	Sindhi	518	0.00	
95.	Dadeldhuri	488	0.00	
96.	Byangshi	480	0.00	
97.	Assamese	476	0.00	
98.	Raute	461	0.00	
99.	Sam	401	0.00	
100.	Manange	392	0.00	
101.	Dhuleli	347	0.00	
102.	Phangduali	290	0.00	
103.	Surel	287	0.00	
104.	Malpande	247	0.00	
105.	Chinese	242	0.00	
106.	Khariya	238	0.00	
107.	Kurmali	227	0.00	
108.	Baram	155	0.00	
109.	Lingkhim	129	0.00	
110.	Sadhani	122	0.00	
111.	Kagate	99	0.00	
112.	Dzonkha	80	0.00	
113.	Bankariya	69	0.00	
114.	Kaike	50	0.00	
115.	Gadhawali	38	0.00	
116.	French	34	0.00	
117.	Mizo	32	0.00	
118.	Kuki	29	0.00	
119.	Kusunda	28	0.00	
120.	Russian	17	0.00	
121.	Spanish	16	0.00	
122.	Nagamese	10	0.00	
123.	Arabi	8	0.00	
124.	Not reported	47,718	0.18	99.77
125.	Others	21,173	0.08	99.85

In the census of 2011 there has been a sizeable numeric increase in the number of mother tongues. The census of 2001 enumerated 92 languages, which has increased to 123 languages in the census of 2011. These 32 additional languages include: Doteli, Baitadeli, Achhami, Bajhang, Thangmi, Bajureli, Darchuleli, Athpariya, Gangai, Dailekhi, Lhopa, Dolpali, Musalban, Jumli, Lhomi, Sonaha, Dadeldhuri, Manange, Dhuleli, Phangduali, Surel, Malpande, Kurmali, Kagate, Dzonkha, Bankariya, Gadhawali, French, Kuki, Russian, Spanish, and Nagamese. Twelve of them were earlier considered to be dialects of Nepali and merged into it in the previous censuses. Languages like Athpariya, Lhopa, Dolpali, Lhomi, Sonaha, Manange, Phangduali, Surel, Malpande, Kurmali, Kagate, Dzonkha, and Bankariya, which were missing in the census of 2001 have now been returned as separate languages in the census of 2011. The remaining few languages such as Dzonkha, French, Kuki, Russian, Spanish and Nagamese are foreign languages.

Besides the approximation of 123 mother tongues spoken as recorded by the census of 2011, a number of indistinct or fuzzy languages spoken by 21,173 respondents have surfaced which have been grouped together into a category called ‘others’ in the lack of precise information. The census of 2011 also coded 47,718 responses as ‘non-responses’ in the mother tongue section of the census questionnaire.

2.2.5 Cross border languages

Nepal, south of China, is surrounded by Indian borders on three sides; east, south and west. Concomitantly, there are many languages in Nepal that are also spoken in India. Such languages are often referred to as ‘cross-border languages’ whereby languages are spoken by the populations whose traditional geographic areas have been politically divided into one or several frontiers or the languages whose speakers migrated at some point in their history (Yadava 2010). They mainly include 47 languages of Indo-European (Angika, Avadhi, Bajjika, Bengali, Bhojपुरी, Hindi, Nepali, Maithili, Urdu, Rajbanshi, and Tharu), Sino-Tibetan (Bodo, Tamang, Magar, Dzonkha, Byangsi, Lapcha, and Rai-Kirati), Austro-Asiatic (e.g. Santhali) and Dravidian (e.g. Kurux) stocks.

2.2.6 Foreign and recently migrated languages

A few of the languages listed in Census 2011 are ‘foreign’ such as Chinese, English, Spanish, Russian, Arabic, and French. They are obviously foreign and international languages, but minority ones in the Nepalese context. Being marginalised they may be endangered, however they have ‘a kin state’. These international migrant languages are therefore not threatened; the same argument also holds for most migrant languages such as Santhali, Uranw, and Lapcha (Gorter 2007; Yadava 2013). In addition, there are quite a few languages that have recently migrated from India to Nepal; they include Mizo (32 speakers), Kuki (29 speakers), Nagamese (10 speakers), Dzonkha (80 speakers), Assamese (476 speakers), Sindhi (518 speakers), Oriya (584 speakers), Punjabi (808 speakers), Hariyanwi (889 speakers), and Rajasthani (25,394 speakers).

2.3 Crosscutting dimensions

The fundamental theme of this chapter is to analyse Nepal’s languages on the basis of census language data. There are, however, a number of issues that can interact with language. These crosscutting issues may be sex, rural/urban areas, ethnicity, age, literacy, etc. In terms of sex, English, Sanskrit, Arabic, and Chinese are found to be more male dominated, while the speakers of other languages are generally sexually neutral:

i.e. they are almost evenly spoken by both males and females. Similarly, the speakers of all languages, except Newar, are more numerous in rural than in urban areas because the Nepalese population is higher in rural than in urban areas (17.07%). The Kathmandu Valley has long been the native location of the Newar language; hence, Newar speakers are obviously more numerous in urban than in rural areas.

Nepal's languages, being a multiethnic nation, interact in a threefold ethnic-linguistic structure: a. one (ethnic group)-to-one (language), e.g. Rajbanshi speaking a single language, namely, Rajbanshi; b. one (caste/ethnic group)-to-many (languages), e.g. Yadav speaking Maithili, Bhojpuri and Avadhi languages in the east, central and western Tarai regions; c. many (castes/ethnic groups)-to-one (language), e.g. Bahun, Kshetri, Kami, Damai, Thakuri, Sarki and Sanyasi speaking a single language Nepali (Yadava 2003, 2013). Such language-ethnicity interactions are important to understand the social structure of castes and ethnic communities and languages and need further analysis on the basis of available census data.

Another factor that interacts with language is age. Children begin the acquisition of their mother tongues at the age of 1 or so. They start learning additional second languages only later. It would therefore be reasonable to elicit responses to census language questions not at the age of 1 year but only later (5 years and above). No such age restriction⁹ has so far been observed in the censuses carried out in Nepal to date.

Likewise, it is relevant to understand the interaction between mother tongue and education since it has been assumed in various reports and academic studies (Skutnabb et al. 2008; Skutnabb and Mohanty 2009) that there have been greater drop-outs and out-of-school children, and a deterioration in the quality of education at the basic level of school education owing to the use of dominant language instead of mother tongue as a medium of instruction. It is therefore deemed essential to analyse the census data on mother tongue-education correlation.

2.4 Second languages

The present census shows that the majority of Nepal's population (15.6 million people (59%)) are monolinguals (i.e. they only speak one language), while the remaining 11 million people (41%) speak at least a language other than their mother tongues, called 'a second language'. Of the latter group who speak at least a second language, Nepali is spoken by the largest number, 8,682,499 (32.77%), while Hindi ranks second with 1,225,950 speakers (4.62%). It is to be noted that there has been a drastic increase in the population speaking Hindi as a second language although the population speaking Hindi as a mother tongue has considerably declined in the censuses of 2011 (77,569 speakers; 0.29%), 1991 (170997 speakers; 0.92%) and 2001 (105765 speakers; 0.47%).¹⁰

The next largest second-language speaking groups are Maithili (195,287 (0.73%)) followed by Bhojpuri (159,518 (0.60%)), Tharu (84,748 (0.31%)), English (81,447 (0.30%)), Bajjika (60,863 (0.22%)), Urdu (45,766 (0.17%)), Avadhi (45,428 (0.17%)), Magar (42,952 (0.16%)), Tamang (33,450 (0.12%)), Newar (32,594 (0.12%)), and Bantawa (28,459 (0.10%)).

Most of the second languages are largely spoken in rural than in urban areas. However, there are a few lan-

9 Note that CBS has observed such age restrictions on coding census population for literacy and educational attainment (age of 5+) and also marriage (age of 10+). It is also imperative to make a similar provision for collecting data on mother tongues and second languages.

10 The drastic increase in the percentage of the speakers of Hindi as a second language may be ascribed to migration, regular contact with Hindi electronic media and also the decrease in the speakers of Hindi as a mother tongue owing to their awareness about their genuine mother tongues.

guages used reversely. For examples, Kisan, Oriya, Mizo and Kharia have more speakers in urban than rural areas and English and Newar are used almost equally in both urban and rural areas. Most of the languages enumerated as mother tongues (91) are also used as second languages but 32 of the mother tongues, which include the earlier dialects of Nepali and some marginalised and foreign languages, do not figure as second languages.¹¹

2.5 Findings

This chapter has analysed the linguistic diversity and the language use in Nepal on the basis of the data from the census of 2011. As background, it has briefly dealt with the varied settlements at different times and uneven topography as the sources of Nepal's linguistic plurality. To acquire the details about this plurality a set of two questions were asked during the census of 2011 to enumerate respondents' mother tongues and second languages. It has been found that there are 123 languages spoken as mother tongues normally acquired from parents; this is an increase of 31 additional languages compared to the census of 2001. These mother tongues (except Kusunda) belong to four language families: Indo-European, Sino-Tibetan, Austro-Asiatic and Dravidian, while Kusunda is a language isolate. Of them 19 are 'major' languages (spoken by more than 100,000 population) and their cumulative percentage of the population is 96%. Inversely, the remaining 104 + languages are spoken by about 4% of Nepal's total population and may be deemed endangered in different degrees. Nepali accounts for the largest number of speakers (almost 12 million speakers; 44.64%) although it decreased in percentages of its speakers from earlier decennial censuses carried out since 1952/54 owing to the rise in ethnolinguistic awareness among minority communities. Nepali as a mother tongue is highly concentrated in the Hills and not evenly distributed across the country like the remaining languages. There are a large number of cross-border languages spoken along the Indian border, as well as some foreign and recently migrated languages used in Nepal. It has been observed that language interacts with factors such as sex, rural/urban areas, ethnicity, age, and literacy. In addition, the census of 2011 recorded 91 languages spoken as second languages. According to this, the majority of Nepal's population (15.6 million people (59%)) are monolinguals, while the remaining 11 million people (41%), a sizable minority, speak at least a language other than their mother tongues, called 'a second language'. Of the latter group who speak at least a second language, Nepali is spoken by the largest number, 8,682,499 (32.77%) while Hindi ranks second with 1,225,950 speakers (4.62%). Most of the languages enumerated as mother tongues (91) are also used as second languages but 32 of the mother tongues, which include the earlier dialects of Nepali and some marginalised and foreign languages do not figure as second languages.

2.6 Policy implications

The findings of this chapter may be vital for formulating language policy at national and local levels and helpful for researchers to further investigate the language situation in Nepal. The findings may be used for devising national policy on the following issues:

- i. use of a language or languages in administration at the different levels of governance to be decided in the future federal state;
- ii. use of mother tongues in multilingual education¹² as medium/subject of instruction in both formal and non-formal education; and
- iii. identification of language endangerment, documentation, promotion and preservation.

¹¹ See Annex 2.2 for the population of the second languages.

¹² By 'multilingual education' we mean that a child will acquire basic educational skills through the medium of his/her mother which the affairs of government are carried on" (Fishman 1968: 698) and finally learn a foreign language (e.g. English) for broader communications and access to science and technology (Yadava and Grove 2008)

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Annex 2.1: Languages and their population by language families

Mother Tongue		Population	per cent
A. Indo-European		21,753,009	82.10
1.	Nepali	11,826,953	44.64
2.	Maithili	3,092,530	11.67
3.	Bhojpuri	1,584,958	5.98
4.	Tharu (a single)	1,529,875	5.77
5.	Bajjika	793,416	2.99
6.	Doteli	787,827	2.97
7.	Urdu	691,546	2.61
8.	Avadhi	501,752	1.89
9.	Baitadeli	272,524	1.03
10.	Achhami	142,787	0.54
11.	Rajbanshi	122,214	0.46
12.	Hindi	77,569	0.29
13.	Bajhanghi	67,581	0.26
14.	Danuwar	45,821	0.17
15.	Magahi	35,614	0.13
16.	Rajasthani	25,394	0.10
17.	Majhi	24,422	0.09
18.	Bangla	21,061	0.08
19.	Tajpurija	18,811	0.07
20.	Angika	18,555	0.07
21.	Kumal	12,222	0.05
22.	Darai	11,677	0.04
23.	Bajureli	10,704	0.04
24.	Bote	8,766	0.03
25.	Darchuleli	5,928	0.02
26.	Gangai	3,612	0.01
27.	Dailekhi	3,102	0.01
28.	English	2,032	0.01
29.	Khas	1,747	0.01
30.	Sanskrit	1,669	0.01
31.	Dolpali	1,667	0.01

	Mother Tongue	Population	per cent
32.	Kisan	1,178	0.00
33.	Musalban	1,075	0.00
34.	Hariyani	889	0.00
35.	Jumli	851	0.00
36.	Punjabi	808	0.00
37.	Oriya	584	0.00
38.	Sonaha	579	0.00
39.	Sindhi	518	0.00
40.	Dadeldhuri	488	0.00
41.	Assamese	476	0.00
42.	Dhuleli	347	0.00
43.	Malpande	247	0.00
44.	Khariya	238	0.00
45.	Kurmali	227	0.00
46.	Sadhani	122	0.00
47.	Gadhawali	38	0.00
48.	Arabic	8	0.00
B. Sino-Tibetan		4,584,523	17.30
1.	Tamang	1,353,311	5.11
2.	Newar	846,557	3.20
3.	Magar	788,530	2.98
4.	Limbu	343,603	1.30
5.	Gurung	325,622	1.23
6.	Rai	159,114	0.60
7.	Bantawa	132,583	0.50
8.	Sherpa	114,830	0.43
9.	Chamling	76,800	0.29
10.	Chepang	48,476	0.18
11.	Sunuwar	37,898	0.14
12.	Kulung	33,170	0.13
13.	Kham (Magar)	27,113	0.10
14.	Thangmi	23,151	0.09
15.	Bhujel	21,715	0.08

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	Mother Tongue	Population	per cent
16.	Thulung	20,659	0.08
17.	Yakhkha	19,558	0.07
18.	Dhimal	19,300	0.07
19.	Sampang	18,270	0.07
20.	Khaling	14,467	0.05
21.	Wambule	13,470	0.05
22.	Bahing	11,658	0.04
23.	Yholmo	10,176	0.04
24.	Nachhering	10,041	0.04
25.	Yamphu	9,208	0.03
26.	Ghale	8,092	0.03
27.	Dumi	7,638	0.03
28.	Lapcha	7,499	0.03
29.	Puma	6,686	0.03
30.	Dungmali	6,260	0.02
31.	Athpariya	5,530	0.02
32.	Thakali	5,242	0.02
33.	Jirel	4,829	0.02
34.	Mewahang	4,650	0.02
35.	Tibetan	4,445	0.02
36.	Meche	4,375	0.02
37.	Chantyal	4,283	0.02
38.	Raji	3,758	0.01
39.	Lohorung	3,716	0.01
40.	Chhintang	3,712	0.01
41.	Pahari	3,458	0.01
42.	Lhopa	3,029	0.01
43.	Dura	2,156	0.01
44.	Koce	2,080	0.01
45.	Chhiling	2,046	0.01
46.	Jerung	1,763	0.01
47.	Hayu	1,520	0.01
48.	Tilung	1,424	0.01
49.	Koi	1,271	0.00

	Mother Tongue	Population	per cent
50.	Waling	1,169	0.00
51.	Lhomi	808	0.00
52.	Belhare	599	0.00
53.	Byangshi	480	0.00
54.	Raute	461	0.00
55.	Sam	401	0.00
56.	Manange	392	0.00
57.	Phangduali	290	0.00
58.	Surel	287	0.00
59.	Chinese	242	0.00
60.	Baram	155	0.00
61.	Lingkhim	129	0.00
62.	Kagate	99	0.00
63.	Dzonkha	80	0.00
64.	Bankariya	69	0.00
65.	Kaike	50	0.00
66.	Mizo	32	0.00
67.	Kuki	29	0.00
68.	Nagamese	10	0.00
C. Austro-Asiatic		49,858	0.19
1.	Santhali	49,858	0.19
D. Dravidian		33,651	0.13
1.	Uranw	33,651	0.13
E. Language Isolate		28	0.00
1.	Kusunda	28	0.00
F. Others (Including foreign and sign languages)		25,717	0.09
Not reported		47,718	0.18
Total		26,494,504	100%

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Annex 2.2: Population by second languages

S.No.	Population by second languages	
1	Nepali	8,682,499 (32.77%)
2	Hindi	1,225,950 (4.62%)
3	Maithili	195,287 (0.73%)
4	Bhojpuri	159,518 (0.60%)
5	Tharu	84,748 (0.31%)
6	English	81,447 (0.30%)
7	Bajjika	60,863 (0.22%)
8	Urdu	45,766 (0.17%)
9	Avadhi	45,428 (0.17%)
10	Magar	42,952 (0.16%)
11	Tamang	33,450 (0.12%)
12	Newar	32,594 (0.12%)
13	Bantwa	28,459 (0.10%)
14	Gurung	22,834 (0.08%)
15	Limbu	22,202 (0.08%)
16	Rajbanshi	20,060 (0.07%)
17	Rai	17,199 (0.06%)
18	Magahi	10,813 (0.04%)
19	Sherpa	8,181 (0.03%)
20	Chamling	6,359 (0.02%)
21	Jero/Jerung	3,619 (0.01%)
22	Bahing	3,552 (0.01%)
23	Sanskrit	2,975 (0.01%)
24	Bangla	2,879 (0.01%)
25	Danuwar	2,846 (0.01%)
26	Khash	2,438 (0.00%)
27	Sampang	2,001 (0.00%)
28	Angika	1,727 (0.00%)
29	Thulung	1,599 (0.00%)
30	Bhujel	1,592 (0.00%)
31	Sunuwar	1,557 (0.00%)
32	Yakkha	1,490 (0.00%)
33	Kumal	1,407 (0.00%)
34	Kulung	1,389 (0.00%)

S No.	Population by second languages	
35	Majhi	1,320 (0.00%)
36	Tajpuriya	1,175 (0.00%)
37	Khaling	1,167 (0.00%)
38	Chepang	1,135 (0.00%)
39	Dhimal	1,125 (0.00%)
40	Dumi	1,017 (0.00%)
41	Chhintang	1,008 (0.00%)
42	Rajsthani	1,006 (0.00%)
43	Santhali	977 (0.00%)
44	Wambule	869 (0.00%)
45	Thakali	764 (0.00%)
46	Nachhiring	727 (0.00%)
47	Tibetan	693 (0.00%)
48	Uranw/Urau	691 (0.00%)
49	Hyolmo/Yholmo	482 (0.00%)
50	Punjabi	469 (0.00%)
51	Thami	384 (0.00%)
52	Bote	375 (0.00%)
53	Darai	348 (0.00%)
54	Yamphu/Yamphe	328 (0.00%)
55	Arabi	320 (0.00%)
56	Puma	317 (0.00%)
57	Chhantyal	293 (0.00%)
58	Ghale	288 (0.00%)
59	Lohorung	258 (0.00%)
60	Assami	252 (0.00%)
61	Lapcha	233 (0.00%)
62	Pahari	230 (0.00%)
63	Mewahang	226 (0.00%)
64	Tilung	209 (0.00%)
65	Dungmali	209 (0.00%)
66	Koyee	201(0.00%)
67	Chhiling	197 (0.00%)
68	Dura	172 (0.00%)
69	Meche	147 (0.00%)

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S No.	Population by second languages	
70	Jirel	137 (0.00%)
71	Byansi	72 (0.00%)
72	Sadhani	57 (0.00%)
73	Baram	55 (0.00%)
74	Raji	54 (0.00%)
75	Hayu/Vayu	45 (0.00%)
76	Kisan	45(0.00%)
77	Chinese	44 (0.00%)
78	Khamchi (Raute)	41(0.00%)
79	Sindhi	41(0.00%)
80	Koche	37(0.00%)
81	Sing language	35 (0.00%)
82	Oriya	27 (0.00%)
83	Mizo	21(0.00%)
84	Lingkhim	18(0.00%)
85	Kaike	17(0.00%)
86	Khariya	16 (0.00%)
87	Belhare	12 (0.00%)
88	Waling/Walung	11(0.00%)
89	Kusunda	10(0.00%)
90	Hariyanwi	10 (0.00%)
91	Sam	10(0.00%)
92	Others	5,697 (0.02%)
	Total	10,883,804 (41.04%)

CHAPTER 3

ASPECTS OF AGEING

Prof. Dr. Mrigendra Lal Singh*

Abstract

A continuous increase in old people and a decline in the population of young people all over the world are creating demographic imbalances and humanitarian, social and economic problems in many countries especially developed countries. For the last two decades, social scientists and demographers all over the world, including Nepal, are trying to explore the dynamics of ageing. In Nepal there were 4,89,566 people aged 65 years and above in 1981, which increased to 13,97,583 in 2011. An increase of 2.85 fold with a growth rate of 3.50% per annum during 1981-2001. The increasing older population and the declining younger population is due to declining IMRs and the CBR. The increasing proportion of older persons compared to young persons is called the ageing index. In Nepal the ageing index has increased from 6.28 % in 1911 to 15.50% in 2011, and is expected to increase in future due to demographic transition. It is observed that the ageing index is associated with the economic well being of communities. For instance the Newa community of Nepal, which reported 10.25% of its population being below the poverty line, has the highest ageing index of 29.05 % in 2011, compared to an ageing index of only 7.22% for the Musahar community of Tarai region where 22.31% of the population is below the poverty line. Also the ageing index is higher in urban areas (16.05%) compared to rural areas (14.96%) and higher among females (15.46%) compared to (14.77%) males. It is also observed that the lowest indices are observed for Mid-western mountain (7.20%) and Mid-western Hill (9.25%) while the highest indices are in Western Mountain (34.47%) and Central Mountain (23.46%). After middle age (ages 35 to 59 years) many people face symptoms associated with ageing such as a deterioration in their physical and mental health, making them unable to perform one or more of the five basic activities of human beings such as eating, walking etc. Providing social security to an ever growing number of old people and managing their living will be a great challenge to the government and social organisations.

3.1 Introduction

Once a person is born, three ages, namely chronicle, biological and mental play their roles in shaping the personality of a person. The time duration from birth is called the 'chronicle age,' of the person. The advancement in this age is accompanied by a steady growth in other ages. The growth of biological age (state) results in the development in the physique of the person in terms of height, weight, and subsequently in body mass. Mental age (state) grows with gradual advancement in intelligence levels of the person.

However at the end of middle age, people begin to show symptoms of ageing, with a deterioration in their physical appearance, declining muscles and the appearance of wrinkles on their faces, becoming bald headed or their hair becoming completely white. In addition people begin to suffer from old age

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related diseases such as Parkinson's, asthma, pneumonia, problems with vision, problems with legs, high cholesterol, cancer, heart problems and other disabilities and are not able to perform some basic functions etc.*. A survey carried in America (respondents being the family members) indicated that about 12% of people aged 65 and above could not perform one or more of the five basic activities of human beings namely dressing, walking, eating, bathing, and going to the toilet in their last years before death**

*For biological ageing see an article by O.Toussaint 'Biological aging' Understanding the ageing process from the cellular to the functions, Cahiers de la FIAPA, 2005.

** See p239 Deepak Chopra "Ageless body, Timeless mind" a practical alternative to growing old' Rider, 2002.

In mental aspects, the intelligence of a person is measured in terms of IQ that increases until old age. If old age is not properly managed, a person may begin to suffer from loss of memory, a disease called Alzheimer's, and not be able to make decisions. The level of physical and mental well being of a person falls substantially as their age increases.

3.1.1 Reasons of Ageing

Ageing is the ultimate manifestation of biological and demographical activities in an individual human being and the population at large. For many, ageing is the progressive attainment of years of the last stage of maximum life span of a human being, 100 to 110 years as general [Taber's cyclopaedia medical dictionary; 1999]. For others, ageing is growing old or maturing, progressive changes related to the passage of time [Taber's Encyclopaedia medical dictionary; 1999]. Despite its universality, ageing is difficult to define. Shakespeare probably characterised it best in his description of the seven stages of man. It begins at the moment of conception, involves the differentiations and maturation of the organism and its cells at some variable point in time, leads to the progressive loss of functional capacity characteristic of senescence, and ends in death [Robbins. 1998]. With age, there are physiological and structural alternations in almost all organs. Ageing in individuals is affected to a great extent by genetic factors, social conditions and the occurrence of age related diseases. In addition, there is evidence that ageing-induced alternation in cells is an important component of ageing of the organism.

3.1.2 Starting point of Ageing

The chronological age of beginning old age is relative to the person and the context. A chronologically aged person may be young, being both physically and mentally fit. On the other hand a chronologically young person may be old in these respects. Usually retirement age is considered as the starting age of getting old. For practical purpose however the chronological age 60 years is considered as the beginning of young old hood and 75 years and above as the beginning of old-old hood. It is to be noted that several surveys conducted in the U.S.A came to the conclusion that for many, older age actually starts at 78 years. (Ibid, Fiapa). For practical purposes, a person aged 65-74 years is called a young old and a person aged 75 years and above is called an old old. However to compare the intensities of old age among different communities and countries, 65 years is considered as the beginning of ageing.

3.1.3 Belief System in Ageing

According to Dr. Chopra (Ibid p58), ageing occurs due to traditional beliefs that it is a fixed mechanical process – something that just happens. According to this belief system, ageing is natural, inevitable, normal, genetic, painful, universal and fatal. Another philosophy is that continuously seeing sick old men and death since childhood, means people develop a programme in their brain/mind or a belief system that ageing is a normal process that makes people sick, old, handicapped and ultimately leads to death in late ages. Dr. Chopra believes that the programme can be rewritten to make the body ageless and the mind timeless (See Dr. Chopra's, *ibid*). According to him these beliefs are not absolute. He gives examples of one celled organism like amoebas, algae and protozoa that never age. Also there is no mental aging for emotion, ego, personality and I.Q.

He cites the example of the reversing of biological ageing in honeybees. For instance the honeybees at a certain time of the year shift their hormones and completely reverse their biological age. (For details see *ibid* page59). By citing results of research on ageing, and populations with a history of long lives, he concludes that ageing is highly related to the life style of a person. Eating light foods, especially vegetables regularly, drinking milk, not smoking, doing regular physical exercises not to the extent of exhaustion, keeping the figure lean and performing meditation regularly are keys to longevity.

Besides physical health, mental health also plays a key role in the longevity of a person. The lack of any role to play in society and family, forces people to live alone. Feelings of loneliness and neglect by loved ones during older age cause stress and if not addressed can shorten the longevity of a person.

3.1.4 Aged population in the world

Whether lives of elderly people are painful or enlightened, those who survive death at infancy, childhood and middle age reach the state of old age. Old age is associated with a higher risk of deaths and therefore dreaded. People living to 100 years or more are observed in populations, although their numbers are small.

According to population data of the U.N, 2013, there are 7,137 million population in the world; 124 million live in developed countries, 4891 million live in less developed countries and the remaining population live in the least developed countries. The data reported that people aged 65 and above make up 8% of the world's population, of which 17% are in developed countries and 6 % in less developed countries. This means there are 570.96 million people aged 65 years and above in the world, of whom 211.92 million live in developed countries, 293.46 million in less developed countries and 65.68 million in the least developed countries

3.2 The growth of aged persons in Nepal

The number of people aged 65 years and above in Nepal was 1,397,583 according to the population census of 2011. This number accounts for 0.24% of old persons in the world and 5.27 % of Nepal's population in 2011. In relation to the growing population, the volume of old persons is also increasing in Nepal in every successive census. The number of old persons for different censuses are shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Elderly population reported in different censuses of Nepal, 1981-2011

Aged	Census years				Growth in times 1981 -2011	Growth rate per year 1981-2011
	1981	1991	2001	2011		
60+	857061	1071234	1477379	2154410	2.51	3.07
65+	489566	639589	956471	1397583	2.85	3.50
75+	144197	185165	295459	447981	3.13	3.78

The table shows that the elderly population in Nepal has, on average, increased by 2.51 to 3.13 fold in 2011 from those reported in 1981, with an annual growth rate of 3.07 % for persons aged 60 years and above, 3.50 % for persons aged 65 years and above, and 3.78 % for persons aged 75 years and above.

In absolute number, the volume of the elderly population aged 60 years and above is reported as 8,57,061 in 1981 that has increased to 21,54,410 by 2011. Similarly, the population of elderly persons aged 65 years and above increased from 4,89,566 in 1981 to 13,97,583 by 2011. Likewise, the old old population i.e. aged 75 years and above increased from 1,44,197 to 4, 47,981 during the 30 year interval between 1981 and 2011.

3.2.1 Female population and their percentage in total elderly population

The female elderly population in different censuses and their percentage of the total elderly population is shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Elderly females reported in the censuses, of Nepal, 1981-2011

Females aged	Censuses			
	1981	1991	2001	2011
60+	406,073	528,540	832,539	1,090,461
65+	230,234	312,374	473,886	702,085
75+	69,197	93,843	150,605	228,875
% of females in total elderly population				
60+	47.38	49.34	56.35	50.62
65+	47.03	48.84	49.55	50.24
75+	47.99	50.68	50.97	51.09

The table shows that the percentage of females of the elderly population is less than that of their male counterparts in the 1981 and 1991 censuses, but is more than that of males in the censuses of 2001 and 2011 (except for the aged 65+ years in 2001). The number of aged 60+ years was only 40,6073 in 1981, this increased to 1,090,461 by 2011. The increase in females aged 65+ years was 2,30,234 to 7,02,085 during the same period. Also the table shows that the number of old old females which was only 69,197 in 1981 has increased to 2, 28,875 by 2011.

3.2.2 Measures of intensity of ageing

In Demography, the intensities of ageing are measured by using the following relative measures

$$\text{Index of ageing} = \frac{\text{Persons of aged 65 years and over}}{\text{Children under 15 years}} \times 100$$

$$\text{Dependency rate} = \frac{\text{Population aged 60 + years}}{\text{Population aged (15 - 59) years}} \times 100$$

$$\text{Intensity of old old} = \frac{\text{Population aged 75 + years}}{\text{Population aged (60 - 74) years}} \times 100$$

To compute the above intensities, data on the percentage of population for relevant ages are needed. Relevant ages are the ages used to estimate ageing indices. The ages are 15 years or less, ages 60+ years, 65+ years and 75+ years.

3.2.3 Percentage of Nepalese population in relevant age groups

The relevant age groups considered for demographic and economic studies are; i. population 15 years and under, ii. population aged 15-59 years called the economically active population, iii. aged 60+ or 65+ years called the aged population and 75+ years called the old old population. For international comparison the population aged 65 + years is considered as aged.

The percentage of the Nepalese population at these age groups at different censuses over the period of one hundred years, 1911-2011 is shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Percentage of Nepalese population in different relevant ages, 1911-2011

Aged	Census years				
	1911	1941*	1971	2001**	2011***
60+	4.28	5.33	5.88	7.46	8.13
65+	2.43	3.17	3.17	4.21	5.27
75+	0.45	0.65	0.87	1.3	1.69
<15 years	38.68	39.16	40.72	38.55	34
15-59	57.04	55.51	53.4	53.99	57.87

Source: Singh, M.L, 2003, 'Ageing of population in Nepal,' Population Monograph of Nepal Vol II, CBS pp 251-294., 2011 figures are estimates based on 2011 National Population Census Report of 2011, CBS

The figures for 1911 and 1941 are based on M.L. Singh, 'Population dynamic of Nepal' 1979

** The figures are based on the Nepalese population of 22733050 actually enumerated in 2011

*** Based on National Report on Population census, 2011, CBS

The table shows that in Nepal over an interval of 100 year, the percentage of 60+ years has increased from 4.28% in 1911 to 8.13 % in 2011, aged 65+ years from 2.43% to 5.27% and aged 75+ years from

0.45% to 1.69% for the same period . The percentage of persons aged 65+ years at 5.27% observed for Nepal in 2011 is very low compared to developed country’s corresponding figure of 17% and is nearly consistent with the corresponding figure of 5%* for less developed countries in the same year. Also the tables shows that whereas the percentage of the population in the age group 15-59 years varies in the range of 53% -58%, the percentage of population in the age group 60-74 years increased from nearly 4% in 1911 to 6.4 % in 2011.

*This figure is for less developed countries excluding China. If China is also included, the figure will be 6%.

Estimates of demographic measures based on the above data for Nepal for different years are shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Intensities of Ageing in Nepal, 1911-2011

Index	Censuses				
	1911	1941	1971	2001	2011
Ageing index	6.28	8.09	7.78	10.92	15.50*
Dependency rate	7.5	9.6	11.01	13.82	14.05
Intensity of old old	11.75	13.89	17.37	21.1	26.24

* Ageing indices estimated above are about 1% higher than those estimated by using the UN population data sheet. (This is due to a slight differences in the percentage of the population in the 15 years and under category and those 65+ years and above given in the Population datasheet of the UN, 2013 and in the present study.)

The ageing index observed for Nepal in 2011 at 16.13% is one point less than that observed for South Asian countries for the same year.

3.3 Ageing by development levels of the countries

As the population passes through different stages of demographic transition from a primitive stage to an advanced stage, its demographical parameters also continue to change. While some parameters such as IMR (Infant mortality rate), CBR (Crude birth rate) and the percentage of the population aged 15 years and under decline steadily, parameters such as e_0^0 (life expectancy at birth), the percentage of the population aged 65+ years and subsequently the ageing index continue to increase.

In this regard, it is said that developed countries have already reached the final stage of demographic transition with very low IMRs of 5 per thousand, a percentage of the population 15 years and under that only accounts for 16% of the total population, a percentage of the population aged 65+ years as high as 17 % giving the estimate of e_0^0 as high as 78 years and the ageing index as high as 106.25 %. Less developed countries, excluding China, are still at a mid demographical transition. As such these countries have been able to reduce their IMR only by 48 per thousand births, the percentage of the total population 15 years and under is only 32 %, the percentage of the population aged 65+ years is only 5% with an increase in the e_0^0 of upto 67 years and a rise in the ageing index of up to 15.63 %.

The relevant demographic parameters for South Asian countries like Iran, India, Bangladesh and Nepal* observed during 2011 are similar to those observed for less developed countries, excluding China, in 2011 with the ageing index nearly equal to 16 % in that year.

*Ageing index for Nepal during 2011 was 15.5%

It has been noted already that the ageing index is the result of the prevailing percentage of the population 15 years and under and the percentage of the population aged 65+ years . Any change in these percentages automatically changes the ageing indices. The changes in these percentages in the last two decades (1988-2011) in developed and developing countries and the resulting age indices are shown in Table 3.5. The table shows that the percentage of children aged 0-14 years has declined to 16% by 2011 from 19% in 1998 in developed countries. In less developing countries, the decline was from 37% to 32 % during the same period.

While the gap of 3% in 2001 between the percentage of aged persons and the percentage of children 15 years and under in developed countries is increasing, the wider gap, 32%, in these percentages is observed in developing countries and is resulting in a very small growth in their ageing indices.

Table 3.5: % of population in age groups < 15 years and 65+ years and Ageing index 1988-2011, developed and developing countries

	1988			2001			2011		
	% <15	% 65+	Index of ageing	% <15	% 65+	Index of ageing	% <15	% 65+	Index of ageing
More developed	19	14	73.68	18	15	83.33	16	17	106.25
Less developed including China	35	5	14.29	32	5	15.63	29	6	20.69
Less developed excluding China	37	4	10.81	36	4	11.11	32	5	15.63
World	32	7	21.88	30	7	23.33	26	8	30.77

source : *Ibid*

The table shows that during the period 1988 to 2011, while the index for all world has increased by 9%, from 21.88% in 1988 to 30.77% in 2011, there is a sharp contrast in the increase of indices between developed and developing countries Also during the period 1998 to 2011, while the index of ageing in developed countries increased by 32 points, from 73.68% in 1998 to 106.25 in 2011, the index increased by only 5 points, from 10.81% to 15.63% in less developed countries

3.3.1 Demographic parameters of some developed countries, 2013

In the previous section, demographic parameters for developed and developing countries were discussed. In this section ageing parameters of some specific developed countries are presented.

Table 3.6: Demographic parameters of some specific developed countries, 2013

Country	% of aged <15	% of aged 65+	Life expectancy at birth	% of urban population	Ageing index
USA	19	14	79	81	73.68
Canada	16	15	81	83	93.75
Japan	13	25	83	91	192.31
South Korea	16	11	81	82	68.75
UK	18	16	82	80	88.89
France	19	17	82	99	89.47
Germany	13	21	80	78	161.54

Source: Ibid

The table shows that the ageing indices for some developed countries have exceeded 100%, Japan (192.31%) and Germany (161.54%). Both of them were defeated countries during the Second World War, losing millions of youth and in the war. At present they are the most developed countries having the least percentage of the population 15 years and under (13%) and the highest percentage of persons in the age group 65+ years; 21 % in Germany and 25% in Japan respectively.

3.3.2 Ageing pattern in some South Asian Countries (2001-2011)

During 2001-2011, although every country in South Asia reported declines in the percentage of the population in the age group 15 years and under and a growth in the percentage of the population in the age group 65+ years, resulting in a rise in age indices, the change observed is not uniform for all countries. For example, in India and Nepal, the decline in the percentage of the population 15 years and under was 6 points, but in Bangladesh and Bhutan the decline was 9 points. In Sri Lanka the decline was only 1 point.

Table 3.7: Growth in ageing indices in some South Asian countries during 2001-2011.

Countries	Year	% of population aged 65+	% of population under <15	CBR	IMR	e_0^0 years	Ageing indices	Increase in ageing index
Bangladesh	2001	3	40	30	66	59	7.50	8.63
	2011	5	31	21	35	60	16.13	
Bhutan	2001	5	39	34	61	66	12.82	3.85
	2011	5	30	21	47	67	16.67	
India	2001	4	36	26	68	63	11.11	8.89
	2011	6	30	22	44	65	20.00	
Nepal	2001	4	41	31	64	58	9.76	4.53
	2011	5	35	24	44	66	14.29	
Pakistan	2001	4	42	30	86	63	9.52	1.29
	2011	4	37	30	74	66	10.81	
Sri Lanka	2001	6	27	18	17	72	22.22	8.55
	2011	8	26	17	12	74	30.77	
South Asia	2001	5	32	23	41	67	15.63	0.50
	2011	5	31	19	28	71	16.13	

Source: *Ibid*

Note: Ageing indices are required to show the change in the ratio of the proportion of the older population compared to the younger population. This ratio is required to know the extent to which the aged population is supported or replaced by the younger population. Ageing indices given in column 9 of the above table give the growth in indices in 2001 and 2011 among SARC countries.

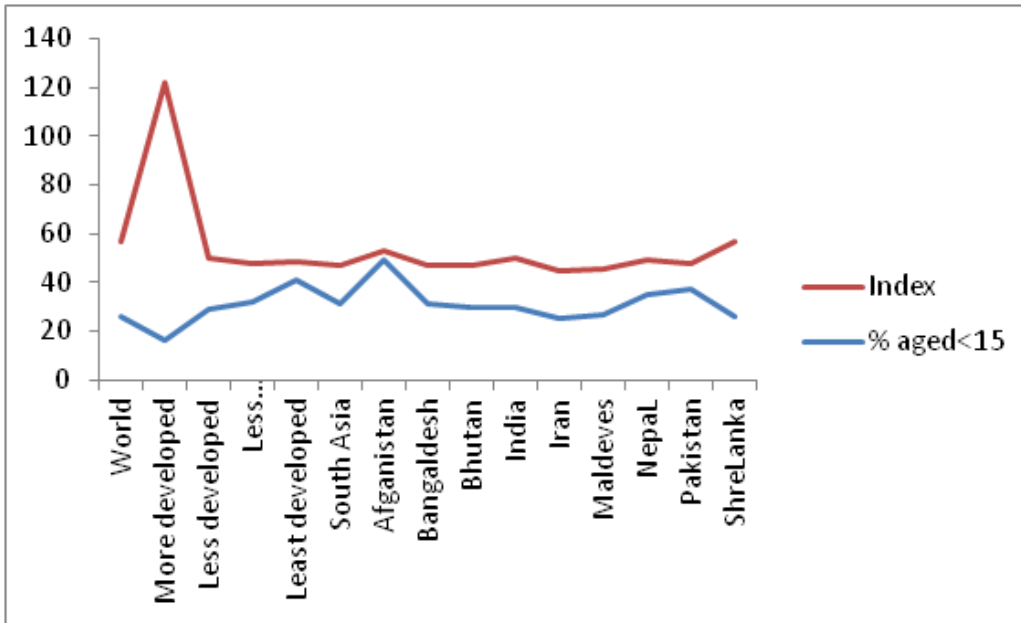
In the case of the percentage of the population in the age group 65+ years, the increase was 0.2 points in South Asian countries, Sri Lanka is the only country which attained 8 points in this age group and is the only country with an ageing index as high as 30.77% in 2011, followed by 20.00 % in India. The growth in ageing indices among South Asian countries during 2001 to 2011 was 8.89 points for India, 8.63 points for Bangladesh, 8.55 points for Sri Lanka, 4.53 points for Nepal, 3.85 points for Bhutan and 1.29 points for Pakistan. The relevant demographic parameters for South Asian countries Iran, India, Bangladesh and Nepal* observed during 2011 are similar to those observed for less developed countries, excluding China, with an ageing index nearly equal to 16 % in 2011.

* The ageing index for Nepal during 2011 was 15.5%

Graphical relationship between the percentage of the population aged 15 years and under and the indices of Ageing

Plotting the data of Annex 3.2 (Data for developed and under developed and SAARC countries), the relationship between the percentage of the population aged 15 years and the Indices of Ageing is shown in the diagram below.

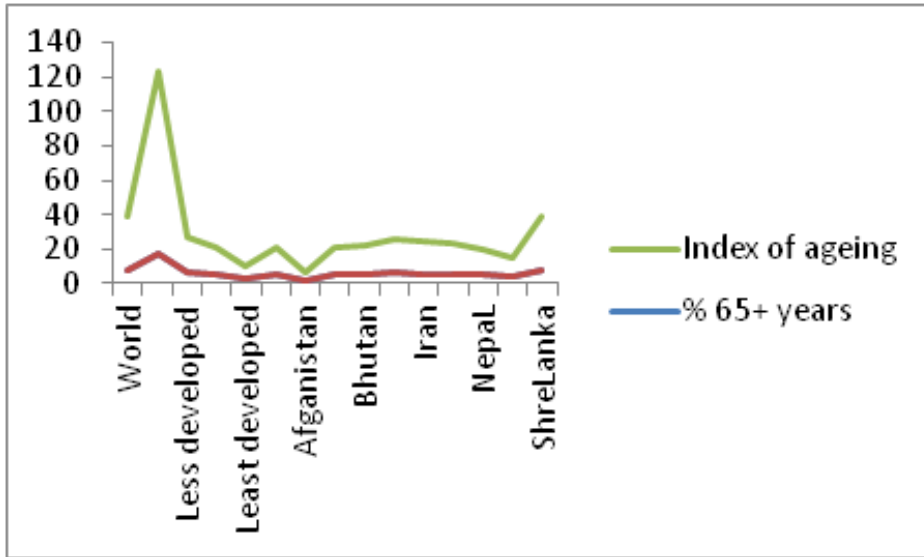
Figure 3.1: Percentage of population aged 15+ and indices of ageing.



The diagram clearly shows that the lower the percentage of the population 15 years and under, the higher the indices of ageing

Graphical relationship between the percentage of the population aged 65+ years and the indices of Ageing

Figure 3.2: Percentage of population aged 65+ and indices of ageing



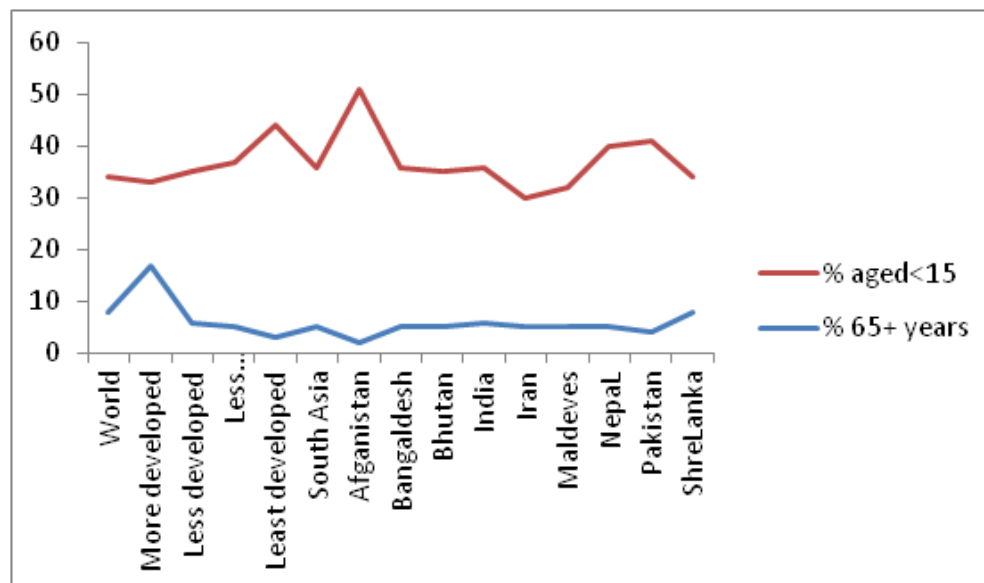
The relationship between the percentage of the population aged 65+ years and the Indices of Ageing is shown in the diagram below.

The diagram shows that there is a marked difference between the indices of ageing among developed and developing countries and higher ageing indices are closely related with a higher percentage of the population aged 65+.

Relationship between the percentage of the population aged 15 years and under and the percentage of the population aged 65+ years

The relationship between the percentage of the population aged 15 years and under and the percentage of the population aged 65+ years is shown in the diagram below.

Figure 3.3: Percentage of population aged 15 years and under and 65+ years.



3.4 Differentials in the Ageing Index, Nepal, 2011

The ageing index appears to be affected by many factors such as gender, urbanisation, community ethnicity, region, and many other factors. But effects of these factors are only apparent and real factor is the economic level of population as would be clear from following findings.

3.4.1 Gender differentials

The recent census of Nepal, 2011 reported that the proportion of the population in the age group 65+ years was 1,397,583 of which 696,488 (49.84%) were males and 701,095 (50.16%) were females. The old-old population was 447,981 of which 48.91% (2,190,96) were males and 51.09% (2,288,85) were females. In the population under 15 years, of the total 9,248,246, 4,714,763 (50.98%) were males and 4,533,483 (49.02 %) were females. The distribution by sex is quite consistent with the demographic phenomenon observed all over the world. Ageing indices by sex are shown in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8: Gender differentials in ageing, 2011, Nepal

Nepal	% of population aged <15 years	% population aged 65+	% population aged 75+	Index of aging in %	Intensity of old old in %
Both sex	34.91	5.27	2	15.11	32.05
Male	36.69	5.42	2	14.77	31.46
Female	33.22	5.14	1.68	15.46	32.65

The table shows that the ageing index for females is slightly higher than males, 15.46 % for females and 14.77% for males. Similarly the proportion of old old is higher for females (32.65%) than males (31.46%)

3.4.2 Urban/rural differentials

Among the elderly population, there were 397,583 people aged 65+ years and 447,981 population aged 75+ years. Of these only 14.54% and 16.10% respectively come from urban areas. Out of a total of 9,248,246 of the population aged 15 years and under in the country, only 13.68% (1,265,839) were in urban areas. The ageing indices for urban and rural areas are shown in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9: Urban-Rural differentials in Ageing, Nepal, 2011

Urban/rural	% population aged < 15 years	% population aged 65+	%	Index of aging
Urban	27.98	4.49	1.59	16.05
Rural	36.33	5.44	1.71	14.96

The table shows that the ageing index in urban area is higher than rural area by 1%, the indices being 16.05 % for urban areas and 14.96% for rural areas respectively.

3.4.3 Ageing Indices in Eco-Regions

Nepal is physically divided into three eco-regions namely Tarai, Hills and Mountains depending on their heights from sea level. The population in Mountain, Hills and Tarai was 1,781,792, 11,394,007 and 13,318,705 respectively in 2011. The population is in the ratio of 1:6.39:7.47. According to the census data of 2011 there are 654,801 aged 65+ years persons in Hills followed by 641,736 in Tarai region and only 101,046 in Mountain region. Their ratio in the region is 1:6.48: 6.35 for Mountain, Hills and Tarai regions respectively.

The percentage of the population 15 years and under and in the age group 65+ by sex in the regions is shown in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10: Aging indices in ecological regions by sex of Nepal, 2011 in %

Age	Sex	Percentage		
		Mountain	Hill	Tarai
Aged <15	Both	38.22	33.46	35.70
	Male	39.64	35.65	37.17
	Female	36.90	31.45	34.28
Aged 65+	Both	5.67	5.75	4.82
	Male	5.70	5.82	5.05
	Female	5.64	5.68	4.59
Ageing index	Both	14.84	17.18	13.50
	Male	14.38	16.33	13.59
	Female	15.28	18.06	13.39

The above table shows that the percentage of the population 15 years and under is higher in mountain regions than in other regions. The percentage observed in this region is 38.22% for both sexes, 39.64% for males and 36.90% for females. In Hills and Tarai, the percentages observed for this age group are 33.45% and 35.70% for both sexes respectively. As in the case of Tarai, in hill the percentage for males is higher than females. As regard to the population age 65+ the highest percentage of 5.82% is observed for males in Hill region, while the lowest of 4.59% is observed in females in the Tarai region,

The ageing indices for eco-regions shows that they are higher in Hills than in other regions at 17.18% for both sexes, 16.33% for males and 18.96% for females respectively. Low indices are observed in the Tarai region, 13.50% for both sexes, 13.59% for males and 13.39% for females respectively. In Mountains the indices observed are 14.85% for both sexes, 14.38% for males and 15.28% for females respectively. Sex differentials in regions show that ageing indices for females are slightly higher than for males in both Mountains and Hills but in Tarai, the opposite is the case.

3.4.4 Ageing indices in development regions

Population by relevant age group in development regions in 2011 is shown in the Table 3.11.

Table 3.11: Ageing indices in development regions, 2011 in %

	Eastern region			Central Region		
	Both sex	Male	Female	Both sex	Male	Female
% in <15	33.88	35.82	32.09	33.16	33.92	32.4
% in 65+	5.49	5.77	5.23	5.19	5.15	5.23
Ageing index	16.2	16.1	16.3	15.65	15.19	16.14
	Western region			Mid Western Region		
% in <15	34.06	37.36	31.19	39.19	41.18	37.33
% in 65+	6.39	6.86	5.98	3.96	4.21	3.73
Ageing index	18.75	18.36	19.16	10.11	10.22	9.99
	Far-Western Region					
	Both sex	Male	Female			
% in <15	39.52	42.15	37.12			
% in 65+	4.79	4.68	4.89			
Ageing index	12.12	11.1	13.17			

According to the above table, the lowest ageing indices are in Mid-western region, the observed indices being 10.11% for both sexes, 10.11% for males and 9.99% for females respectively.

The highest ageing indices are observed in western regions with sex differentials of 19.16% for females and 18.36% for males. The ageing indices found in other regions are about one point higher than that observed throughout Nepal in 2011. It is noted that the Mid western region is the only region for which the ageing index for females is less than males

3.4.5 Ageing Indices in eco-development regions

The aging indices by order of size along with the percentage of population 15 years and under and the percentage of the population aged 65+ years in Eco-development regions is shown in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12: Ageing indices in Eco-Development Regions, both sex, 2011 In ascending order of %

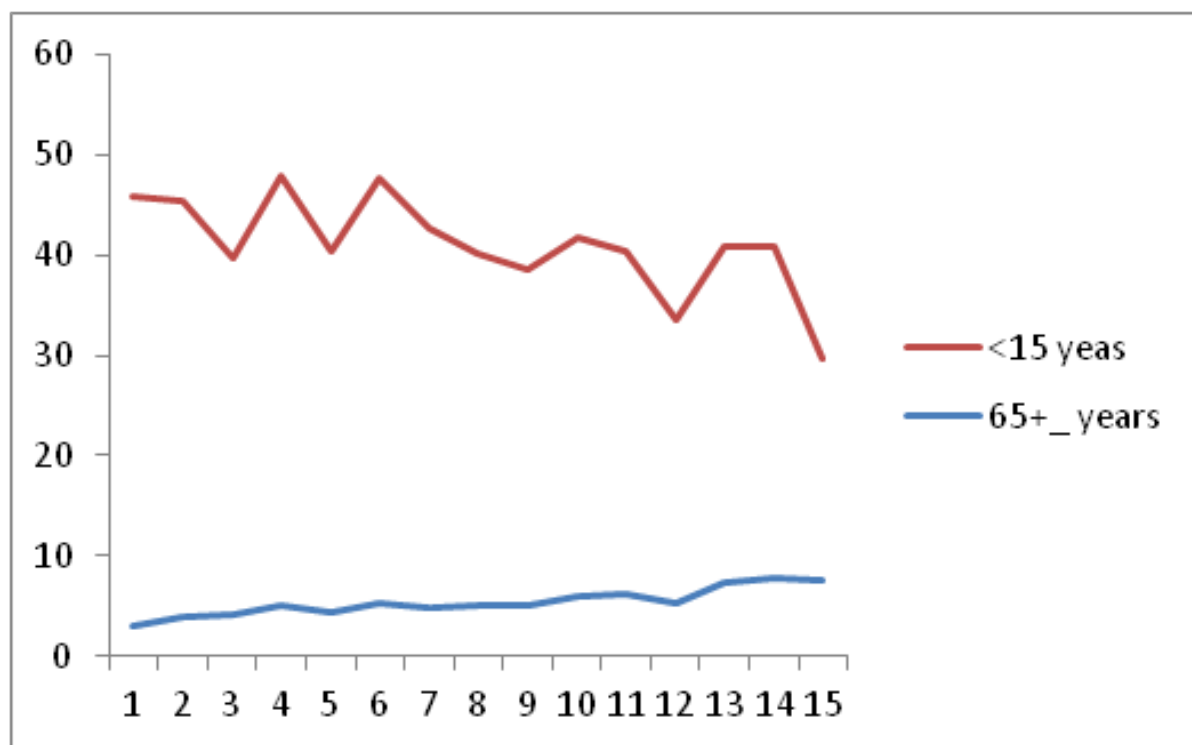
Eco-development regions	Ageing index	<15 yeas	65+ years
Mid-Western Mountain	7.29	42.71	3.11
Mid-Western Hill	9.52	41.5	3.95
Mid-Western Tarai	11.78	35.6	4.19
Far-Western Mountain	11.81	42.89	5.06
Far-Western Tarai	12.04	36.13	4.35
Far-Western Hill	12.38	42.54	5.26
Central Tarai	12.57	38	4.74
Western Tarai	14.55	34.97	5.09
Eastern Tarai	15.38	33	5.15
Eastern Mountain	16.88	35.75	6.04
Eastern Hill	17.91	34	6.15
Central Hill	18.95	28.3	5.36
Western Hill	21.95	33.47	7.35
Central Mountain	23.46	33.17	7.78
Western Mountain	34.47	22.15	7.63

According to above table, the highest ageing index of 34.47% was reported in Western Mountain and the lowest of only 7.29% in Mid-western Mountain. Eco-development regions with indices of ageing nearly equal to the national index of 15.11% are Eastern Tarai (15.38%) and Western Tarai (14.55%). The regions with indices lower than the national index are Central Tarai (12.57%), Far western Hill (12.38%), Far-Western Tarai (12.04 %), Far-Western Mountain (11,81%), Mid-Western Tarai (11.78), and mid –western region (9.52 %). The regions with indices higher than the national index are Central Mountain (23.46 %), Western Hill (21.95%), Central Hill (18.95%) and Eastern Mountain (16.88%).

Relation of the percentage of the population 15 years and under and the percentage of the population in the age group 65+ years in Eco-development regions of Nepal, 2011.

The graphical relationship between the percentage of the population 15 years and under and the percentage of the population in the age group 65+ years is shown in the diagram below.

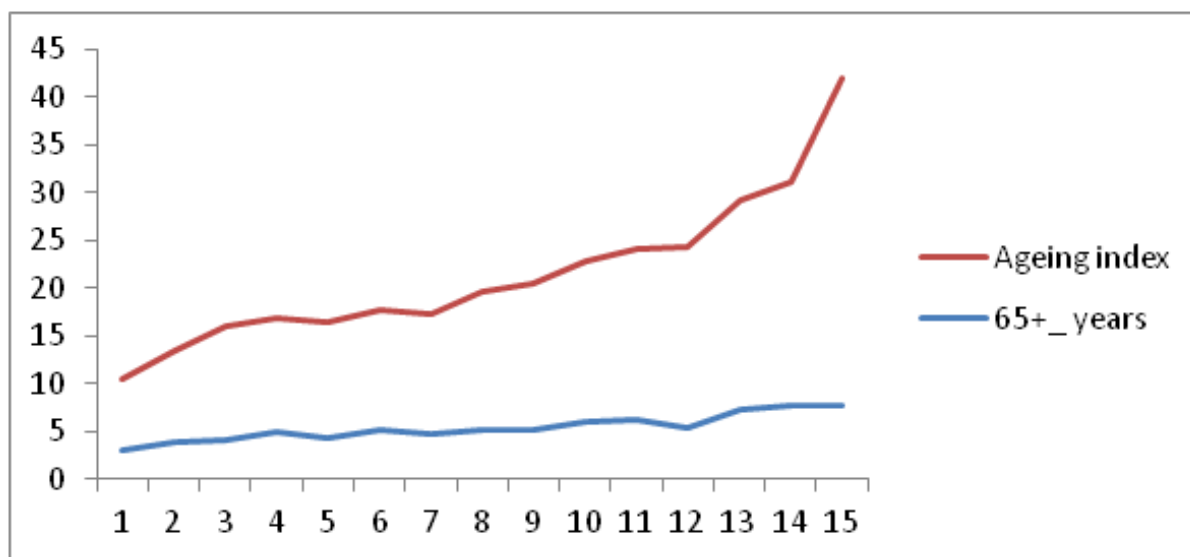
Figure 3.4: Percentages of populations of 15 years and under, and 65+ years by eco-development regions.



Note: The numerals in the x-axis represent eco-development regions in ascending order of indices of ageing cited in Table 3.13.

The graphical presentation of the relationship between the percentage of the population in the age group 65+ years and ageing indices in Eco-Development regions of Nepal, 2011 is shown in the diagram below.

Figure 3.5 : Ageing index by eco-development regions.



3.4.6 Ageing indices in districts

The ageing indices by districts for 2011 and 2011 are shown in Annex 3.4 . According to the Annex, in 2011, 37 districts of a total of 75 districts were found to have an ageing index less than the national figure of 15.11%. Nine were in the range of 6 to 10% and twelve were in the range of 10 to 12%, while sixteen were in the range of 12 to 15%.

All districts with the lowest range in ageing indices belong to Mid and Far western Hills and Mountains. Among districts in the next lowest range, with the exception of Persa, Kailali and Rautahat districts, all belong to these two regions. In the third range of low ageing indices, districts of Mid and Far western regions, namely Achham, Dadeldhura, Bardiya, Darchula, and Baitadi are included. This means all districts of mid and Far western regions have ageing indices less than the national figure.

Among districts whose ageing indices exceed the national figure, sixteen are in the range of 15.37 to 20%, of which only 4 districts, namely Nawalparasi, Baglung, Palpa and Arghakhanchi belong to western region of Nepal, the rest belong to Eastern and central regions. There are 17 districts in the range of 20 to 24%, of which only five districts, namely Gulmi, Kaski, Tanahu, Myagdi and Parbat belong to western region.

In 2011, five districts with high ageing indices, between 25 to 36% were Syangja (25.49%), Gorkha (27.13%), Lamjung (27.28%), Manang (32.18%) and Mustang (35.54%), all belonging to the western region of Nepal. Except Udayapur and Sindhuli districts, it is noted that all hill and mountain districts of western, central and eastern regions had higher indices than the national figure.

It is thought that Kathmandu district, which is experiencing rapid urbanisation and development, would have a high ageing index. Surprisingly, Kathmandu district has an ageing index of only 16.98 %, just 1 point higher than the national figure, with a sex differential of 14.61% for males and 19.65% for females.

This low value may be due to the tremendous impact of in-migration of youths and out-migration of the population, including older people, observed in this district. Cross checking is completed by estimating the ageing indices for its native population, namely Newa, in the three districts of the Kathmandu Valley. High ageing indices are observed in all three districts. In Lalitpur the index is 40.55% for both sexes, 36.70% for males and 44.65%, In Bhaktapur, the index is 30.45 % for both sexes, 27.09% for males and 34.18% for females. In Kathmandu district, the ageing indices for Newa are 33.35% for both sexes, 29.03% for males and 38.10% for females. These indices are definitely very high compared to other regional communities.

Growth of Ageing indices in districts, during 2001-2011

Annex 3.5 shows the size of growth in the ageing index during 2011-2011 in different districts. According to the annex, the Tarai districts, namely Siraha, Banke, Kapilbastu, Sarlahi, Bara, Mahottari, Dhanku, Rautahat, and most Hill districts of far western region, namely Dailekh, Salyan, Kalikot, Bajura, Jajarkot, Jumla, Doti, Pyuthan, Humla, and Dolpa reported an increase of less than 3%. The districts Bajhang and Mugu even reported declines in the ageing indices. Hill and Mountain districts of western region, namely Mustang, Gorkha, Syangja, Manang, Lamjung, and Parbat reported a growth as high as 9 % to 15%. Also one mountain district namely, Dolakha, and three hill districts namely, Nuwakote,

Dhading and Kavrepalanchok of Central region, also reported a growth in this range. The rest of the districts reported a growth of 3 to 8% in their ageing indices

3.5 Ageing indices by community

The parameters of ageing varies from one community to other depending on their ethnicity and level of social status. The levels of parameters observed among some communities during 2011 are shown in Table 3.14 and Table 3.15. The percentage of the population aged 15 years and under which used to be more than 45 % during the last decade had declined to about 34% at the national level by 2011. The drop in this percentage is not uniform among all communities.

Economically and socially advanced societies experienced rapid declines among economically and socially disabled persons. Obviously the decline in the percentage in this age group is affected by a decline in the percentage of the population 5 years and under. In order to show the aging differentials by communities, some communities belonging to Hill-Mountain and Tarai regions are considered. Also they are grouped into different strata as per their social order as shown in Table 3.13.

Table 3.13: Some Communities of Hills and Tarai by Socially privileged and handicapped status

Region	Stratum			
	Socially privileged community	Ethnic communities	Valley community	Socially handicapped Communities
Hill + Mountains	Hill-Brahmin, chatri, Thakuri Dhasanami /Giri	Gurung, Rai, Linbu, Sherpa, Tamang, Magar	Newa	Gharti/Bhujel, Sarki, Damai/Dholi and Kami
Tarai	Tarai-Brahmin	Kathbaniya, Yadab Kalwar Tell, Kumal, Hajam/ Thakur	Tharu	Kewat, Dhanuk, Sonar, Musalman, Kurmi, Chamar, Mallaha, Dusadh/ Pasawan/Pasi, Koiri/ Kushwaha.

The table below shows the ageing indices and percentages of population at different relevant age groups in 2011 among hill communities classified as detailed above.

Table 3.14: Aging indices and % of population in relevant age groups among Hill communities, 2011.

Selected communities	Ageing index	% aged <5 years	% aged <15 years	% aged 65+ years	% aged 75+ years
Newar	29.05	6.28	24.5	7.12	2.61
Brahman - Hill	27.11	7.43	28.45	6.92	2.61
Gurung	20.45	7.58	29.63	8.03	3.22
Rai	17.87	8.5	32.74	5.66	1.95
Limbu	17.28	8.59	33	5.9	2.04
Sherpa	16.47	8.62	33.75	5.43	1.88
Gharti/Bhujel	16.18	8.84	34.28	6.14	2.16
Tamang	16.1	9.03	34.88	5.64	1.93
Magar	15.77	9.61	35.53	5.6	1.92
All Nepal	15.11	9.69	34.91	5.27	1.69
Sanyasi/Dashnami	13.92	9.72	35.05	5.9	1.97
Chhetri	13.09	9.87	35.08	5.36	1.82
Thakuri	12.08	10.68	36.62	5.1	1.6
Sarki	10.43	11.42	39.61	4.57	1.09
Damai/Dholi	10.4	11.79	40.23	3.94	0.91
Kami	10.26	12.29	41.25	4.08	0.96

According to the above table, the highest ageing index is reported for Newa community at 29.05% with the highest percentage of the population in the aged group 65+ years at 7.12% and the lowest percentage of the population five years and under at 6.28% in the age group. The next highest ageing index of 27.1 % is found for Brahman-Hill followed by Gurung community at 20.45%. Also all hill ethnic communities are found to exceed the national figure of 15.11%. Among other hill communities, except Gharti/Bhujel and socially handicapped ones such as Sarki, Damai/Dholi, Kami are found to have very low ageing indices.

Some socially higher communities such as Sanyasi/Dashnami and Chhetrie are also found to have ageing indices that are less than the national figure. Ageing indices and the relevant percentage of population in relevant age groups for Tarai communities are shown in Table 3.15.

Table 3.15: Ageing indices and % of population in relevant age groups among Tarai communities, 2011

Selected communities	Ageing index	% aged <5 years	% aged <15 years	% aged 65+ years	% aged 75+ years
All Caste	15.10	9.69	34.91	5.27	1.69
Brahman - Tarai	20.44	7.56	29.55	6.04	2.13
Tharu	12.75	8.09	32.01	4.08	0.96
Kathbaniyan	11.27	9.69	35.31	3.98	0.92
Kalwar	12.15	9.99	36.37	4.42	1.08
Teli	12.15	10.29	37.12	4.51	1.09
Kumal	12.46	10.61	37.63	4.69	1.24
Koiri/Kushwaha	12.41	10.65	38.18	4.74	1.31
Yadav	13.10	10.65	37.86	4.96	1.39
Hajam/Thakur	10.61	10.97	38.16	4.05	0.95
Kewat	11.92	10.98	38.5	4.59	1.12
Dhanuk	10.86	11.31	39.21	4.26	1.06
Sonar	10.43	11.35	38.64	4.03	0.93
Kurmi	10.71	11.37	38.85	4.16	1.26
Chamar/Harijan/Ram	10.26	12.24	40.54	4.16	0.98
Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	10.29	12.43	40.82	4.2	1.02
Mallaha	10.41	12.60	41.42	4.31	1.07
Musahar	7.22	12.80	41.28	2.98	0.56
Musalman	8.43	12.97	43.2	3.64	0.88

According to above table except Tarai Brahmins, Kathbaniya and Tharu, all Tarai communities had a lower ageing index than the national figure. The aging index for Tarai-Brahmins is 20.44%, followed by Tharu at 12.75%. The Khatibania have an index of 11.278% among Tarai communities, less than the national level. Musalman, Musahar and Mallaha had very low ageing indices, 8.43% for Musalman, 7.22% for Musahar and 10.41% for Mallaha.

The lowest ageing index of 7.22% for Musahar is associated with the highest percentage of the population aged 5 years and under at 12.80%. Similarly the highest ageing index of 29.05% observed for Newa community of Hills is associated with the lowest percentage of children five years and under at 6.28 %.

The communities at the lower end of the social scale in Tarai, namely Dusadh, Pasawan, Pasi, Mallaha, Musahar and Musalman also have a higher percentage of the of population in the age group 5 years and under at nearly 13% (on a par with the percentage reported in 1971 for Nepal) and those at the upper end of the social stratum, namely Newa, Brahmin-Hills and Brahmin-Tarai, reported high ageing indices in the range of 24 to 29 % with a corresponding percentage of the population in the age group under 5 years in the range of 6 to 7%.

3.5.1 Aged persons among communities

Among communities, Gurung community is has the highest percentage of elderly population at 8.03%, aged 65+ years and 3.33% aged 75 + years. Newa also has a high percentage of elderly population, 7.12% of its population is in the age group 65+ years. Other communities with a high percentage of its population in this age group are Hill Brahmins (6.92%), Gharti/Bhujels (6.14%), and Tarai Brahmins (6.04%).

In aged groups 75+ years, Newa and, Hill Brahmins, each reported their percentages as 2.61% and Terai Brahmins as 2.63 %. Other communities reported percentages in the age group 65+ years in the range of 4 to 6 % and in the range of 1 to 2% in the age group 75+ years. This shows that the percentage of elderly populations is higher among upper social communities.

3.5.2 Sex differential in Ageing among communities

Sex differentials in ageing among communities shows that in almost all Tarai communities, the indices of ageing are higher for males than for females. In contrast, most of the communities in hills and mountains the ageing indices for females are higher than those of males. Among the Newar community, the gender difference in the ageing index is as high as 4 points in favour of females, 31.10% for females and 27.11% for males. Among other communities of Hill, the difference is slighter higher for females than for males. Among Tarai communities, the difference is about one point higher for females.

Table 3.16: Sex differentials (%) in Ageing among some selected communities of Nepal,2011

Hill communities	Both	Male	Female	Terai communities	Both	Male	Female
Newar	29.05	27.11	31.10	Brahman - Tarai	20.45	20.39	20.52
Gurung	27.11	26.15	28.09	Yadav	13.09	13.67	12.46
Brahman - Hill	24.31	22.53	26.21	Tharu	12.74	13.18	12.30
Gharti/Bhujel	17.90	17.75	18.07	Kumal	12.46	12.87	12.05
Limbu	17.87	17.79	17.95	Koiri/Kushwaha	12.40	12.92	11.85
Rai	17.28	17.48	17.07	Kalwar	12.15	12.06	12.26
Sanyasi/Dashnami	16.47	16.10	16.86	Teli	12.15	12.41	11.87
Tamang	16.18	15.40	16.96	Kurmi	12.08	12.95	11.16
Sherpa	16.10	14.52	17.72	Kewat	11.92	12.62	11.20
Magar	15.77	15.32	16.23	Kathbaniyan	11.26	11.30	11.22
Chhetree	15.28	14.52	16.07	Dhanuk	10.87	11.48	10.23
All Caste	15.11	14.77	15.46	Hajam/Thakur	10.62	11.24	9.98
Thakuri	13.92	13.23	14.63	Sonar	10.43	10.27	10.60
Sarki	11.53	11.46	11.61	Mallaha	10.40	10.67	10.13
Kami	9.90	9.84	9.96	Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	10.28	10.73	9.82
Damai/Dholi	9.80	9.66	9.94	Chamar/Harijan/Ram	10.26	10.60	9.91
				Musalman	8.43	8.94	7.91
				Musahar	7.21	7.21	7.22

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Also the table indicates among hill communities, the ageing index for females is higher than that for males. In contrast to Hill communities, the above table shows that in almost all Tarai communities, ageing indices are higher for males than for females.

3.5.3 Urban-rural differentials among communities

The table below shows that only the Newa community reported higher ageing in urban areas than in the rural areas. The ageing index for this community in urban areas is as high as 35.36% compared to 24.68% in rural areas. Except in this community all other communities reported higher ageing indices in rural areas than in urban areas. The high ageing index in urban area observed among Newa community is perhaps due to the high percentage of its population in urban areas (48.56%). Also as in the case of Hill communities, the ageing indices are higher in rural areas than in urban areas.

Table 3.17: Urban-Rural differentials in ageing among some selected communities of Nepal, 2011

Hill communities	% of urban population	Urban ageing index	Rural ageing index	Tarai communities	% of urban population	Urban ageing index	Rural ageing index
Newar	48.56	35.36	24.68	Brahman - Tarai	23.47	14.6	22.12
Gurung	26.28	24.48	27.92	Yadav	8.04	9.22	13.39
Brahman - Hill	27.14	20.6	24.68	Tharu	10.24	9.24	13.11
Gharti/Bhujel	15.75	13.5	18.6	Kumal	15.14	11.18	12.65
Limbu	11.15	16.8	17.98	Koiri/Kushwaha	7.09	9.21	12.6
Rai	16.06	14.39	17.74	Kalwar	22.39	8.74	12.98
Sanyasi Dashnami	14.89	16.94	16.4	Teli	14.77	8.26	12.73
Tamang	13.15	10.11	16.93	Kurmi	11.13	9.73	12.34
Sherpa	15.62	14.23	16.38	Kewat	8.45	10.57	12.04
Magar	12.34	12.58	16.13	Kathbaniyan	31.30	10.7	11.47
Chhetree	16.57	15.14	15.3	Dhanuk	11.28	7.92	11.19
All Caste	17.07	16.05	14.96	Hajam/Thakur	15.10	6.97	11.19
Thakuri	16.10	17.04	13.46	Sonar	26.67	7.79	11.28
Sarki	10.87	10.65	11.62	Mallaha	10.79	8.47	10.62
Kami	10.21	9.39	9.95	Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	7.84	8.76	10.4
Damai/Dholi	13.13	9.04	9.9	Chamar/Harijan	6.09	8.56	10.36
				Musalman	15.09	6.92	8.66
				Musahar	4.72	6.31	7.26

Note : Recently the Nepal government has expanded the present 58 municipalities to more by 72 municipalities. This will result in a higher percentage of urban population in Nepal (Friday, May 9, 2014, Rising Nepal). Also the inclusion of these municipalities in the analysis of urban-rural differentials may be different from those presented in this chapter.

3.6 Relation between Indices of Ageing and levels of poverty

It is established that ageing indices are negatively related with the social status of a community. In order to further collaborate these findings the ageing indices and levels of poverty among some communities are correlated as in Table 3.18.

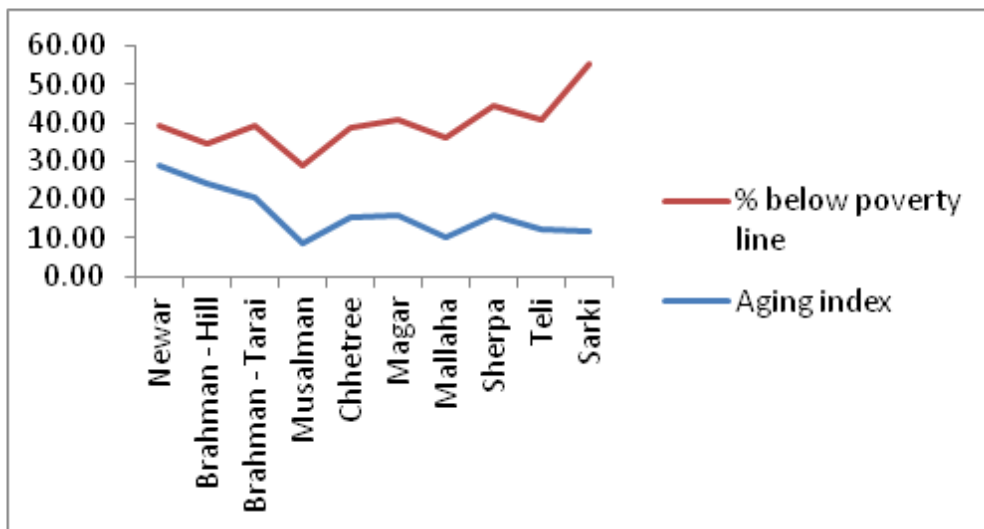
Table 3.18: % of Population below poverty line(2006) in ascending order and Aging index, selected communities of Nepal, 2011

Community	Aging index	% of population below poverty line*
Newar	29.05	10.25
Brahman - Hill	24.31	10.34
Brahman - Tarai	20.45	18.61
Musalman	8.43	20.18
Muser	7.22	22.31
Chhetree	15.28	23.4
Magar	15.77	25.05
Mallaha	10.40	25.93
Sherpa	16.10	28.25
Teli	12.15	28.69
Sarki	11.53	43.63

Source: Data for percentage of population below the poverty line is obtained from "Poverty in Nepal", CBS, 2068 (In Nepali)

The table shows that the communities with a low percentage of its population below poverty lines are usually those with higher ageing indices. For instance, the Newar which ranked as having the lowest percentage of its population below the poverty line (10.25%) seen to have the highest ageing index (29.05%) The table shows debarring some case, that as a rule the higher the percentage of the population below the poverty line, the lower the levels of their aging indices. Musalman is a community which has the lowest ageing index (8.43%) but the percentage of its population below the poverty line is 20.18%, which is although high, ranked in 7th place. This discrepancy may be due to data inconsistency in allocating the scores of percentage of population living below the poverty to some Tarai communities. The graphical relationships between ageing indices and the percentage of population living below the poverty line is shown in the following diagram below.

Figure 3.6: Ageing indices and percentage of population living below the poverty line.



The extent of the relation measured statistically in terms of the Pearson correlation is found -0.707, being significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

3.7 Adjustment of mis-reported ages among aged 75 years and above

The single age data reported in the census of 2011 is affected by reporting of ages ending at 0, 5 or even numbers (shown in column 3 of Table 3.20). Therefore the ages reported are smoothed by fitting an inverse exponential model after ignoring heaping data. The curve fitted is shown in the diagram below. The model is $y = 60934 e^{-0.179x}$; $R^2 = 0.9619$

Figure 3.7: Inverse exponential curve of adjusted age

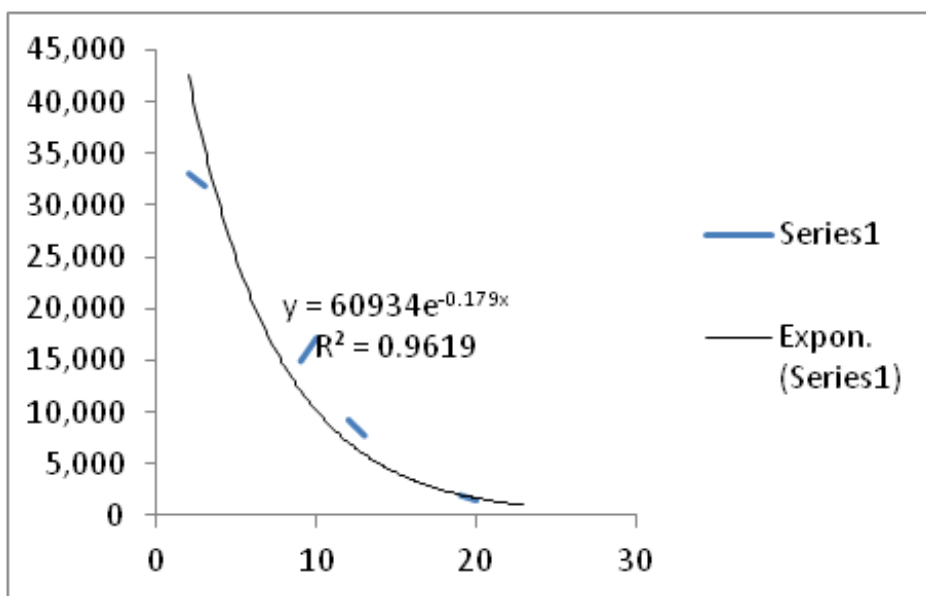


Table 3.19: Expected and observed population at ages 75 and higher, both sex, Nepal, 2011

Age	Observed population	Expected population	Cohort	P	Age	Observed population	Expected population	Cohort	P
75	1,04,640	74,127	1,00,000	1.00	88	8,883	7,234	9,759	0.10
76	33,162	61,978	83,611	0.84	89	4,017	6,048	8,159	0.08
77	31,962	51,821	69,908	0.70	90	11,516	5,058	6,823	0.07
78	46,064	43,328	58,451	0.58	91	2,624	4,228	5,704	0.06
79	19,307	36,226	48,870	0.49	92	2,842	3,536	4,770	0.05
80	61,809	30,288	40,860	0.41	93	1,933	2,957	3,989	0.04
81	15,774	25,325	34,164	0.34	94	1,420	2,472	3,335	0.03
82	19,054	21,174	28,564	0.29	95	3,433	2,066	2,787	0.03
83	14,936	17,704	23,883	0.24	96	1,080	1,727	2,330	0.02
84	17,204	14,803	19,970	0.20	97	831	1,445	1,949	0.02
85	22,668	12,376	16,696	0.17	98	1,050	1,208	1,630	0.02
86	9,242	10,348	13,960	0.14	99	1,248	1,010	1,363	0.01
87	7,716	8,651	11,671	0.12	100 +	3,566	844	1,139	0.01

P=Probability of surviving to age 75+ x from age 75 Years

According to above table, the reported aged ones 100 + Yrs. of magnitude 447,981, will be 844. Also the probabilities shown in the 4th and 8th column of the table show the probabilities of surviving at successive ages after surviving up to age 75. The probabilities are computed by making the assumption that the populations aged at different ages on wards 75 years are following the same cohort. Column 6 shows that the probability that a person aged 75 years will live to age 90 years is 0.07 and up to age 100 is 0.01. This means of 100,000 persons aged 75 years, 40,860 will survive up to age 80 years, 16,696 up to 85 years and 6,823 up to 90 years, 2,787 up to 95 years and only 1,139 up to 100 years.

3.8 Projections

Every planner wants future figures of demographic parameters about the elderly population for guidance in planning and making policies. The projections of relevant parameters are given here in Table 3.20.

3.8.1 Expected population in elderly ages 2016-2031

The expected elderly populations in years 2016-2031 are given in the following table on the assumption that the trend of growth observed in the past will continue in the future.

Table 3.20: Expected elderly population 2016-2031

Aged	Year			
	2016	2021	2026	2031
60+	24,17,508	27,12,736	30,44,017	34,15,755
65+	15,93,395	18,16,641	20,71,166	23,61,352
70+	9,58,994.1	10,90,775	12,40,665	14,11,152
75+	5,16,176	5,94,751	6,85,288	7,89,607

According to above the projections , the aged ones at ages 60+ will be 3,415,755 in the next two decades, and those aged 65+ years and 75+ years will grow to 2,361,352 and 789,607 respectively during this period.

3.8.2 Projection of ageing indices and percentage of population in the relevant age groups

Considering the massive out migration of Nepalese youths in the age group 15-45 years (nearly 20 lacs at present), who are the potentials older persons of the future and fathers, it can be assumed that births of children in Nepal as well as the increase in elderly population will be limited in numbers. Taking into considerations the above facts, the projections of the percentage of the population aged 15 years and under, the percentage of the population aged 65+ years and ageing indices for the years 2016-2031 are shown in Table 3.21.

Table 3.21: Projection of % of population aged < 15 years, aged 65+ years Ageing indices, 2016-2031

Year	% of Aged 65 +years	% of Aged <15 years	Ageing index %
2016	5.33	31.35	17
2021	5.666	28.33	20
2026	6.002	24.01	25
2031	6.338	21.13	30
2035	6.75	19.29	35

According to above projections, the percentage of the population aged 15 years and under will fall to 31.35% by 2016 and to 19.29% by 2035. The percentage of the population aged 65 +years will increase to 5.33% in 2016 and to 6.75% in 2031. Subsequently the ageing index will rise to the 17% and 35% in these years respectively

3.8.3 Projections of life expectancies

Fitting an exponential time series data of e_0^0 from 1951 to 2001 for Nepal data, the fitted model is found as $y=30.255 e^{0.1147 x}$ with $R^2 =0.9954$. Using the above model the expected e_0^0 for 2011 and onwards are shown in Table 3.22.

Table 3.22: Projections of life expectancies for Nepal, Both Sexes, 2006-2041

Year	Expected e_0^0	Expected e_{50}^0	Expected e_{65}^0	Expected e_{75}^0
2006	63.74	24.94	13.45	7.97
2011	67.50	25.53	13.80	8.17
2016	71.45	26.12	14.14	8.38
2021	75.71	26.71	14.49	8.59
2026	80.18	27.30	14.84	8.80
2031	84.91	27.89	15.19	9.00
2036	89.92	28.48	15.54	9.21
2041	95.23	15.88	15.88	9.42

Note.

Expected e_0^0 is based on the model $y=30.255 e^{0.1147x}$; $R^2 = 0.9954$

Expected e_{50}^0 is based on the model $Y=16.693+1.1786x$, $R^2 = 0.9888$

Expected e_{65}^0 is based on the model $y=8.9293+0.6954x$, $R^2 = 0.9907$

Expected e_{75}^0 is based on the model $=5.271+0.4147x$, $R^2 = 0.955$

3.8.4 Life expectancies at elderly ages

Many hold misconceptions that as the volume of elderly and ageing indices increase, the life expectancy at elderly ages also increases at the same pace as the increase in aged persons. However this is not the. Although the life expectancy at birth will increase with a fall in infant mortality rates, life expectancy at elderly ages increases at a very slow paces which is shown in Table 3.23.

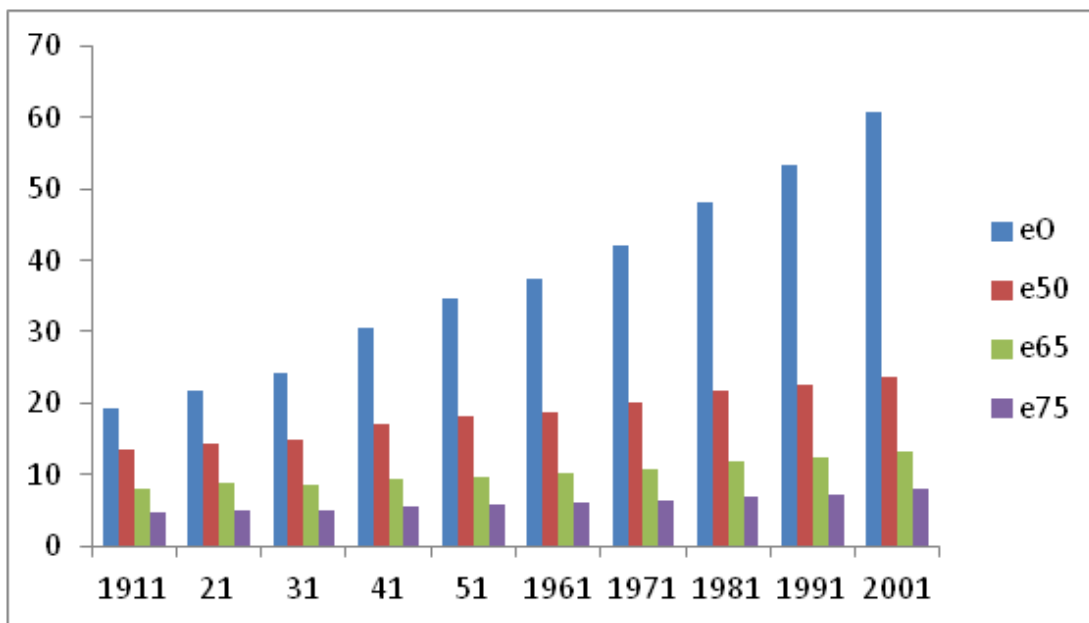
Table 3.23: Life expectancies at birth and different elderly ages, Nepal.1911-2011

Life expectancy	Years									
	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961	1971	1981	1991	2001
at birth	19.2	21.71	24.27	30.45	34.63	37.47	41.96	48.2	53.5	60.7
at age 50 years	13.5	14.28	14.96	17.02	18.07	18.85	19.98	21.75	22.465	23.8
at 65 years	7.89	8.77	8.46	9.37	9.76	10.25	10.85	11.81	12.312	13.2
at 75 years	4.71	4.88	4.98	5.52	5.88	6.07	6.38	6.81	7.232	8

Source: Data from 1911 to 1981 are obtained from life table constructions by M.L. Singh (See Population dynamics of Nepal. 1978, T.U pp 281-290. The data for 1991 and 2011 are obtained from the Population Monograph of 2001, p 129 and Population Monograph of 2001, p81 published by the CBS.

The table shows that although life expectancy at birth increased substantially from one census to other, the increase in life expectancy at older ages are small. For instance, life expectancy at birth was 19.2 years in 1911 increasing to 60.7 years in 2011. But the in case of life expectancies at older ages, the growth was from 13.5 years to 23.8 years during the same period. The growth trend in life expectancies at elderly ages and life expectancy at birth in Nepal, 1911-2001 (both sex) is shown in the diagram below.

Figure 3.8: Life expectancies at birth and different elderly ages.



The diagram clearly shows that where as life expectancy at birth increased rapidly, the corresponding life expectancy at older ages increased very slowly. It is a matter of concern for all who are involved in social welfare programmes for elderly people to know the average expected additional number of years for a person to survive after surviving up to a specified old age..

3.8.5 Life expectancy at age 65 years

The life expectancy at age 65 years is linearly related to life expectancy at birth by the equation $e_{65}^0 = 3.66 + 0.18e_0^0$ with $R^2 = 90.54\%$ and Adjusted $R^2 = 88.6490.5$. Life expectancy at birth of Nepalese in 2016 is expected to be 63.74. Accordingly, a person of 65 years in Nepal is expected to survive for 13.45 years.

3.9 Dynamics of Ageing

As a population goes through a process of demographic transition from a primitive state to an advanced state, demographic measures of the population such as its Crude birth rate, Infant mortality rate and the proportion of the population under 15 years decline while life expectancy at birth and the proportion of aged persons increases. The increase in the proportion of aged person is called ageing of the popula-

tion. The process of ageing though affected by gender, urbanisation, community, geographical area, is greatly affected by the levels of the percentage of population below the poverty line.

3.9.1 Demographic changes observed in Nepal, 1911-2011

The changes in the parameters of ageing in Nepal from 1911-2011 namely $y e_o^0$, CBR, IMR and the percentage of the population aged 15 years and under and the indices of ageing are shown in Table 3.24.

Table 3.24: Parameters of ageing and ageing indices for Nepal, 1911-2011

Parameters	Censuses of Nepal, 1911-2011				
	1911	1941	1971	2001*	2011**
e_o^0	19.18	30.45	41.96	58	66
b	50.00	44.70	42.14	31	24
IMR	236.08	193.81	150.65	64.	44
% of pop aged <15 years	38.68	39.16	40.72	38.55	34
Index of Ageing	6.28	8.09	7.78	10.92	15.50

** Population data sheet of U.N, 2013

The tables shows that CBR, b ,has decreased from 50 per thousand live births in1911 to 24 per thousand in 2011. Also during this period the Infant Mortality Rate, (IMR) has decreased from 236.08 per thousand to 44 per thousand over a 100 year period from 1911 to 2011. Subsequently the life expectancy at birth e_o^0 , has increased from 19 years to 66 years during this period. The ageing parameters are correlated to each other. For instance IMR and e_o^0 are inversely related by the relationship $IMR=0.308-0.00375 e_o^0$, $R^2 =96.31$, (See M. L. Singh, 'Population dynamics of Nepal, 1979, T.U, pp 188-207). Also the percentage of the population under 15 years and the Index of ageing negatively correlated with the magnitude of -0.659** and the Index of ageing and e_o^0 positively correlated with the magnitude 0.621 significant at 1% level of significance (two tail test).

In Nepal, the ageing pattern is also affected by the economic condition of the population. For instance, it is observed that there is a negative correlation of order -0,8 ,between the percentage of population below the poverty line and the ageing index.

3.10 Aspects of Ageing

3.10.1 The demographic aspect

A significant increase in life expectancy at birth, an almost doubling of the population of older persons, a significant fall in birth rate, ageing within the older population, significant inequality between men and women in life expectancies and ageing (in favor of women), striking regional differences and a strong contrast between rural and urban areas ,and ever increasing dependency rate are some features of The Demographic Aspects of ageing.

3.10.2 Health aspect

Health is another component that is greatly affected by ageing. The health of older persons deteriorates due to biological ageing. Research conducted during the 1950's and 60,s concluded that all physiological functions gradually decline with age and that there is increasing vulnerability to stress of all kinds, disease, injuries and accidents (see Biological ageing by O.Toussint,p15). The deterioration in health sometimes make it impossible for older persons to perform basic activities such as eating, walking, taking a bath and going to the toilet on their own. Dependencies on others for these activities are most pathetic conditions of aged ones.

3.10.3 Social aspect: Eastern and Western context

Old age is the last stage of the life cycle. Every individual has to pass though this stage, if he/she managed to survive the earlier stage, namely the adult stage. There are different perspectives in looking at and treating this last stage of the life cycle.

In contrast, in Eastern culture, ageing, since ancient times is considered as the continued upgrading of social status. The higher the age of a person, the higher his/her social status. The eldest male member of a family or the community automatically takes the role of head-ship in the family/community. Ageing in Nepal is considered in eastern context and an aged man is called a senior citizen.

3.11 Basic problems at old age

The two basic factors initiating problems at old age are retirement from regular work and the deterioration of the physical and mental health of a person. Retirement may be compulsory after attaining a certain age or voluntary because of a person's health problems or other social and economic conditions. When a person retires, he no longer works. Work is not only an occupation but is also a source of status and social interaction. When a man is not working, he is an alienated individual, compelled to face inactivity, loss of status as the family bread winner, lose of self esteem, loss of social interaction and a diminished income (Ibid: Ephraim).

For the ageing individual with poor familial and social relationships, retirement from work may be disastrous leading him to become withdrawn, and increasingly frustrated in his attempt to gain pleasure from his environment. He may develop psychotic symptoms that are an exaggeration of his lifelong emotional patterns: complaints may become hallucinations and paranoid trends may become delusions of persecution (Ibid, p450).

As the individual grows older, he may be cut off from the world physically as well as socially. For many old people the fear of illness is greater than the fear of death. Few persons reach an advanced age without having experienced some incapacity, illness or surgery that has left a residue of fear. A disastrous result of ageing is the development of a tendency in a person to become suicidal. Statistically, the peak for suicides appears in late middle or old age. Ageing people take their own lives because of social or psychological factors such as an awareness of their physical and mental decline, loneliness, forced idleness, inability to adapt to changes in life and incurable diseases.

3.12 Status of aged persons in Nepal

In Nepal, although only recently, ageing is considered as an economic problem, socially since ancient time, it has been considered as the continued upgrading in social status. The higher the age of a person, the more his/her social status is. The eldest male member of the family or the community automatically takes the role of head-ship in the family/community. Almost all social and religious activities are guided as well as performed by him. His views and words are taken as the rules and regulations to be followed by the community/family members. Also individuals who manage to survive more than 77 years of age are considered as those who have attained the status of god-hood.

3.12.1 Management aspect

Although a little late, attention globally to manage older populations and to carry out different remedial activities for minimizing the problems they face have been discussed by a sequence of world assemblies. The first was held in Vienna, on July 26-August 8, 1982, with the participation of 124 countries (Ibid Fiapa, Special issue, December 2004, p16). In order to improve the lives of old persons, the General Assembly for Ageing, Vienna, in 1991 adopted resolution 46/91. The resolutions have four themes namely: 1. Independence, 2. Participation 3. Care 4. Self –fulfillment. The recommendations prescribed in each of these themes are described in Annex 3.7.

The principles for older persons adopted in resolution 46/91 are exhaustive for improving the living conditions of aged ones. However, it is virtually impossible to implement most of the actions needed to achieve the goals stated in the above principles. The principles proposed are for absolute welfare societies and governments dedicated to humanitarian works But such societies and governments hardly exist in this world

Though theoretically every society and government claim to be oriented to social welfare for the weaker sections of the population specially children and older persons, in practice, instead of protecting them, the incidences of abusing them are found in abundance. Treating a person of old age is intrinsically linked with prevailing social attitude and practices.

Of many resolutions passed by the assembly, the first two namely aged persons should have (a) access to adequate food, care and housing etc. (b) have the opportunity to work, access to income generating opportunities and the last one namely, to be able to live at home as long as possible described in the Independence theme are basic requirements old people.

3.13 Provision of protecting, sheltering and managing aged ones in Nepal

Considering the physiological aspects of ageing, Nepalese law have made provisions for protecting elderly persons from possible abuse due to their physical and mental disabilities. Nepalese law prohibits making any property and financial transactions with elderly persons aged 75 years and above in the absence of his/her family. The Senior Citizen Act (Bikram sambat 2063, 2006 AD) of Nepal has fixed the obligation and responsibility of taking care of elders to family member, relatives and Hakadar (the person having right to the property of elders). But the law is very weak in implementation and is silent on the punishment to be given to defaulters.

Traditionally taking care of elders is the responsibility of their children and relatives. But because of many reasons, some elders are not taken care of, but instead discarded from their family and society.

For such cases, in Nepal since ancient times, there is a system of providing free food and lodging to old persons at homes funded by charity (examples: Pasu Pati Bridayasram, Tripurshor temple and other religious places).

At present, the government of Nepal is giving pensions of Rs. 500 per month to senior citizens. It is very good gesture by the government to its senior citizens, but the amount is very small in the present climate of price inflation. To meet ever rising expenditures on their basic needs, senior citizens want the amount to be raised to Rs 3000 per month and they have been advocating for this for the last 14 months but the government has not paid any attention. On the social side, recently programmes that welcome senior citizens aged 75 + years are being conducted regularly by social organisations every year.

A survey conducted by Global .H. Watch during 2013 ranked Nepal's position on the conditions of aged ones for different aspects. Out of a total of 91 countries, Nepal was ranked in 62nd position in income generating activities, 69th position in social simplification, 79th position in employment and education, and 83rd position in health aspects. (Source: Janak Raj Sapkota/Pradip Basyal and Gokarna Gautam, 'Senior citizens, neither belonging to the family nor to the Nation' "EPAL National weekly April 2014, Vol14, N036 p22, in Nepali). These findings reflect the poor conditions of Aged person in Nepal as compared to other countries.

3.14 Challenges

Though ageing is still not a social problem in Nepal, medical problems and costs involved for treatment is becoming more and more acute. Though recent data is not available, a survey carried out a decade ago reported that about 32.5% of aged ones were suffering from health problems [*Aging Concern Society of Nepal*, 2002]. The 2001 census showed that most of older persons suffered from a high risk disease such as asthma, cancer, heart problems and tuberculosis (data from 2011 is yet not analysed). A study by NPC, UNICEF, New Era in 2001 reported that the risk for becoming disabled is highest in the age group 60-70 at a degree of 2. 63%.

Medical costs in Nepal are very high. In many countries, medical treatment is the social responsibility of the government. A test of good governance is to test how extensively this service has been provided by the government. Unfortunately, medical treatment in Nepal is considered as a business activity and the government has been levying VAT tax even in simple medical tests like blood tests, urine tests etc. The cost of treatments of diseases suffered by older persons is exceptionally high and patients have to pay high amounts in VAT tax for treatment of these diseases.

Aged persons are facing a double sided problem in this respect. On one hand they face decreasing financial resources and on the other hand their medical expenses are increasing beyond their financial capacities. As a result many old persons are left without treatment to face ultimate death.

According to census data of Nepal in 2001, the median ages for dying of the cohort of 50+ years was 79 years, 78.10 for males and 81.60 for females. This indicates that females survive more years than their male counterparts. (Recent data could not be obtained.) However because the increase in life expectancy has increased from 60.7 years in 2001 to 67 years in 2011, the median age for dying of older persons must have increased to some extent. Accordingly the median ages stated above may be inflated by 2 to 3 years.

Another serious problem for older persons that has developed recently in Nepal is the breaking up of joint families into nuclear families, compelling older persons to live alone without any family member to look after them. The requirement by law for distribution of property, both cash and capital to sons as heritage have given rights to sons over their parent's property but without any clear cut legal duties towards them. In the past, there have been some social obligations of children and siblings towards their parents and they used to fulfil these obligations without any failing.

However, the present social polarisation taking in Nepal in the name of advancement towards the 21st century has made Nepalese sons more and more self-centred without any obligations and responsibilities towards their parents. Another challenge for the government and society is to retain traditional values among new generations in order to give due respect to senior citizens and protect aged ones from abuse by their sons and daughters.

3.15 Recommendations

Many of the problems associated with old age can be minimised by developing positive attitudes towards aged ones by family, society and the government and about old age itself by the older person themselves.

1. First and foremost, the concept about old age should be changed from the present concept of a useless, wasteful and idle period of life to a more meaningful, valuable and creamed period of life when a person has vast knowledge and experiences. Aged persons should be treated not as liabilities but as assets of refined human resources, that can be utilised to make more meaningful plans and programmes for the development of the country.
2. Secondly, work opportunities according to the physique and mental structure of an aged person should be provided. It has been observed that aged persons who continue to work are one-third less likely to develop the disorder of ageing as compared to those who have retired from work. It should be stressed in this context that men/women in their fifties, sixties and over are the political, economic and social leaders of many societies.
3. To retain traditional values of respecting seniors, moral education as part of the school curriculum should be given to every child.
4. Governments should bear the cost of medical treatments of senior citizens who are acutely ill. If this cannot be undertaken, the cost of medicines and treatments should be subsidised. The present practice of increasing government revenue by including VAT in the medical expenses of aged persons is a highly immoral practice and therefore should be abandoned immediately.

3.16 Some of the recommendations to be followed by old persons are:

1. As safe guards for the future, working people should change their present practice of investing all their earnings in the welfare of their children by donating some of their earnings to charitable societies or institutions, that might help them when they are old and in need.
2. They should be happy being senior citizens because they have managed to survive many obstacles

in their younger ages. They should accept the change and take life as it is. They should be a little bit philosophic by accepting that everything is zero which creates everything and ultimate leads them to infinity, the god which is so almighty.

3. Much of the mental and psychological problems associated with ageing are due to too much attachment to family and past events, too much expectations from juniors, desires to continue as decision makers as in the past and not being able to accept present conditions and happenings. Attachment, love, expectation grudging are four basic mental processes that accelerate biological ageing.

Do not complain that you are not loved by your juniors, Accept the fact that love flows from upper to lower level as water of a stream and not vice versa. Make strong the belief that you have existed in the past, exist in the present and will exist in the future (Komal Geeta ,Chapter 2 verse 12).

Take every happening as a positive aspect of life and be sure that after dawn, morning will show up the next day. All that is happening is moving in the circumference of circle which has no beginning and no end.

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Annex 3.1: Ageing indices in districts of Nepal 2011 and 2001

Districts	Ageing Index				District	Ageing Index			
	2001	2011				2001	2011		
	Both	Both	Male	Female		Both	Both	Male	Female
Jajarkot	4.01	6.16	6.59	5.73	Rautahat	10.17	11.87	12.28	11.45
Jumla	4.25	6.30	6.97	5.63	Dhanusa	9.46	12.09	12.63	11.52
Kalikot	4.58	6.91	6.93	6.90	Sarlahi	9.61	12.15	12.18	12.13
Dolpa	7.24	7.49	7.24	7.74	Achham	8.83	12.19	10.27	14.13
Mugu	10.32	8.06	8.03	8.09	Kanchanpur	7.41	12.33	11.90	12.79
Rukum	5.66	8.80	9.19	8.41	Dadeldhura	9.02	12.34	10.65	14.08
Salyan	6.06	8.93	9.11	8.74	Mahottari	10.18	12.46	12.89	12.01
Dailekh	6.06	8.98	9.03	8.92	Siraha	9.58	12.55	12.65	12.43
Humla	9.26	9.54	9.49	9.58	Kapilbastu	10.39	12.77	13.63	11.87
Surkhet	6.52	10.07	9.74	10.41	Bardiya	7.42	12.78	13.30	12.25
Doti	8.65	10.66	8.80	12.55	Saptari	9.7	13.46	13.70	13.21
Parsa	7.47	10.74	11.22	10.24	Sindhuli	9.58	13.47	13.01	13.93
Bajura	8.74	10.90	10.08	11.73	Udayapur	9.18	13.74	15.80	14.18
Bajhang	12.88	11.10	9.30	12.95	Darchula	10.23	13.99	13.84	14.14
Bara	8.85	11.20	11.52	10.86	Baitadi	11.13	14.15	12.75	15.58
Rolpa	7.99	11.26	11.02	11.49	Rupandehi	10.72	14.39	14.50	14.27
Dang	6.92	11.30	11.41	11.19	Sunsari	11.17	14.46	13.81	15.15
Banke	8.73	11.49	11.63	11.34	Taplejung	12.19	15.37	15.71	15.02
Pyuthan	9	11.59	11.32	11.85	Makwanp	10.16	15.53	15.20	15.87
Nawalparasi	10.77	16.59	16.68	16.50	Kaski	14.97	20.78	18.16	23.65
Morang	10.8	16.68	16.38	16.99	Bhaktapur	15.29	21.00	18.33	24.04
Kathmandu	12.82	16.98	14.61	19.65	Okhaldhunga	13.67	21.01	20.33	21.68
Panchthar	11.07	16.99	17.47	16.52	Tanahu	13.91	21.34	20.32	22.38
Sankhuwasabha	12.87	17.48	16.95	18.01	Kavrepalanchok	13.45	21.63	20.59	22.69
Solukhumbu	11.49	17.90	17.56	18.25	Dhading	13.45	22.12	22.31	21.93
Khotang	12.03	18.20	18.69	17.70	Myagdi	14.83	22.13	20.82	23.46
Ilam	10.92	18.66	19.90	17.39	Lalitpur	15.45	22.26	19.76	24.97
Baglung	12.88	18.94	18.77	19.11	Sindhupalchok	12.9	23.36	25.79	23.44
Palpa	12.45	19.21	18.29	20.15	Parbat	14.7	23.61	22.70	24.57
Arghakhanchi	12.37	19.27	19.28	19.26	Nuwakot	13.93	23.62	23.50	23.75
Jhapa	12.14	19.35	19.24	19.47	Ramechhap	13.11	23.63	22.08	25.16
Dhankuta	13.8	19.91	19.79	20.03	Dolakha	13.31	24.28	22.99	25.57
Bhojpur	14.13	19.92	19.94	19.90	Syangja	15.17	25.49	24.32	26.68
Chitawan	13.03	20.02	19.24	20.85	Gorkha	15.28	27.13	26.92	27.34
Gulmi	13.03	20.03	20.00	20.06	Lamjung	17.66	27.28	26.82	27.75
Terhathum	13.77	20.14	19.10	21.19	Manang	22.15	32.18	30.47	33.79
Rasuwa	14.2	20.65	21.60	19.72	Mustang	20.03	35.54	34.87	36.22

Annex 3.2: Pearson correlation coefficients of major variables

	Ageing index	% of population < 15 years	e_o^0
Ageing index	1	-0.659**	0.621**
% of population < 15 years		1	
e_o^0	0.621**	-0.659**	1

** Significant at 1% level of significance (two tail test)

Annex 3.3: Linear regression of Ageing index on % of Population <15 years and e_o^0
 Fitting linear regression equation in datasheets of UN, 2013, the equation is observed

Index of Ageing= -4.615-1.489 % of pop< 15 years +1.067 e_o^0 , the regression coefficients respectively being significant at 0. 977, 0.258 and 0.567 level of significances. Analysis variance of regression equation shows that it is significant at 0.28 level with F=4.917.

CHAPTER 4

SOCIAL DEMOGRAPHY OF NEPAL: EVIDENCES FROM POPULATION AND HOUSING CENSUS 2011

Yogendra B Gurung *

Abstract

Using 2011 census data, this chapter aims to assess the status of caste/ethnic groups in demographic, social and economic aspects to understand “who is where” in the development process and to explore policy insights for inclusive development in Nepal. Social inclusion is the framework which is appropriate for analysing Nepali society to address inclusive development within the cultural diversity represented by caste/ethnicity. Analysis is made based on; broader social group to make analysis simple to understand the phenomena for each group; top ten and bottom ten caste/ethnic groups to highlight outcomes at highest and lowest level; and 125 caste/ethnic groups to understand variations at individual group level. Household size, mean age of population, dependency ratio, age at first marriage, and child-woman ratio indicate high fertility among Madhesi Dalits, Madhesi OCs, Musalman and M/H Janajatis-B. Child marriage is prevalent amongst Dom and Chidimar. The high sex ratio indicates missing women among Bangali, Marwadi, Dev, Rajput, Kalwar, Kanu and Kathbaniyan that may be an indication of abortion legalisation. Mortality is still relatively higher among Hill Dalits than other groups. Proficiency in Nepali language is positively associated with literacy and education. Literacy and education are positively associated with managerial/professional work and negatively with elementary work. Madhesi Dalits, Madhesi OCs, Musalman and Tarai Janajati are poor in Nepali and, thereby, in literacy and education. Madhesi Dalits are primarily involved in elementary occupations, in which some Madhesi OC-B, Tarai Janajati, Hill Dalits and Musalman are also involved. Hill Brahman and Madhesi B/C are better off in terms of education and, thereby, significantly involved in managerial/professional work. Raising awareness on the disadvantage of high fertility and early age at marriage is still necessary for some caste/ethnic groups. As education is the gateway for all kinds of development opportunities, education should be appropriately inclusive in terms of medium of instruction and language of textbooks.

4.1 Introduction

4.1.1 Background

Diversity in identity with multiple culture, religion, language, and geography is the belongingness of the composite identity of Nepal. This identity is an inherent value and dignity of Nepalese citizens, which is a rich asset of the country. This asset was recognised for the first time by the state after the restoration of democracy in 1990¹. Preserving and promoting this identity of multiplicity are both rights

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¹ New democratic constitution has recognized that Nepal is a multi-ethnic, multi-lingual, multi-religious country in 1991.

and responsibilities of the state as well as its citizens. Restoration of democracy empowered people in unravelling their agenda of identity and existence in the country. The publication of 1991 census data, disaggregated by caste and ethnicity for the first time in census history, is one of many examples of the results of democracy. From the very beginning of Nepal's census history (since 1911) up to 2011, censuses have been regularly recording caste and ethnicity of the household head and/or members of the households (Bastola, 2014). However, it was never published before the 1991 census.

The population census of 1991 provided data on 59 different caste and ethnic groups KC (1995), disaggregated by caste and ethnicity in the chapter, "Social Composition of Nepal", for the Population Monograph 1995. Language, caste/ethnicity and religion and its rural/urban distribution were analysed. The interrelationship between language and caste/ethnicity was the contributing aspect of this chapter. Gurung (1998) published a book, *Nepal Social Demography and Expressions*, by analysing the socio-demographic characteristics of major caste/ethnic groups and of broader social groups based on the census of 1991. Spatial aspects of caste/ethnic and language groups were analysed. The census of 2001 recorded 101 different caste and ethnic groups, which is the second census to publish data by caste and ethnicity. Gurung (2003) also published a booklet, *Social Demography of Nepal*, based on the census of 2001. This was an update of the previous publication in a summarised version. Gurung focused his analysis on caste and ethnicity, religion, language and its social as well as eco-regional structure. He also analysed literacy based on caste and ethnicity. Using 2001 census data, Dahal (2003) contributed a chapter of social composition of the population in the Population Monograph 2003. His chapter is more an anthropological account to present social and cultural structure of caste and ethnicity in Nepal. Major and minor groups of caste and ethnic groups were identified in terms of basic socio-economic characteristics as well as religious belief.

Tamang and others (2006) and Acharya and Subba (2008) prepared a detailed account of socio-economic and demographic characteristics, disaggregated by caste and ethnicity, using data from both censuses of 1991 and 2001. Tamang and others' analysis is more towards indigenous issues focusing on Adibasi Janajatis of Nepal and the changes during the two consecutive censuses. Acharya and Subba's analysis is more about overall socio-economic and demographic characteristics and gender aspects and changes during the two censuses. The presentation of data in both publications is based on individual caste and ethnic groups as well as regrouping of caste and ethnicity into broader social groups.

The population and housing census of 2011 recorded 125 caste and ethnic groups and 125 different language groups. The current census has provided more windows for scoping the social demography of Nepal. Sharma (2014) examined demography and spatial transition, growth, caste/ethnicity and language, religion and literacy based on data of 125 caste and ethnic groups from the 2011 census. This chapter is an advancement of the social demography of Nepal using census 2011 data. It analyses the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the Nepalese population based on 125 caste/ethnic groups.

4.1.2 Need for caste and ethnicity disaggregation

Nepal is a multi-ethnic, multi-cultural, multi-religious, and multi-lingual country. Caste/ethnicity is the main variant of diversity that carries meaning of cultural heterogeneity as well as cultural assets of the Nepalese population. Identity issues have become an inherent political agenda for the Nepali population, which is solely based on caste/ethnic identity. This is because some cultural groups have been excluded from mainstream politics as well as social and economic development in the past. Restoration of democracy and, more pertinently, political insurgency facilitated a conducive environment for

people to make their voices and agendas heard in the political sphere. Consequently, the government for the first time recognised the cultural diversity of the country in its democratic constitution in 1990². Accordingly, the government realised the gravity of social exclusion and began to address the excluded groups in its Ninth Plan. The Tenth Plan (2002-2007) considered that social exclusion is the main obstacle for alleviating poverty³. It identified the dimensions of social exclusion as caste and ethnicity, gender, and geographical locations and has given special attention to very poor, deprived communities and backward regions for the mainstreaming of development. The Interim Constitution 2007 and Eleventh Interim Plan (2007-2010) identified more pertinently that women, Dalits, Adibasi/Janajatis, Madhesis, Muslims, third gender, persons with disability, and people living in geographically remote areas are excluded groups and focused on addressing the deep-rooted and systemic discrimination and exclusion. The Approach Paper to the Thirteenth Plan (2013) has promised to attain economic, social and cultural inclusion by protecting and promoting the political, economic, social, human and cultural rights of excluded communities.

Identification, count and status in the census data are the main agendas of inclusion in the census process for Adibasi Janajatis, Dalits, Madhesis, and many other small population groups with separate identities. These agendas have two pertinent implications. Firstly, it helps to establish the presence of every group of people in the nation. Secondly, it helps add value of the census data with increased ownership of the census data among all level of people in the country. The civil society initiative of census observation of the census of 2011 has been a milestone in this process (NCOC, 2012)⁴. Eight organisations working with minority and excluded population groups were involved in the census observation. It ensures that both state and people are part of the process of the census and assures that every person or every group of people is being counted. In addition, it reaffirms that the population census is not only to count people but also to make sure ‘everyone counts’⁵. This ensures the notion of ‘rights of every one to be counted’, which ensures everyone’s existence as a citizen in the country (Gurung, 2010).

Identification of the ethno-cultural characteristics of a country’s population has increasing importance in the context of integration of and policies affecting minority groups (UN, 2008: 139). Collecting information about the ethnic composition of the population allows for a deeper study of the ethnic background of a country’s population, especially with respect to indigenous population and other specific groups of population (UN, 2008: 246). Data on ethnicity provide information on the diversity of a population to identify various subgroups of population and to understand their social, cultural, economic and demographic characteristics. It exhibits the status “who is where” in the development process with the help of cultural, social, economic and demographic indicators. Development and measurement of such indicators is helpful in monitoring the human development of all subgroups of populations (UN, 2008: 140). This chapter focuses on the perspective of inclusion in overall demographic, social and economic aspects of development using census 2011 data. It helps to understand the relative position of each group in terms of human development and inclusive development.

2 For the first time, the new democratic constitution recognised that Nepal is a multi-ethnic, multi-lingual, multi-religious country in 1991.

3 Tenth Five Year Plan (Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper: 2002 – 2007).

4 National Census 2011 Citizen Observation Committee (NCOC) was formed of eight different organisations representing minorities, indigenous nationalities and other excluded groups. NCOC successfully accomplished ‘observation’ of population and housing census 2011 (see NCOC, 2012).

5 Official Statement for World Population Day, UNFPA Executive Director, Thoraya Ahmed Obaid, and Christian Delsol of UNFPA/China (http://news.xinhuanet.com/english2010/world/2010-07/10/c_13392676.htm).

The Asian Development Bank defines social exclusion as an outcome of discrimination based on gender, caste, ethnicity, or religion, which occurs in public (formal), such as the legal, educational institutions, and social (informal) institutions such as communities and households, whereas social inclusion is the removal of those institutional barriers and the enhancement of incentives to increase access to development opportunities (ADB, 2010). In simple terms, social inclusion is the inclusion of excluded groups into mainstream development by not assimilating them but by preserving and promoting their cultural and traditional esteem. The concept of social inclusion is a useful framework for analysing the Nepali state and society, and has been an important agenda of development plans. A number of studies have followed this framework in the past to analyse Nepali society based on caste/ethnicity disaggregation (see Gurung, 1998; NESAC, 1998; Acharya and Subba, 2008). DFID and the World Bank study (2006) on gender and social exclusion in Nepal and Das and Hatlebakk (2010) on analysis of census 2001 and NLSS-II data are contributing works to social exclusion and inclusion in Nepal.

4.1.3 Caste/ethnicity data in censuses of Nepal

The history of census taking in Nepal is 100 years old. From the beginning in 1911, censuses have been recording information on caste/ethnicity in one way or other. The terminology for caste/ethnicity used, however, has been different in different censuses. In terms of collection of data on caste/ethnicity, the census taking in Nepal can be simply classified into three different era – Rana Regime, Panchayat era, and democratic era.

Population censuses from 1911 to 1952/54 are designated as the censuses in Rana regime. Five censuses were conducted during this period. Censuses from 1911 to 1941 collected relatively less information. The census of 1952/54 is considered to be the first modern census that adopted relatively more standard methodology and questionnaires recommended by the United Nations so as to have data with global comparability. These censuses were taken during the autocratic Rana Regime. All five censuses in this period collected information on caste/ethnicity using a separate question, “caste”, in the census form (Table 4.1). The term “caste” is non-inclusive, as it does not culturally include non-caste groups of people, particularly Adibasi Janajatis and Muslims. It was used within the framework of caste system of *Civil Code 1854*⁶ considering that Adibasi Janajatis and Muslims are included under caste. However, these censuses collected data on caste but they were never published.

In 1951, the Rana regime was demolished and so-called democracy was introduced, but it did not last long. The Monarchical Panchayat system was introduced in 1961 and continued until 1990, which is the “Panchayat era”. Three censuses were conducted during this period. Ethnicity was not recorded as separate data in all these three censuses (Table 4.1). In the 1961 census, *name* and *caste* of the household head and household members were asked. The term was changed to “*name* and *thar*” of persons in the household in 1971 census and to *name* and *thar* of household heads and household members in the 1981 census. Both *caste* and *thar* are from the same root but *thar* is much more neutral in terms of cultural identity. *Caste* and *thar* recorded in these three censuses were only to identify the household but not to collect data on ethnicity.

6 Old Civil Code (Old Muluki Ain) was promulgated in 1854 in Nepal by the then Prime Minister Janga Bahadur Rana. The main aim of this code was to legalise the caste system in the country by codifying caste hierarchy and untouchability. According to this code, all the people of Nepal are under the caste system.

Table 4.1: Caste/ethnicity question in census 1911 – 2011

Census year	Terms used in Question	Schedule(s)	Question	Reporting
I. Rana Regime				
1911	<i>Caste</i>	Household	Separate question	Data not published
1921	<i>Caste</i>	Household	Separate question	Data not published
1930	<i>Caste</i>	Household	Separate question	Data not published
1941/42	<i>Caste</i>	Household	Separate question	Data not published
1952/54	<i>Caste</i>	Individual	Separate question	Data not published
II. Panchayat era				
1961	<i>Name and caste</i>	Household/ Individual	No separate question	Data not generated
1971	<i>Name and thar</i>	Individual	No separate question	Data not generated
1981	<i>Name and thar</i>	Household/ individual	No separate question	Data not generated
III. Democratic era				
1991	<i>Caste/ethnicity</i>	Individual	Separate question	Data published
2001	<i>Caste/ethnicity</i>	Individual	Separate question	Data published
2011	<i>Caste/ethnicity/thar</i>	Household/ individual	Separate question	Data published

Source: Compiled from Bastola (2014) and Gurung et al. (2005).

Democracy was restored in 1990, although Nepal is still waiting for appropriate institutionalisation. After the restoration of democracy, the Central Bureau of Statistics for the first time included a separate question on “caste/ethnicity” in the census form (Table 4.1). The question was about “caste/ethnicity” in the 1991 and 2001 censuses. It was improved in 2011 census by adding *thar*, in addition to “caste/ethnicity”. The addition of the term *thar* was to improve identification of caste/ethnicity of the population more clearly. Consequently, the number of caste/ethnicity has increased in every latest census. There were 60 different caste/ethnic groups identified in the 1991 census, which increased to 101 in 2001 and to 125 in the 2011 census. This indicates that the recent consecutive censuses of Nepal have been much progressive than the past censuses in case of inclusion of voice and apprehension of people in its process of collection and publication of data.

4.1.4 Data analysis and presentation

Nepali society has been in transition through political, social and economic transformation. Reconstruction of cultural identity is at the surface of political ground. The main reason is that the identity of most of the non-Hindu cultural groups was deconstructed by the state through *Civil Code 1854*. The code legally enforced every people to be under the caste hierarchy, which has been deep-rooted in Nepali society. Restoration of democracy and political awareness and empowerment fuelled by a decade long Maoist insurgency made people raise their voice and their agenda. Reconstruction of cultural identity is one of its indispensable outcomes. The Central Bureau of Statistics made an effort to “making the census of 2011 engendered and socially inclusive”⁷ and the increase in the number of caste/ethnicity questions from the censuses of 1991, 2001 to 2011 has been the result of reconstruction of identity.

The number of caste/ethnic groups has increased to 125 in the 2011 census. The census of 2001 recorded 42 new groups that were not in the 1991 census. The latest census recorded 24 additional

⁷ Central Bureau of Statistics had made an effort for making 2011 census engendered and socially inclusive. For this purpose, it prepared two strategic papers, “Making Population and Housing Census 2011 Socially Inclusive” (Gurung, 2010) and “Strategic Plan for Engendering the Population and Housing Census 2011” (Bhadra, 2010). Objective of these papers was to feed the census manual and census operation to make it engendered and socially inclusive.

groups compared to the 2001 census. There is still a high possibility of discovering even more caste/ethnic groups in the country. There are still many other groups who have been asking to be identified in the census data. The Central Bureau of Statistics claims that these groups have less than 1,000 populations. Still, there are three groups, Raute, Nurang and Kusunda that have less than 1,000 populations. These groups were reported with their ethnicity in the census of 2011 because they were identified in the previous census. Such a changing number of caste/ethnic groups has two implications. Firstly, it is difficult to measure the change in size and characteristics of every caste/ethnic group. Secondly, reclassification of reported caste/ethnic groups into broader social groups also creates problems for intercensal comparison.

Of the total 125 caste/ethnic groups identified by the census of 2011, there are 38 groups that have more than 100,000 population and only nine groups of those have more than one million populations (Annex 4.1). Forty-three groups have populations between 10,000 and 100,000 and 44 groups have less than 10,000 populations. In this way, there are many groups who have small numbers of population.

This chapter attempts to analyse demographic and socio-economic characteristics based on disaggregation of 125 caste/ethnic groups. These characteristics mainly include demographic and human development indicators. Regarding computation of demographic indicators, there is a limitation as it is not possible to compute all 125 caste/ethnic groups. Fertility represented by total fertility rate (TFR) is an example of an indicator that cannot be computed for most of the groups with a small population. In order to get a reliable estimation of those demographic indicators a large number of events is needed. Therefore, 125 caste/ethnic groups are classified into 13 broader social groups so that such indicators can be computed readily to make them inter-group comparable. It also helps to make groups with the smallest population visible. The same limitation applies to the estimation of mortality indicators.

The broader 13 social groups adopted for analysis also include “other undefined” and “foreigner” groups (Table 4.2). Undefined others are Janajati other, Dalit other, Tarai other and caste/ethnicity not defined. Excluding these two groups, the number of broader social groups is 11. These 11 categories are adopted from previous studies (*see* Gurung, 1998; Acharya and Subba, 2008; CBS, 2011; Pandey et al., 2013; Gurung et al., 2014). Classification of these categories is based more on a cultural basis as caste/ethnic groups included in each broader category have more or less common cultural values. This classification is found to have wider public use. The first three groups in the table are not so different. They all belong to high caste groups in a Hindu caste system. However, the second group (Hill Chhetree) is lagging in the political and social sphere compared to the first group (Hill Brahman) with a large population living in mid- and far-western hills. The third group (Madhesi Brahman/Chhetree) is different from the first and second group in terms of origin of residency and language. They speak Maithili, Bhojpuri, Awadhi, and Hindi languages as their mother tongue. This group is similar to the fourth group (a&b) in terms of origin of residency and language, but they belong to high caste Hindu and are affluent in social and economic aspects. Thus, the differentiation of the third group from the fourth group (a&b) is somehow based on a social and economic basis.

The fifth and sixth groups are similar in caste hierarchy, but the difference is in terms of origin of residency and language. Hill Dalits speak dominant Nepali language and Madhesi Dalits speak Madhesi language, including Maithili, Bhojpuri, Awadhi, Hindi, etc. The seventh, eighth and ninth groups belong to Adibasi Janajatis and they have their own languages and cultures different from caste principles. The seventh group, Newar, is differentiated from the eighth and ninth groups mainly due to the fact that they are dominant in socio-economic status. Additionally, part of the Newar population follows Hindu and part of them follows Buddhism. Mountain/Hill Janajatis and Tarai Janajatis are different in terms of origin of residency. Marwadi, Panjabi/Sikh and Bangali are different social groups from others and classified into a single group, “other (MPB)”. Muslims are another different social group following Islam religion, which is classified into a separate group.

Table 4.2: Classification of 125 groups into broader social groups, 2011 Census

SN	Social Groups	125 Caste/Ethnic groups
1.	Hill Brahman	Hill Brahman (1)
2.	Hill Chhetree	Chhetree, Thakuri, Sanyasi/Dasnam (3)
3.	Madhesi Brahman/ Chhetree (B/C)	Tarai Brahmin, Kayastha, Rajput (3)
4.	a. Madhesi Other Caste (OC) – A [literacy 50+%]	Amat, Badhaee, Baraee, Dev, Gaderi/Bhedihar, Hajam/Thakur, Haluwai, Kalar, Kalwar, Kamar, Kanu, Kathbaniyan, Koiri/Kushwaha, Kurmi, Lohar, Rajbhar, Rajdhob, Sonar, Sudhi, Teli, Yadav (21)
	b. Madhesi Other Caste (OC) – B [literacy <50%]	Bin, Dhandi, Dhankar/Kharikar, Dhunia, Kahar, Kewat, Kori, Kumhar, Lodh, Mali, Mallaha, Natuwa, Nuniya, Nurang, Sarbaria (15)
5.	Hill Dalit	Badi, Damai/Dholi, Gaine, Kami, Sarki (5)
6.	Madhesi Dalit	Bantar/Sardar, Chamar/Harijan/Ram, Chidimar, Dhobi, Dom, Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi, Halkhor, Khatwe, Musahar, Tatma/Tatwa (10)
7.	Newar	Newar (1)
8.	a. Mountain/Hill (M/H) Janajati–A [literacy 66+%]	Sherpa, Yakkha, Jirel, Kulung, Yamphu, Mewahang Bala, Gharti/Bhujel, Khaling, Darai, Magar, Chhantyal/Chhantel, Aathpariya, Bahing, Rai, Thulung, Gurung, Limbu, Lepcha, Samg pang, Dura, Chamling, Bantaba, Loharung, Thakali (24)
	b. Mountain/Hill (M/H) Janajati–B [literacy <66%]	Bhote, Bote, Brahm/Baram, Byasi/Sauka, Chepang, Danuwar, Dolpo, Ghale, Hayu, Hyolmo, Kumal, Kusunda, Lhomi, Lhopa, Majhi, Nachhiring, Pahari, Raji, Raute, Sunuwar, Tamang, Thami, Topkegola, Walung (24)
9.	Tarai Janajati	Dhanuk, Dhimal, Gangai, Jhangad/Dhagar, Kisan, Koche, Meche, Munda, Pattharkatta/Kushwadiya, Rajbansi, Satar/Santhal, Tajpuriya, Tharu (13)
10.	Musalman	Musalman (1)
11.	Other (MPB)	Marwadi, Punjabi/Sikh, Bangali (MPB) (3)
12.	Other undefined	Dalit others, Janajati others, Tarai others, undefined others (4)
13.	Foreigner	Foreign citizens

Source: Gurung 1998; Acharya and Subba 2008; CBS 2011; Pandey et al. 2013; Gurung et al. 2014

The fourth and eighth groups are reclassified each into two. Madhesi other caste (OC) is reclassified into Madhesi OC–A and Madhesi OC–B. Similarly, Mountain/Hill Janajatis are further divided into A and B groups. This further classification is based on literacy. Madhesi OC includes 36 groups with a wide variation in literacy from the lowest 27.5% (Bin) to the highest 84.5% (Dev). Mountain/Hill Janajatis include 48 groups and the literacy among them varies from the lowest 28.4% (Dolpo) to the highest 80.5% (Thakali). Literacy is a key indicator for socio-economic development. Literacy is closely associated with education,

which is the gateway to economic opportunities. It is also associated with proficiency in the official language used as a medium of instruction for education. This classification is based more on development rather than culture expecting it will be useful for policy making. The classification was made using cluster analysis of literacy with the help of K-means. Madhesi OC-A is clustered with a literacy rate of 50% and above and B with a literacy rate of less than 50% (Table 4.2). For Mountain/Hill Janajatis, cluster A was defined with a literacy rate of 66% and above and B with a literacy rate of less than 66%. In this way, altogether this chapter has adopted 13 broader social groups, excluding “other undefined” and “foreigners”, in analysis.

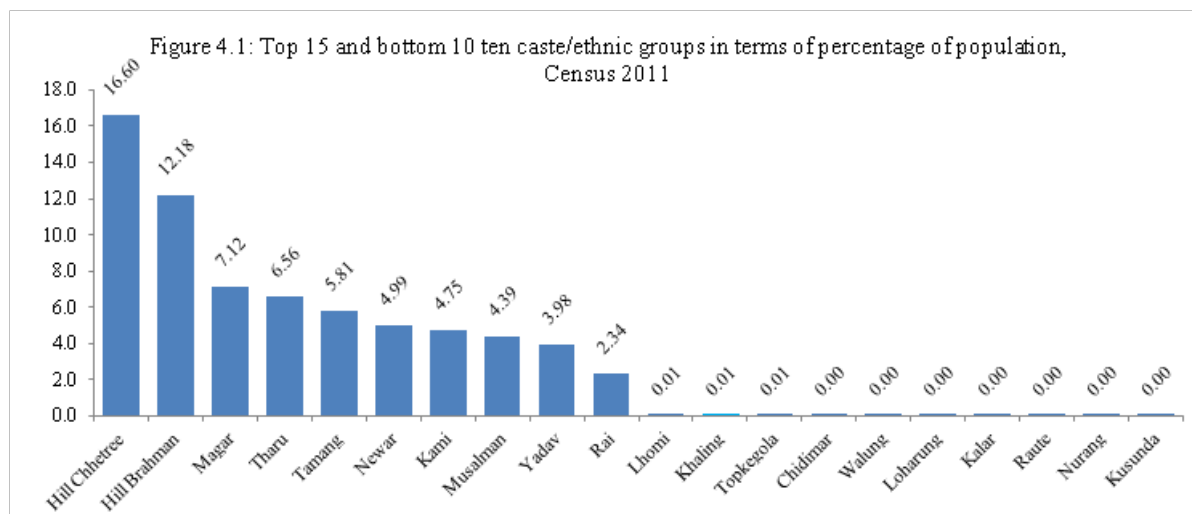
Analysis of demographic and socio-economic characteristics is made based on disaggregation of broader social groups and 125 caste/ethnic groups. A comparison of the top 10 and bottom 10 for each indicator is made to make 125 caste/ethnic groups visible and tables of 125 groups are organised in Annex. Inter-group comparison is made between the top and bottom 10 wherever necessary. These characteristics are presented in terms of demographic, social and economic indicators and the chapter is organised accordingly.

4.2 Demographic aspect of ethnicity in Nepal

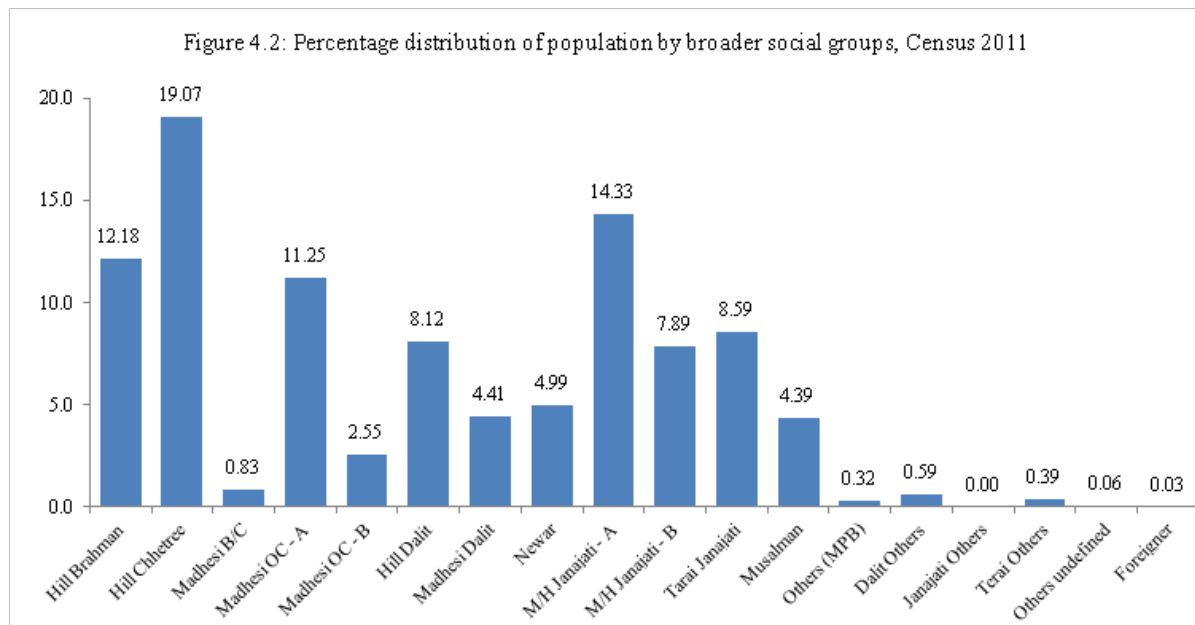
Demographic aspects include the indicators of population size, growth and distribution, age and sex composition, marriage, fertility, and life expectancy at birth derived from the census of 2011. Other mortality indicators are not computed here mainly because they are not representative of some of the social groups of caste/ethnicity due to the fact that some groups have considerably low populations. It attempts to highlight the current demographic situation, except mortality, for different social groups of the Nepali population. It helps understand population structure and its momentum to indicate how and where the population of Nepal is moving towards. It also indicates the future economic development of the country, useful for planners and policy makers.

4.2.1 Size, growth and distribution

The current population of Nepal is 26.5 million, which was 23.1 million in 2001. During the last intercensal period, the population increased by 14.4%. Hill Chhetree alone occupies one per cent less than one-third of the total population with the highest share (19%) (Fig 4.1 and Annex 4.1). The Brahman population is in second position with a share of 12.2%. In addition in the top 10, there are seven other groups such as Magar, Tharu, Tamang, Newar, Kami, Musalman and Yadav that have more than one million populations. Rai is also in the top ten but the population is less than a million (n=620,004; 2.34%). In the bottom ten are Lhomi, Khaling, Topkesola, Chidimar, Walung, Loharung, Kalar, Raute, Nurang, and Kusunda who have less than 1,615 populations. Among them, Raute (618), Nurang (278) and Kusunda (273) have even less than one thousand populations.



There are four groups classified as “others”, such as “Dalit others”, “Janajati others”, “Tarai others” and “undefined others” recorded by the census of 2011. Undefined others are those whose caste/ethnicity was not identified during the enumeration. For three others, they were identified as Dalit or Janajati or Tarai/Madhesi, but they were not identified as a particular caste/ethnicity and even if identified their population was less than 500. The effect of lumping into “others” is that the population of “Dalit others” (155,354) and “Tarai others” (103,811) is significant in number.

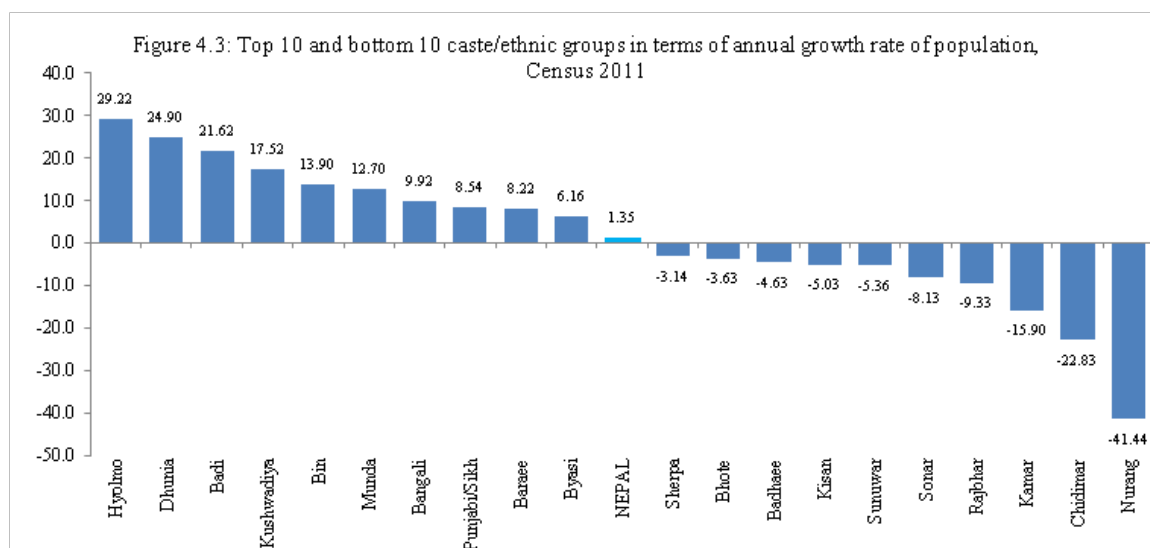


In the case of broader social groups, the percentage of Hill Chhetree group is highest (19.07%), which is followed by M/H Janajati-A (14.33%) and Hill Brahman and Madhesi OC-A (11.25%) (Fig. 4.2). Excluding foreigners, the smallest group is other (MPB) (0.32%) and Madhesi B/C (0.83), both are less than one per cent.

The annual growth rate of the national population is 1.35%. The growth rate of caste/ethnic groups has been calculated for those who are matched in both the 2001 and 2011 censuses. There are 98 caste/ethnic groups matched in two censuses, excluding four “other groups” (Annex 4.2). From the 98 groups, there are 62 caste/ethnic groups who have the same growth rate of the national level and above (1.35 per cent & above). As shown in Fig. 4.3, growth rate is unusually high among these top ten. Hyolmo has the highest growth rate (29.22%), which is followed by Dhuniya (24.9%) Badi (21.62%), Kuswadiya (17.52%), Bin (13.9%), and Munda (12.7%) from among those with more than 10%. The main reason for much of this growth rate is the “identification” issue. The example of Hyolmo may be appropriate for this reason (*see* Gurung, 2010^b). The main place of residence of Hyolmo is Sindhupalchowk district, but there is no population of Hyolmo in the 2001 census. The reason is that they reported themselves as “Lama” and that was coded as “Tamang”. The same condition was observed in Kathmandu too. Furthermore, there were numerous Hyolmos in Pokhara but most of them were reported as “Gurung” in the 2001 census. They have been reported as Hyolmo in the 2011 census, so their population has increased tremendously. For Badi, they must have reported their “sub-caste” and not their “caste” due to fear of discrimination based on untouchability in 2001. However, a revival of identity of population groups has tremendously increased in the context of “identity politics” during the last decade. So, they may have reported

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their original identity in the census of 2011 but not reported it in the census of 2001. This may apply to other groups as well who have considerably high growth rates.



There are 36 caste/ethnic groups who have growth rates of less than the national average and 18 groups who have minus growth rates (Table 4.3). Sonar, Sherpa, Sunuwar and Gurung are major groups who have a deficit population of more than 20,000 during the last intercensal period. The deficit is highest among Sonar (80,753), followed by Sherpa (41,676), Sunuwar (39,542) and Gurung (20,930). Three reasons may be pertinent for population deficit: first, the volume of absentee population may be high; second, the re-identification of caste/ethnicity; and third, a mismatch in coding of caste/ethnicity.

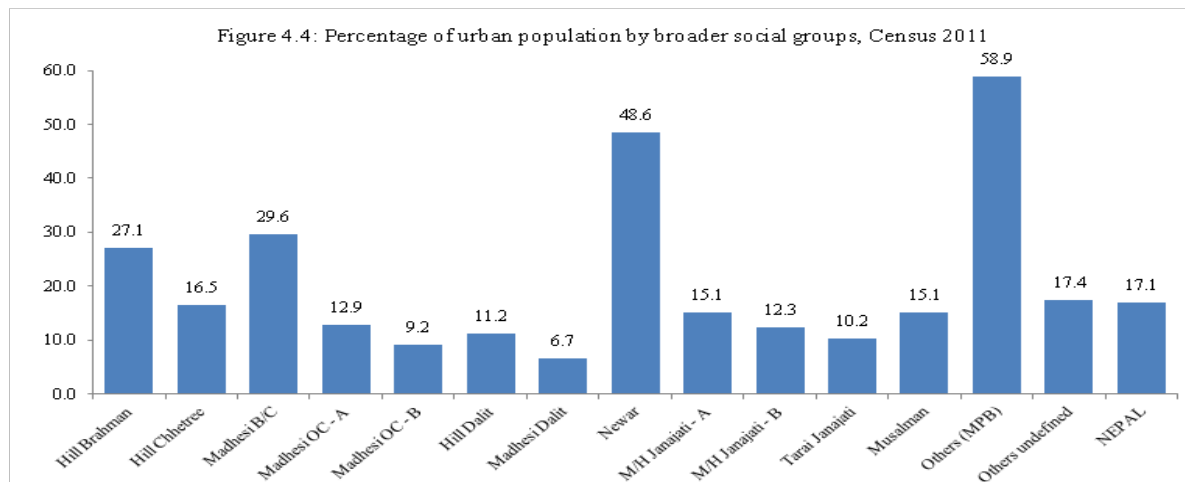
Table 4.3: Caste/ethnic groups with population deficit and minus growth rate, 2011 Census

S.No.	Ethnicity	Population 2011	Population 2001	Deficit population	Exponential growth rate
1	Sonar	64,335	145,088	80,753	-8.13
2	Sherpa	112,946	154,622	41,676	-3.14
3	Sunuwar	55,712	95,254	39,542	-5.36
4	Gurung	522,641	543,571	20,930	-0.39
5	Nurang	278	17,522	17,244	-41.44
6	Badhaee	28,932	45,975	17,043	-4.63
7	Rai	620,004	635,151	15,147	-0.24
8	Rajbhar	9,542	24,263	14,721	-9.33
9	Chidimar	1,254	12,296	11,042	-22.83
10	Kamar	1,787	8,761	6,974	-15.90
11	Rajput	41,972	48,454	6,482	-1.44
12	Bhote	13,397	19,261	5,864	-3.63
13	Jhangadl/Uraon	37,424	41,764	4,340	-1.10
14	Kayastha	44,304	46,071	1,767	-0.39
15	Kisan	1,739	2,876	1,137	-5.03
16	Madhasi Brahman	134,106	134,496	390	-0.03
17	Lepcha	3,445	3,660	215	-0.61
18	Raute	618	658	40	-0.63

Source: CBS (2012), Table 20, pp. 144-147; CBS (2002), Table 16, pp. 72-73.

For example, Gurung, Sunuwar, and Rai are related to the British Gurkha Army and they have a higher tendency to migrate outside the country, particularly to Hong Kong⁸ and the United Kingdom⁹. The absentee population among Gurung is 14.5% (75,909) (see Fig 4.23), which is more than the deficit. Migration to India, Arabian countries, Malaysia, and Korea for contractual work is common for all groups of people. USA, Europe, and Australia are common destinations for some high-income groups. The reason for the population deficit amongst Gurung is also due to the fact that there are some groups who were reported as Gurung in 2001, but in 2011 they were identified as Barhagaule (Mustang), Manange (Manang), Ghale, and Hyolmo in Kaski and Lamjung (see Gurung, 2013). Ghale is a new entry in 2011 that accounted for 22,881, which is also more than the deficit of Gurung. The fact is that Ghale has been separated not only from Gurung but also from Tamang in Dhading, Nuwakot and Rasuwa. Similarly, a number of new groups are introduced in the 2011 census such as Chamling, Lohorung, Kulung, Yamphu, Mewahang Bala, Khaling, Aathpariya, Bahing, Thulung, Samgpang, Bantaba, etc. who used to be reported as Rai in the previous censuses. The population deficit for Gurung and Rai is due to re-identification in ethnicity. The deficit in Sonar population is an example of a mismatch in coding¹⁰. There are a number of groups who designate themselves as “Lama”. They mainly include Sherpa, Bhote, Tamang, Walung, Topkegola, Hyolmo, and Lhomi among 125 groups and the “Lama” are usually coded as “Tamang”. This may be the case for Sherpa and Bhote.

The type of place of residence in terms of percentage of urban population by caste/ethnic groups is discussed regarding spatial distribution. The percentage of urban population itself indicates the percentage of rural population. The census of 2011 recorded an urban population of 17.1% at the national level. Among the broader social groups, Marwadi/Panjabi/Sikh/Bangali group has the highest percentage of urban population (58.9%), followed by foreigner (54.2%) and Newar (48.6%) (Fig. 4.4). This is natural because they are urban-based groups. Besides, a significant percentage of population among Madhesi B/C (29.6%) and Hill Brahman (27.1%) reside in urban areas. Except “others undefined”, the percentage of urban population is less than the national average for all other groups. Among them, Madhesi Dalit (6.7%) and Madhesi OC-B (9.2%) are the groups who have less than 10% of urban population. Conversely, they have the highest percentage living in rural areas.



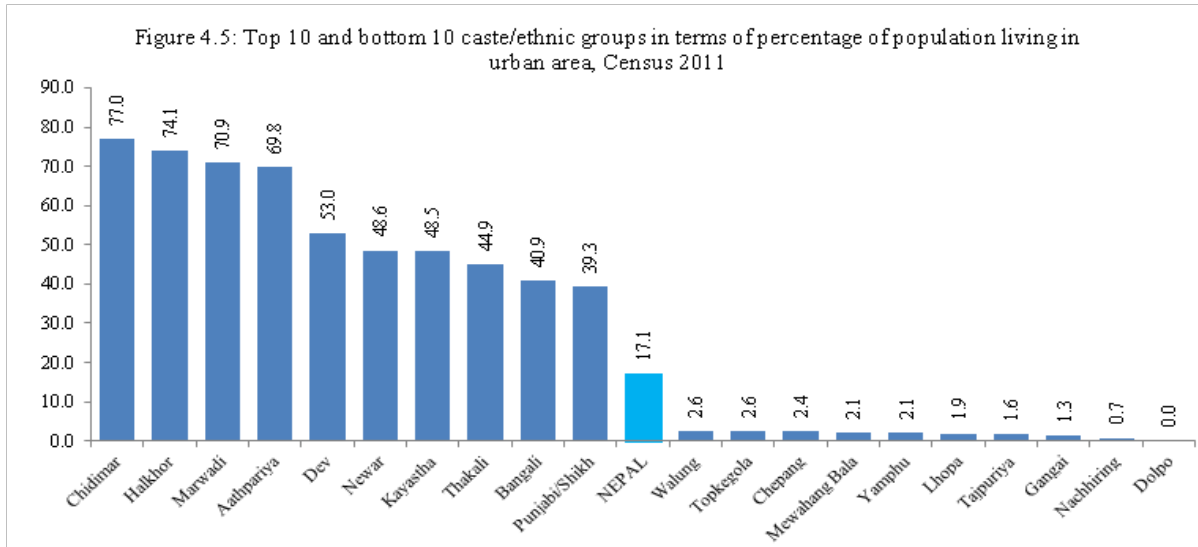
For individual caste/ethnic groups, Chidimar (77%), Halkhor (74.1%), Marwadi (70.9%), and Athapariya (69.8%) have more than two-thirds of their population living in urban areas (Fig 4.5). Most of the Chidimar reside at Nepalgunj (Banke) and Gulariya (Bardiya) and Aathpariya reside at Dhankuta. Halkhors rely on their urban-based traditional occupations like *sweepers* and *dirt cleaners*. Among those who are in the bottom ten for

8 Children of Ex-British Gurkhas who were born before 1983 in Hong Kong were allowed to settle in Hong Kong after the handover to China in 1997.

9 UK government decided in 2004 to allow Ex-British-Gurkhas to settle and work in the UK.

10 Nepal Social Inclusion Survey (NSIS) 2012 covered 98 caste/ethnic groups as separate domain in the sample. The Sampling frame was based on the 2001 census. During the field survey, it was realized that “Sunar (Kami)” populations were reported as “Sonar” in some sample areas. This survey also did not find “Nurang” in the place where the census of 2001 recorded.

percentage of urban population, Dolpo has almost none living in urban areas, only 2 persons were recorded in the census of 2011. All of the bottom ten are from Janajati group, eight are M/H Janajatis and two (Tajpuriya and Gangai) are Tarai Janajatis. Of the total 125, 36 groups are above and 89 groups are below the national average (17.1%) in terms of percentage of population living in urban areas (Annex 4.3). Lhopa, Tajpuriya, Gangai, Nachhiring and Dolpo have less than 2% of urban population, indicating that they are “rural people”.



4.2.2 Household size and age/sex composition

Household size

The average household size recorded by the census of 2011 is 4.9. Household size is decreasing these days. It was 5.6 in 1991 and 5.4 in the 2001 census (Kayastha and Shrestha, 2003:197). Among the broader social groups, Musalman has the highest household size (6.5), followed by Madhesi other caste (6 and 5.9) (Fig 4.6). The lowest household size is found among Hill Brahman (4.2). In addition to Hill Brahman and Chhetree, Mountain/Hill Janajati groups, including Newar, are below the national average in terms of household size.

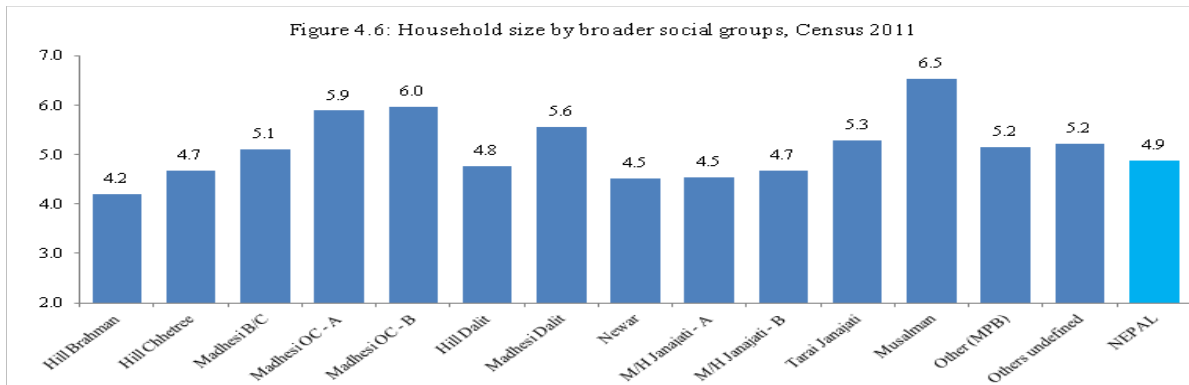
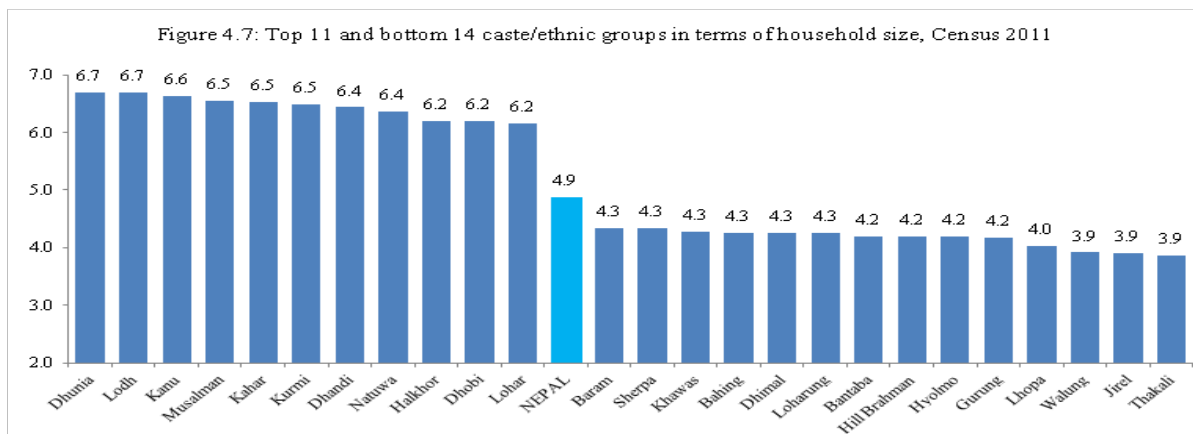


Fig 4.7 shows the top 11 and bottom 14 caste/ethnic groups in terms of average household size. The largest household size is observed among Dhunia and Lodh (6.7 each), followed by Kanu, Musalman, Kahar and Kami (6.5 each). At the bottom, Thakali, Jirel and Walung, all belonging to Mountain/Hill

Janajatis, have the smallest household size (3.9 each) with less than 4 members in a household.

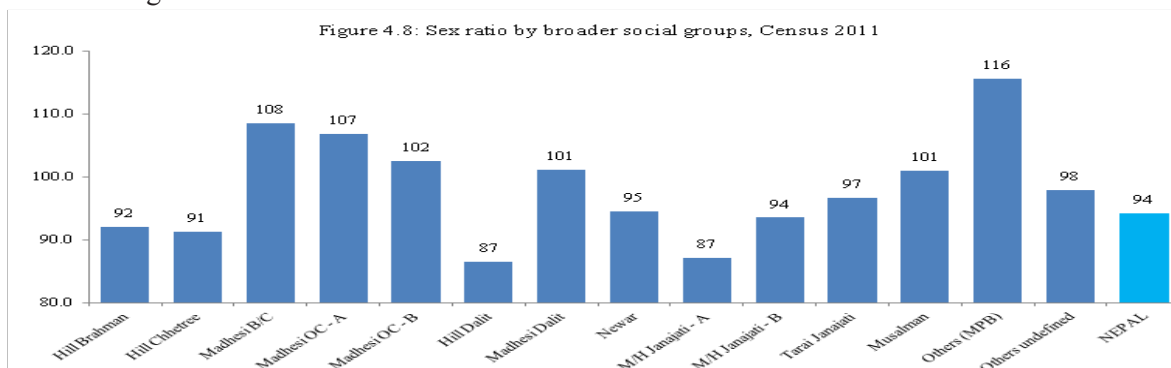


It is interesting to note that among the 125, 59 caste/ethnic groups are above and 59 groups are below the national average of household size (Annex 4.4). There are seven groups who have a household size of the national average (4.9). In a household, members are 1.8 more for those who are above the national average and 1 member less for those who are below the national average.

Sex composition

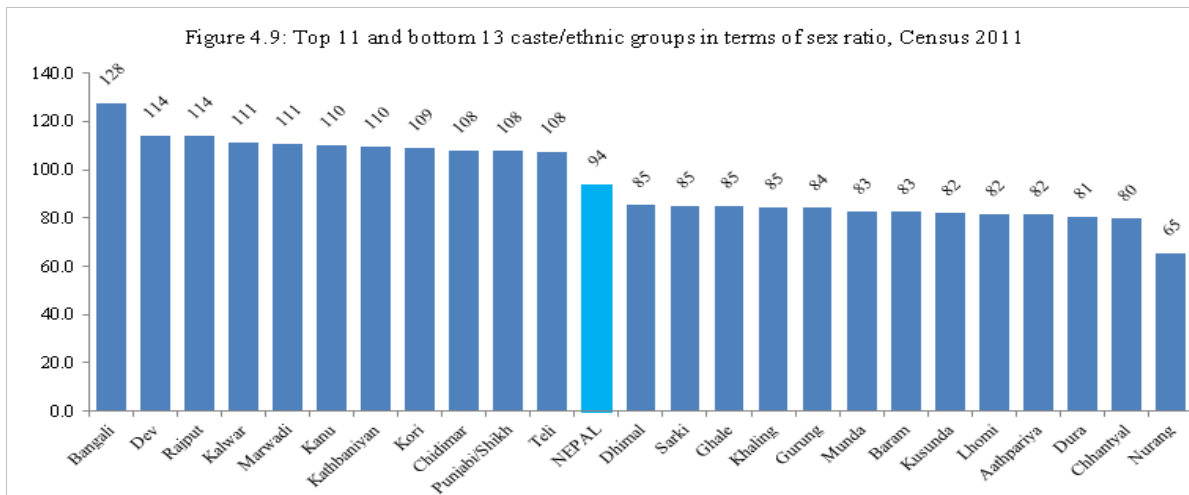
Sex composition is measured in terms of sex ratio, number of males per 100 females. Sex ratio in the 1981 census was 105, which is equivalent to theoretical sex ratio at birth and it began to decrease from 1991. It was 99.5 in 1991 and 99.8 in 2001 (Pantha and Sharma, 2003:59), and came down to 94 in 2011. This level of sex ratio indicates the deficit of the male population. The reason is mainly able-bodied male migration to Gulf countries, Malaysia, and South Korea for employment.

The deficit of male population is considerable among Hill Dalits and Mountain/Hill Janajatis-A (87 each) (Fig 4.8). Hill Chhetree and Brahman and Mountain/Hill Janajatis-B also have a male deficit more than the national average. However, Marwadi, Panjabi and Bangali groups have the highest sex ratio (116 males per 100 females). Madhesi groups including Madhesi B/C, Madhesi OC, Madhesi Dalits and Musalman also have sex ratio more than 100, meaning that males are either equal to or more than females. This indicates MPB and Madhesi groups, except Tarai Janajatis, have less prevalence of male out-migration.



Looking at individual groups, Bangali has the highest sex ratio (128), due to which sex ratio was scaled up among MPB group. The top 11 and bottom 13 groups in terms of sex ratio are shown in Fig 4.9. The top 11 groups have considerably higher sex ratios, above 105. The bottom 13 groups have consider-

ably lower sex ratios that are below the national average. The sex ratio of Nurang is only 65, which is the lowest among the 125 groups (Annex 4.5). Moreover, there are 6 groups, namely Kulung, Thami, Kalar, Jhangad/Uraon, Tamang and Tajpuriya, which have the sex ratio of the national average. The other 70 groups have a sex ration above the national average and 49 groups have a sex ration below the national average. More pertinently, there are 53 caste/ethnic groups who have males equal to or more than females, whereas 73 groups have less males than females.



Age composition

Simple arithmetic mean is used to compute the mean age of population. The mean age of 26.3 indicates Nepal’s population is young and energetic (Fig 4.10). There is no difference in the mean age between males and females (Annex 4.6). It has increased from the census of 2001 (median age = 20). The mean age of the population among Newar (30.6), Hill Brahman (29.1), MPB (28.3) and Madhesi B/C (28.3) is slightly higher than that of other groups and the national population. The lowest mean age is found among Musalman (22.6). It is also lower among Madhesi O/C, Hill/Madhesi Dalits and other undefined groups.

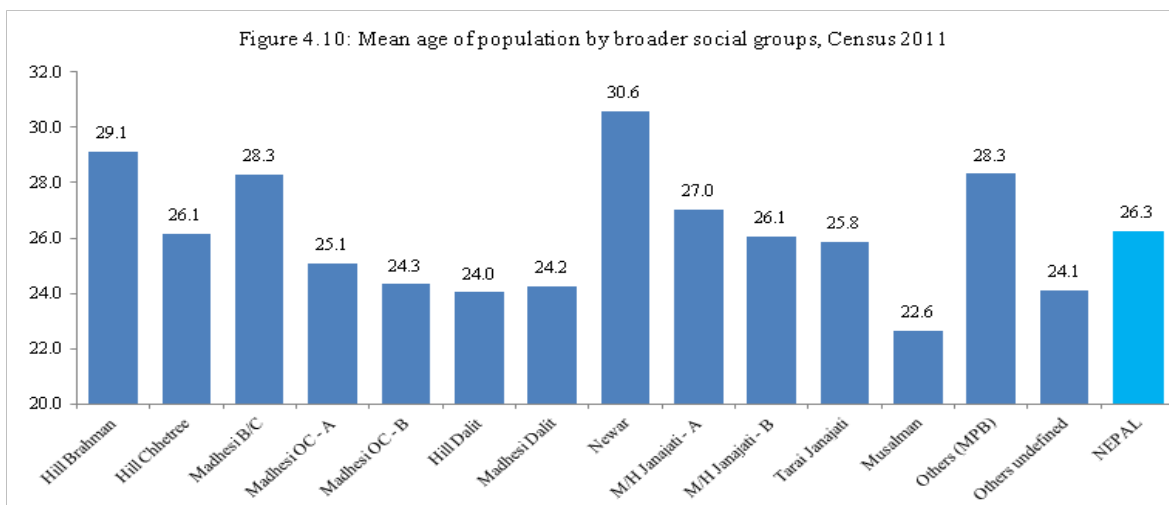
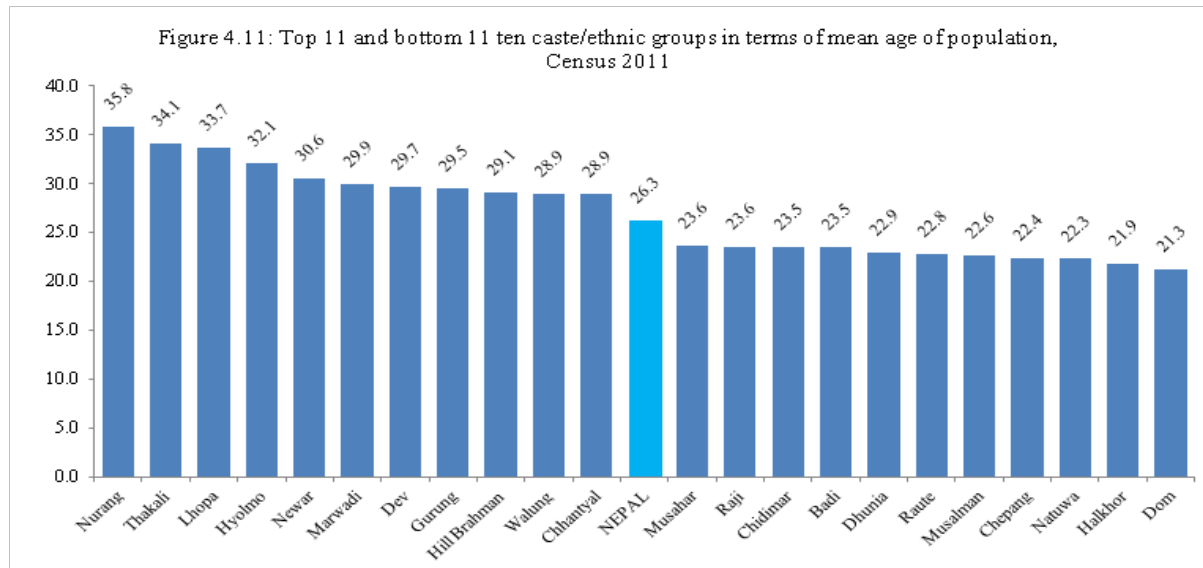


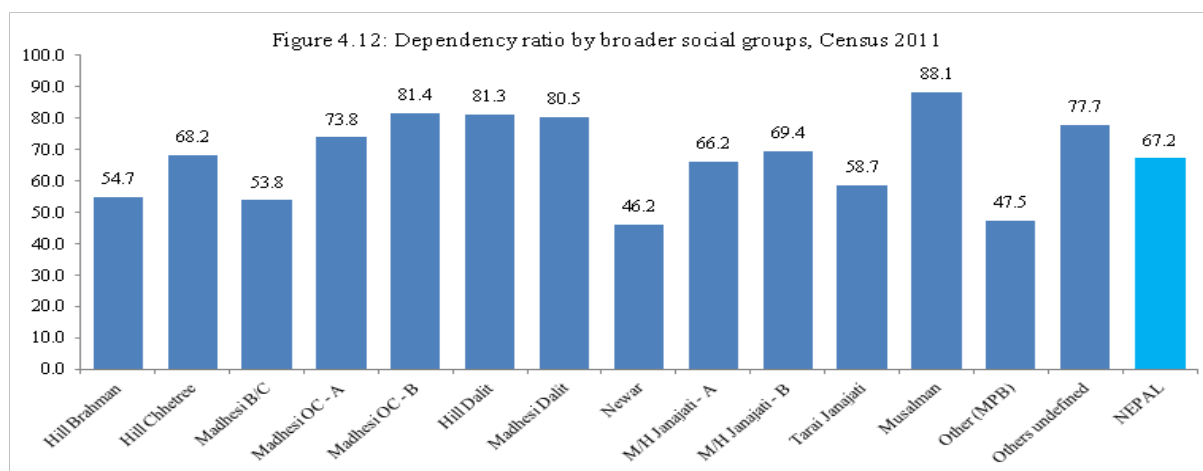
Figure 4.11 shows the top 11 and bottom 11 groups in terms of mean age in comparison with the national average. Among individual groups, Nurang has the highest mean age of population (35.8). This is

followed by Thakali (34.1), Lhopa (33.7) and Hyolmo (32.1) and Newar (30.6), all Janajati groups. The lowest mean age of population is among Dom (21.3) followed by Halkhor (21.9). Among 125 groups, 49 groups have a mean age equal to or higher than the national average and 76 groups have a mean age lower than the national average (26.3) (Annex 4.6).

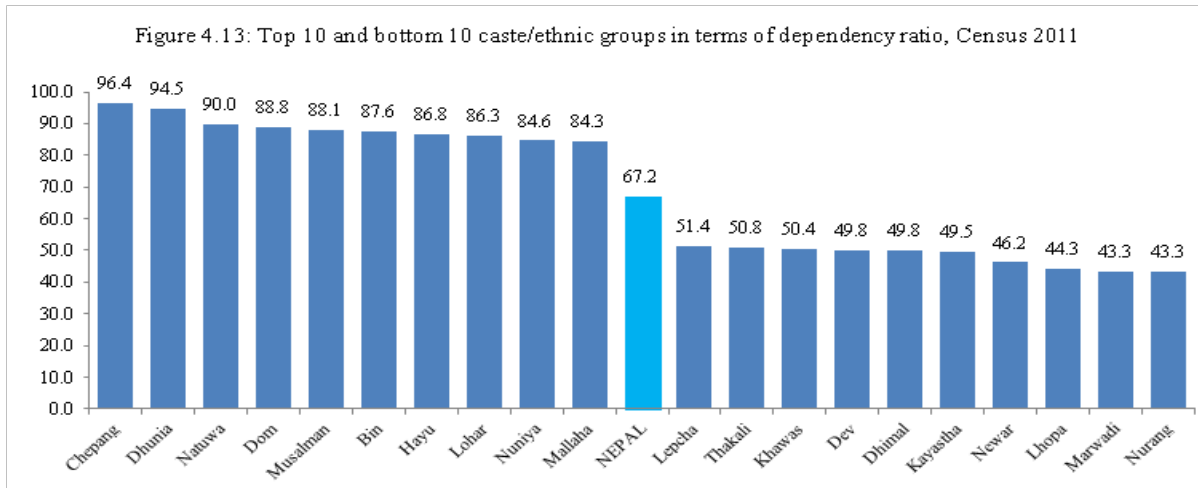


Dependency ratio

Dependency ratio is another measure of age structure. It also helps to understand the population's potential for economic development. It is the ratio of the population aged 0-14 and 65 years and above to the population aged 15-64 years. The dependency ratio for Nepal is 67.2% (Fig 4.12). The dependency ratio is 72.8% for males and 62.2% for females, with a difference of more than 10 percentage points (Annex 4.7). It is highest among Musalman (88.1%), followed by Madhesi OC-B (81.4%), Hill Dalit (81.3%) and Madhesi Dalit (80.5%). This indicates that the proportion of the working age population among them is considerably lower. On the other hand, the dependency ratio is lowest among Newar (46.2%) and MPB (47.5%). This means that the working population they have is more than half of their total population.



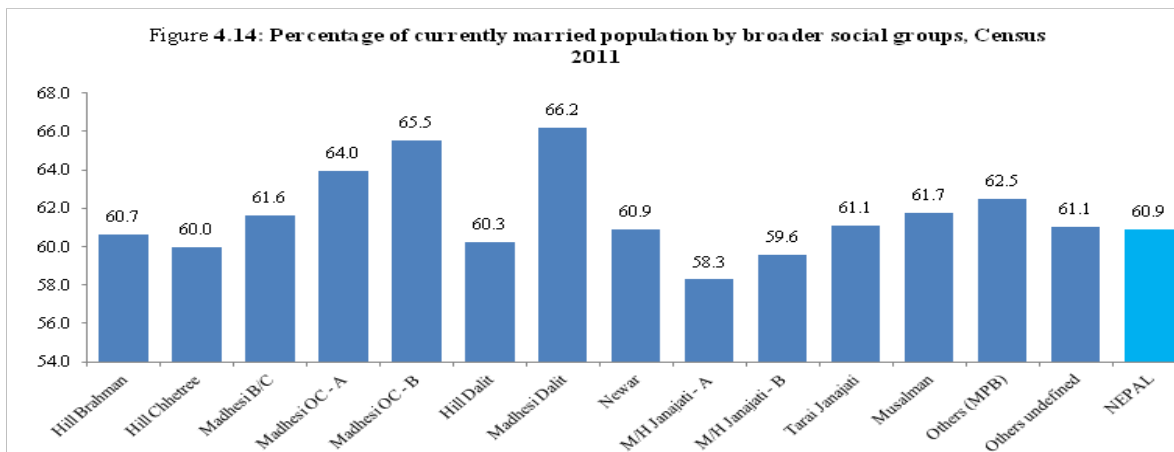
Dependency ratio is highest among Chepang (96.4%), followed by Dhunia (94.5%) and Natuwa (90%) (Fig 4.13, Annex 4.7). These groups have a small proportion of population of working age. The dependency ratio is lowest among Nurang and Marwadi (43.3% each) who have more than half of their population of working age. There are 79 caste/ethnic groups who have a dependency ratio above the national average and 46 groups who have a dependency ratio of less than the national average.



4.2.3 Marriage

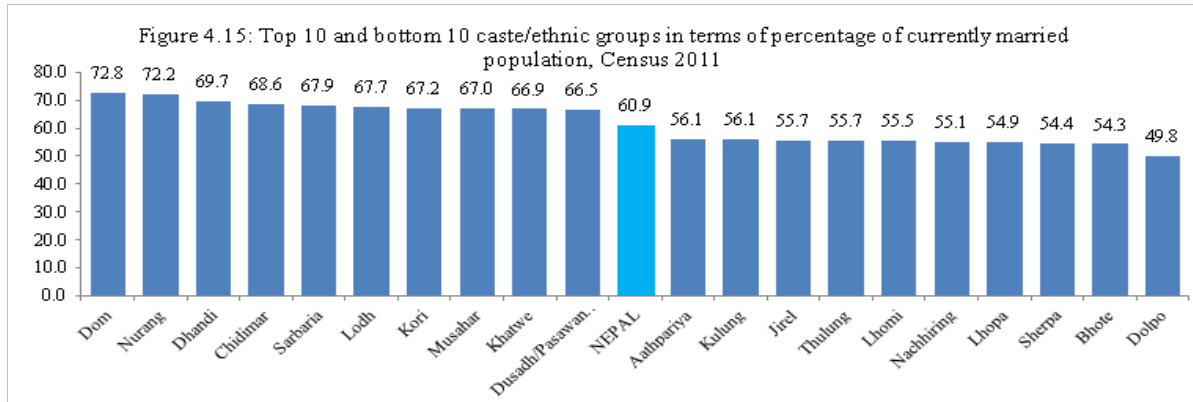
Marital status

Marital status is measured in terms of percentage of currently married population aged 10 years and above¹¹. The census of 2011 recorded that nearly 61% of the total population aged 10 years and above are currently married (Fig 4.14). The currently married population is much higher among Madhesi Dalit (66.2%) and Madhesi OC-B (65.5%) and Madhesi OC-A (64%), whereas it is much lower among M/H Janajati-A and B (58.3 & 59.6%) compared to the national average. Hill Brahman, Chhetree and Dalits, Madhesi B/C, Tarai Janajati, and Musalman are around the national average in terms of currently married population.



¹¹ Currently married includes single married, multiple married and remarried population aged 10 years and above (excluding divorced, separated, widowed).

Figure 4.15 displays the top 10 and bottom 10 of caste/ethnic groups in terms of currently married population. Dom has the highest percentage of currently married members (72.8%), followed by Nurang (72.2%) and Dhandi (69.7%). Dolpo has the lowest percentage of currently married population (49.8%). Dolpo is the only group, which has only half of their members currently married. All the top ten are from Madhesi groups and the entire bottom ten are from Mountain/Hill Janajatis.



Out of the 125, Sanyasi, Tharu, Thami, and Newar groups have a percentage of currently married members that is equal to the national average (60.9%) (Annex 4.8). Fifty-seven groups are above and 64 groups are below the national average in terms of currently married population.

Age at first marriage

The legal age at marriage in Nepal is 18 for both men and woman. The census of 2011 recorded that the mean age at marriage of the total population is 18.9 (Annex 4.9), 20.7 for males and 17.5 for females (Fig 4.16). The gender gap is three years in age at marriage. Age at marriage for males is well above the legal age but females get married before reaching the legal age. The mean age at first marriage is considerably higher among Newar (21.1), 23 for males and 19.4 for females, and MPB group (20.6), 22.8 for males and 18.5 for females. Both males and females of these groups get married at a higher age than the legal age of marriage.

The observed mean age at marriage is relatively lower among Madhesi other caste groups, Madhesi Dalit, and Musalman. There are four groups namely Newar, M/H Janajatis-A, M/H Janajatis-B, and MPB who have both males and females getting married after the legal age of marriage. For all other groups, females get married before reaching the legal age.

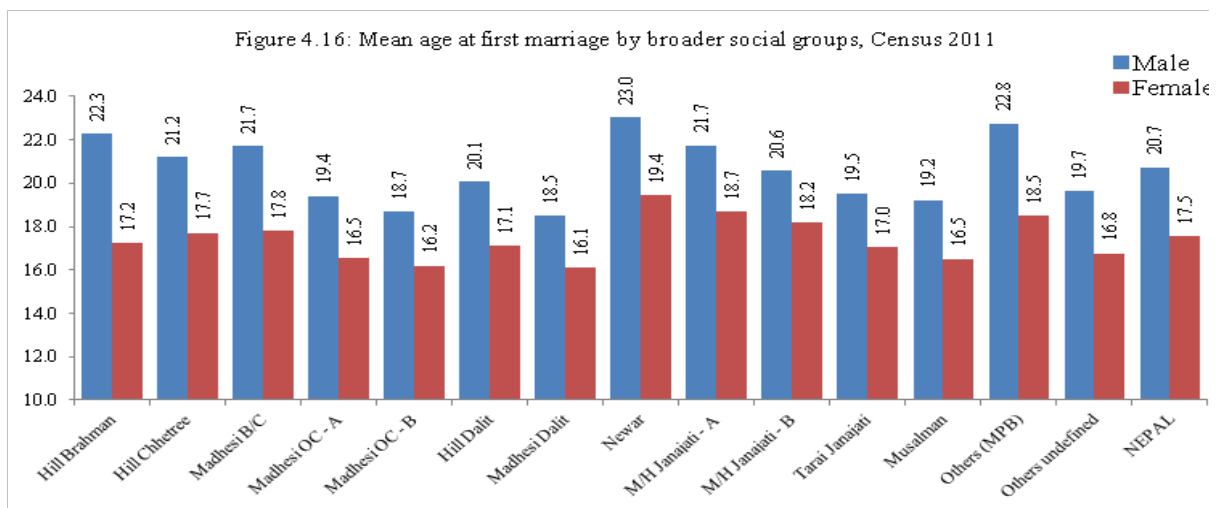
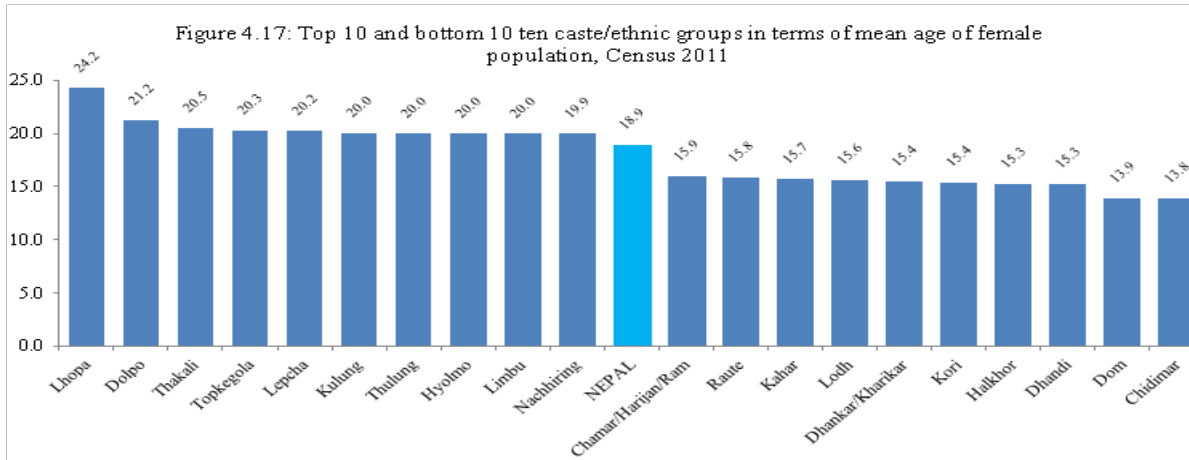
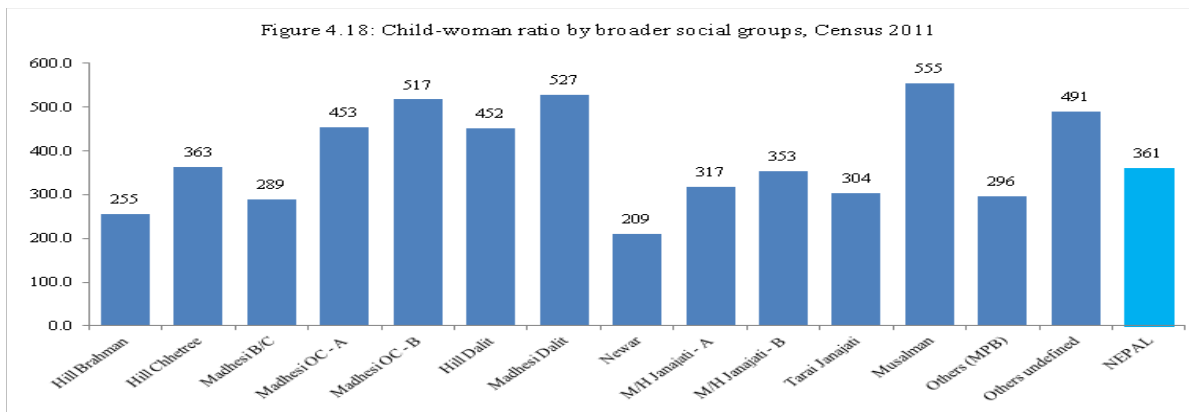


Fig 4.17 displays age at first marriage for females (see Annex 4.9 for both sexes). It is important to note that female age at marriage in Nepal indicates that child marriage, particularly for girls, is prevalent in Nepal. Findings show that the entire top ten are M/H Janajati women who get married at ages above the legal age of marriage. Among them, Lhopa (Mountain Janajati) has the highest mean age at first marriage (24.2). Lhopa women get married at 6 years later than the legal age at marriage¹². All the bottom ten are Madhesi groups, among which, Chidimar (13.8) and Dom (13.9) have the lowest mean age at first marriage, less than 15 years, indicating they still have a prevalence of girl child marriage. In other words, their daughters get married more than 3 years before reaching the legal age at marriage. In total, out of 125, only 47 groups are within the legal age at marriage, whereas the remaining 78 groups are still favouring early marriage (Annex 4.9).



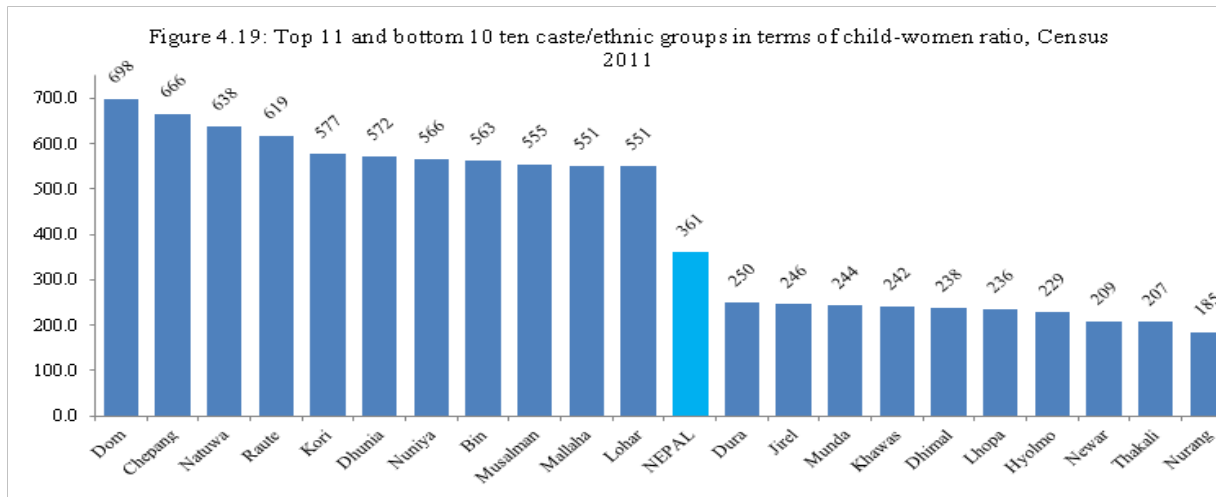
4.2.4 Fertility

Fertility of various social groups is measured in terms of child-woman ratio and total fertility rate (TFR). Child-woman ratio can be readily computed from the census even when reliable birth statistics are not available. The child-woman ratio is the number of surviving births from the five years prior to the census enumeration date per 1,000 women of reproductive age, regardless of marital status, alive at the reference date. The child-woman ratio is computed as the number of children aged 0-4 years per 1,000 women aged 15-49 years irrespective of their marital status in a given time frame. As shown in Fig 4.18, the national aggregate of child-woman ratio is 361, which indicates Nepal has 361 children per 1,000 women. The ratio is considerably high among Musalman (555) followed by Madhesi Dalit (527) and Madhesi OC-B (517). It is lowest among Newar (209) and then Hill Brahman (255). Madhesi B/C, MPB, Tarai Janajati, and M/H Janajatis also have lower child-woman ratio compared to the national average.

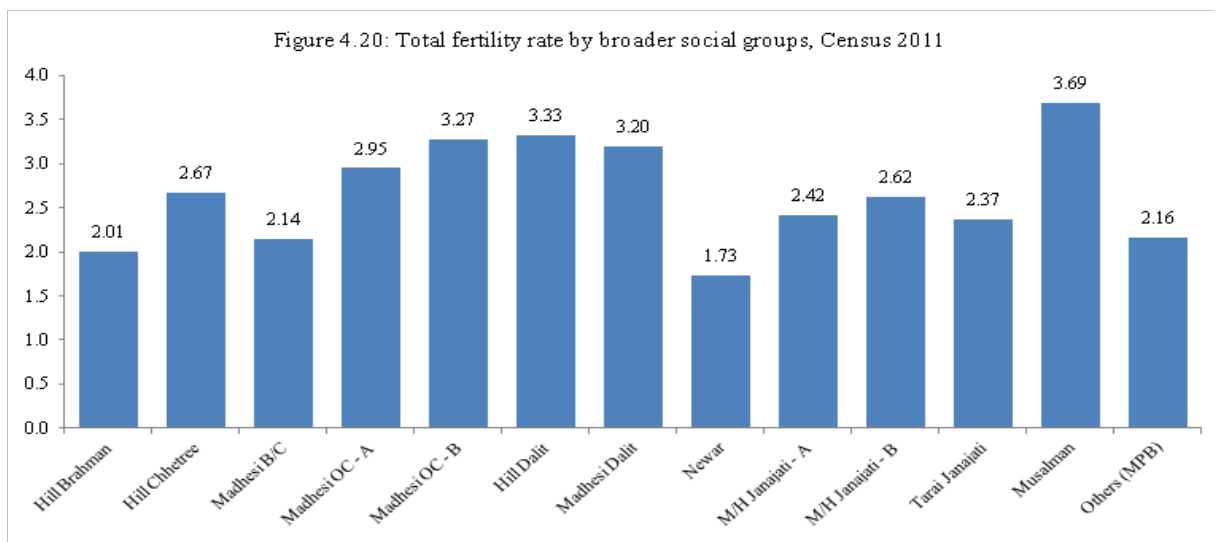


¹² Marriage before 15 is child marriage.

For the individual groups, Fig 4.19 shows the top 11 and bottom 10 groups in terms of child-woman ratio from the 2011 census. Most of the top eleven are from Madhesi groups, except Chepang and Raute. The highest child-woman ratio is found among Dom (698), Chepang (666) and Natuwa (638). They have more than 600, which is well above the national average of child-woman ratio. The entire bottoms ten are from M/H Janajatis. Among which, the lowest child-woman ratio is observed for Nurang (185) followed by Thakali (207) and Newar (209). Seventy-three groups have higher child-woman ratios than the national average and 52 groups have a lower child-woman ration.



Total fertility rate (TFR) is computed using an indirect technique through Mortpak (4.0) (UN, 2003)¹³. TFR may not be representative for some small social groups such as Madhesi B/C, Newar, and Others (Marwadi, Panjabi and Bangali) who have relatively low populations with fertility events. However, the estimation seems reasonable, that is around the national level TFR of 2.6 in 2011, estimated by NDHS 2011 (MOHP, 2012: 76)¹⁴. A variation in TFR between different groups is also found to be an acceptable range to show a clear picture of inter-group comparison according to social groups (Fig 4.20).



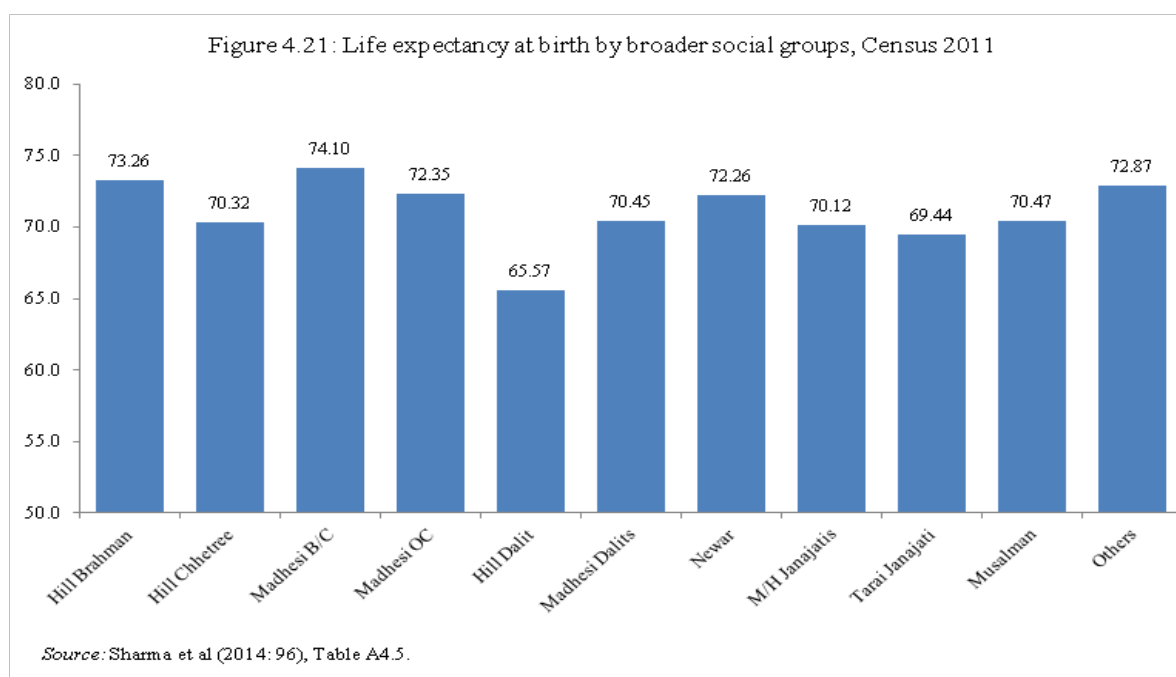
13 United Nations Population Division, Mortpak (version 4.0).

14 Nepal Demographic and Health Survey 2011.

The decline in fertility is presently considerable in Nepal. The NDHS 2011 shows that the TFR in urban Nepal is below the replacement level (1.6). The census of 2011 also found a similar pattern among two socio-economically affluent groups that have a replacement level of fertility (Fig 4.20). They are Hill Brahman (2.0) and Newar (1.7). Two other groups, Madhesi B/C and others (Marwadi, Panjabi and Bangali), are almost at replacement level (2.1). However, Musalman, Madhesi OC-B, and Hill/Madhesi Dalits still have more than 3 children per woman. Among them, Musalman has the highest TFR (3.69), followed by Hill Dalit (3.33), Madhesi OC-B (3.27) and Madhesi Dalit (3.20). The remaining groups such as Hill Chhetree, Madhesi OC-A and Hill/Tarai Janajatis are at the middle of the range of fertility in Nepal.

4.2.5 Mortality

One of the measures of mortality is a life table. A life table measures the level of mortality of a given population. It is the lifetime mortality experience of a single cohort of newborn babies who are subject to current age-specific mortality rates (Shryock et al., 1976:251). In addition to mortality, it is also a summary measure of the overall health status of the population. Life expectancy is the length of life of a population computed through the life table. Life expectancy at birth is the average number of years that a newborn baby could expect to survive assuming that observed age-specific mortality rates are experienced for a given period.



Sharma et al (2014) has computed life expectancy at birth by broader social groups of population through constructing life tables using direct methods based on census 2011 age-specific death rates. The census data on death is usually under-reported that results in an over-estimation of the expectation of life. The degree of accuracy in estimation may also be low for some groups because the population is relatively smaller and the smaller population may have a lower number of reported deaths. With these limitations, the estimated life expectancy at birth is not to measure its level but for the purpose of comparison between different groups of population like caste and ethnicity, as the estimation is made

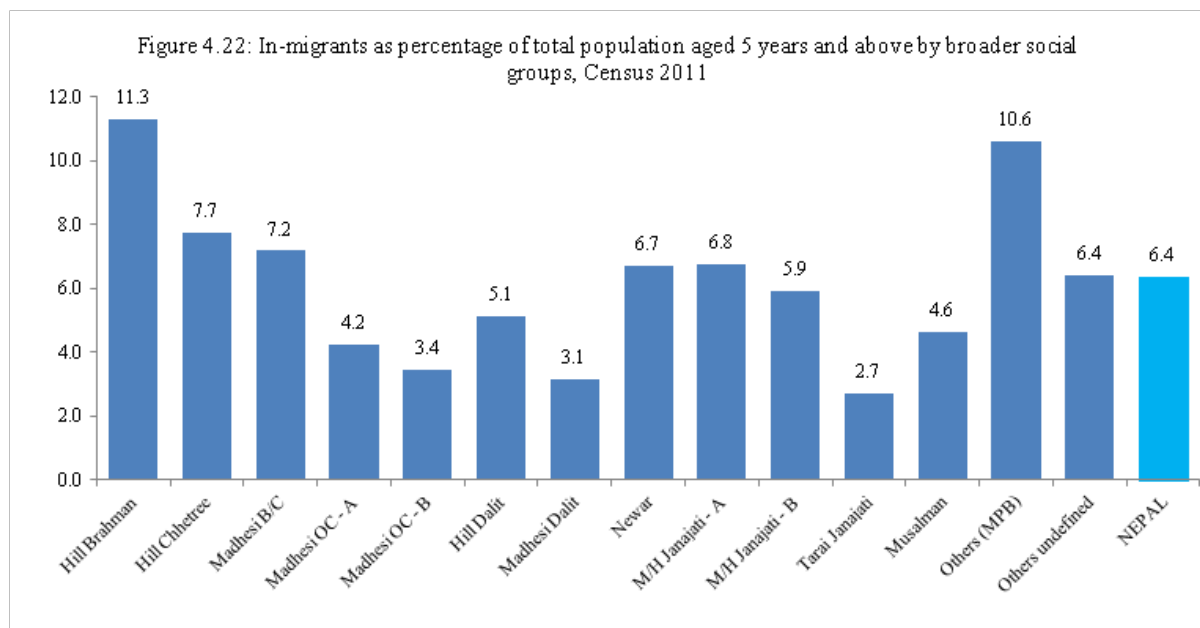
based on the same method for all groups. Results show that variation in life expectancy at birth between most of the social groups is not distinct (Fig 4.21). However, Hill Dalit has the lowest life expectancy at birth (65.57), which indicates that they have high mortality. It is followed by Tarai Janajati (69.44). It is highest among Madhesi Brahman/Chhetree (74.10) followed by Hill Brahman (73.26). Madhesi OC (72.35), Newar (72.26) and others (72.87) have almost the same value of life expectancy at birth.

4.2.6 Migration

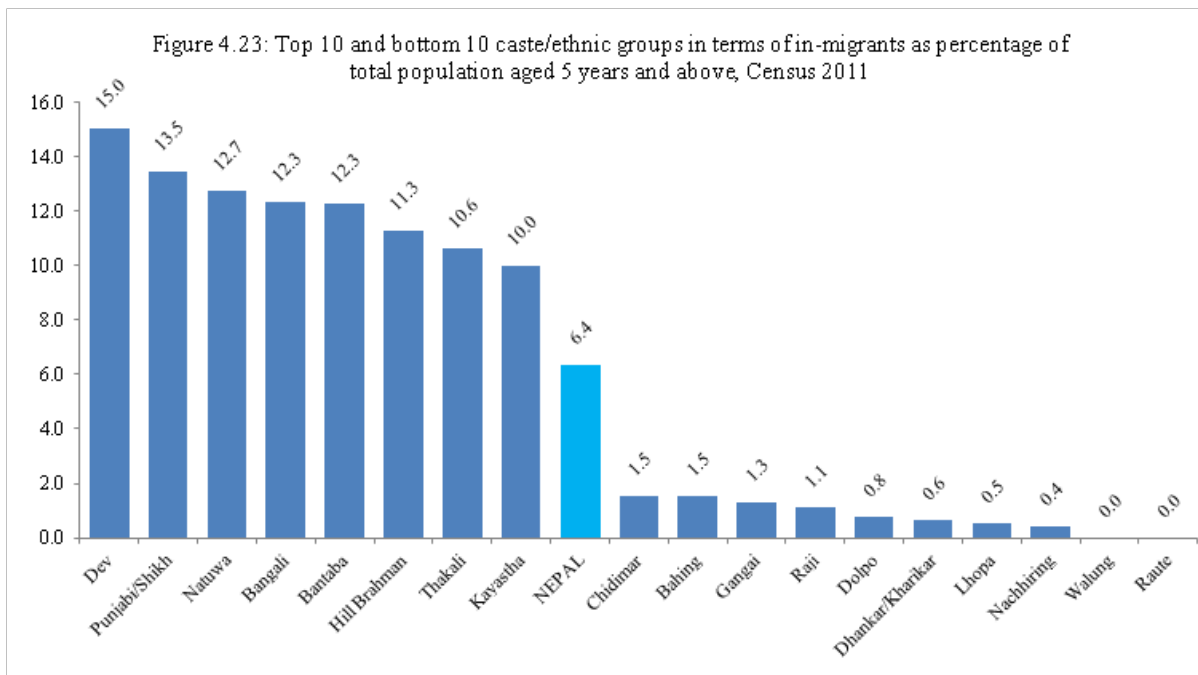
Mobility and migration is measured in this chapter in terms of two indicators. First, current in-migration based on information, and place of residence five years prior to the date of enumeration. Populations aged 5 years and above are “in-migrants” if the current district of enumeration is different from the district (or country) of residence before five years. Another indicator is “absentee population”, which is defined as household members who are absent from households at the time of enumeration for six or more months.

Current in-migration

As discussed above defined territorial boundaries for in-migration are districts. In other words, migrants are those whose place of residence five years ago was in a district other than the enumeration district. Residence five years ago may also include foreign countries, including India. The indicator of in-migration is measured here as “in-migrants as the percentage of the total population aged 5 years and above irrespective of place of origin”. The national average of in-migration is 6.4% (Fig 4.22). It is highest among Hill Brahman (11.3%), followed by Marwadi/Panjabi/Bangali group (10.6%). The lowest in-migration is observed among Tarai Janajati (2.7%), Madhesi Dalit (3.1%) and Madhesi OC-B (3.4%). The results indicate that mobility is relatively higher among Hill Brahman and MPB groups and relatively low among Tarai Janajati, Madhesi Dalit and Madhesi OC.

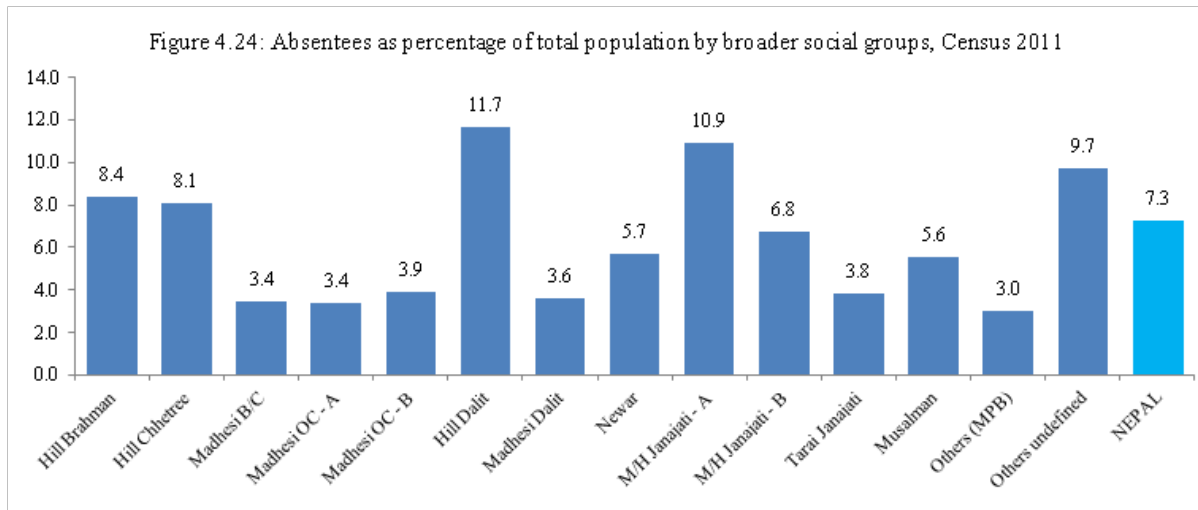


Looking at individual groups, the top ten have 10 % and above of in-migrants, whereas the bottom ten have less than 1% (Fig 4.23). Among them, Dev is found to be a highly mobile group with the highest percentage of in-migrants (15%). In contrast, Walung and Raute have no in-migrants. Of the total 125, only 29 groups have in-migrants equal to or higher than the national average, whereas 96 groups have in-migrants less than the national average (Annex 4.11).

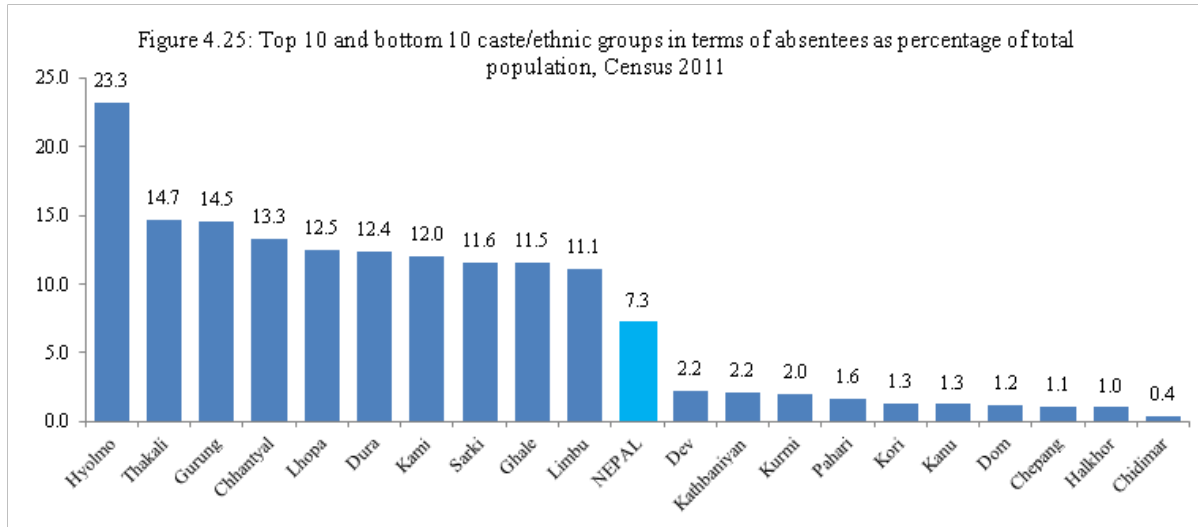


Out-migration

Absentee populations are normally out-migrants. They include both internal and international migration meaning that the destination may be both within and outside the country. It largely includes migration for work, to India, Gulf countries, Malaysia and South Korea. It is measured as out-migrants as a percentage of the total population. Data show that the national average of out-migrants in terms of absentee population is 7.3% of the total population (Fig 4.24). Among the broader social groups, Hill Dalits have the highest percentage of out-migrants (11.7%), followed by M/H Janajatis-A (10.9%) and then by others undefined (9.7%). Hill Brahman and Chhetrees also have out-migrants higher than the national average. Marwadi/Panjabi/Bangali (MPB) have the lowest percentage of out-migrants (3%), followed by Madhesi BC and Madhesi OC-A (3.4% each). Madhesi OC-B (3.9%), Madhesi Dalit (3.6%) and Tarai Janajati (3.8%) also have quite a low percentage of out-migrants compared to the national average. This indicates that they may be less exposed to migration, whereas Hill Dalits and Janajatis-A may be more exposed to migration for work.



It is observed that the top ten groups are M/H Janajatis and Hill Dalits, like Kami and Sharki, and the bottom ten groups are Madhesi groups, except Chepang, in terms of volume of out-migration (Fig 4.25). Hyolmo has considerably high out-migrants, 23.3%. It is followed by Thakali (14.7%) and Gurung (14.5%), but the difference is quite high. On the other hand, out-migration is almost nil among Chidimar (0.4%). Out of a total of 125 groups, the majority (84 groups) have out-migrants less than the national average and only 41 groups have out-migrants higher than the national average (Annex 4.12).



4.3 Social aspect of ethnicity in Nepal

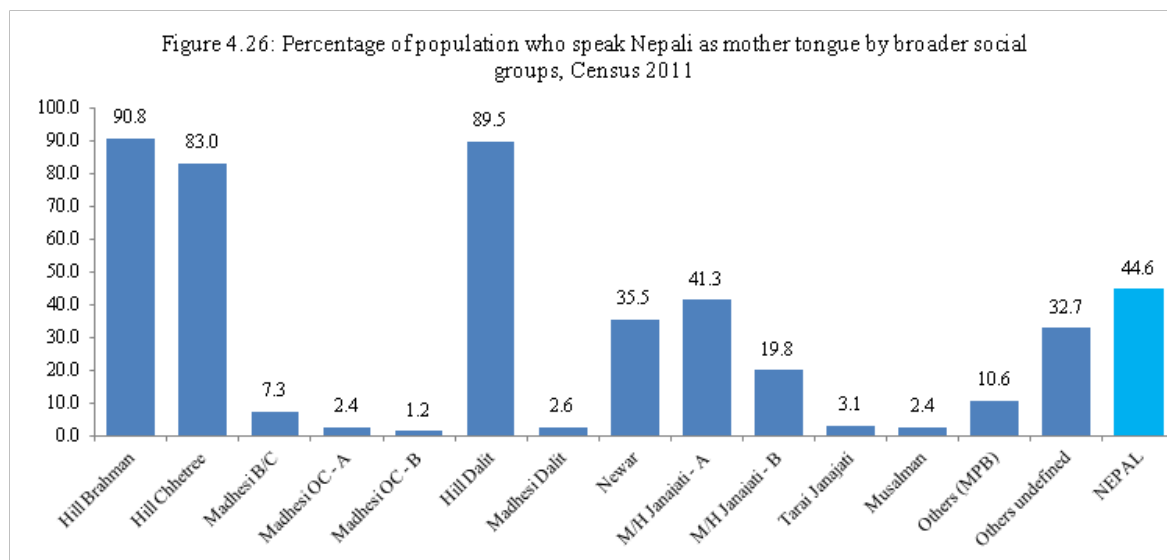
Language, education, sanitation and communication are discussed in social aspects. Like caste/ethnicity, the number of languages is also increasing over the censuses. The census of 2001 recorded 92 languages and it increased to 123 according to the census of 2011. Given the fact that there are more than a hundred living languages, Nepali is both the lingua franca as well as the official language. This chapter discusses only Nepali language. Nepali is the medium of instruction in basic education. Textbooks for

basic education are in the Nepali language. Accordingly, job and other economic opportunities require proficiency in the Nepali language. Nevertheless, the use of English has also been increasing as well as it is common and necessary for higher-level education and jobs in both local and international non-government organisations.

Literacy and current school/college enrolment are the indicators for education. Literacy is computed for the population aged 5 years and above. It indicates the basic education that may be acquired by a large population and that is commonly useful in everyday practical life. Current school/college enrolment is computed for the population aged 5-25 years, which indicates the population currently acquiring educational grades. Facilities of improved source of drinking water and toilets are discussed for general health and sanitation and mobile telephones for communications. Indicators of health and sanitation and communication are computed at the household level.

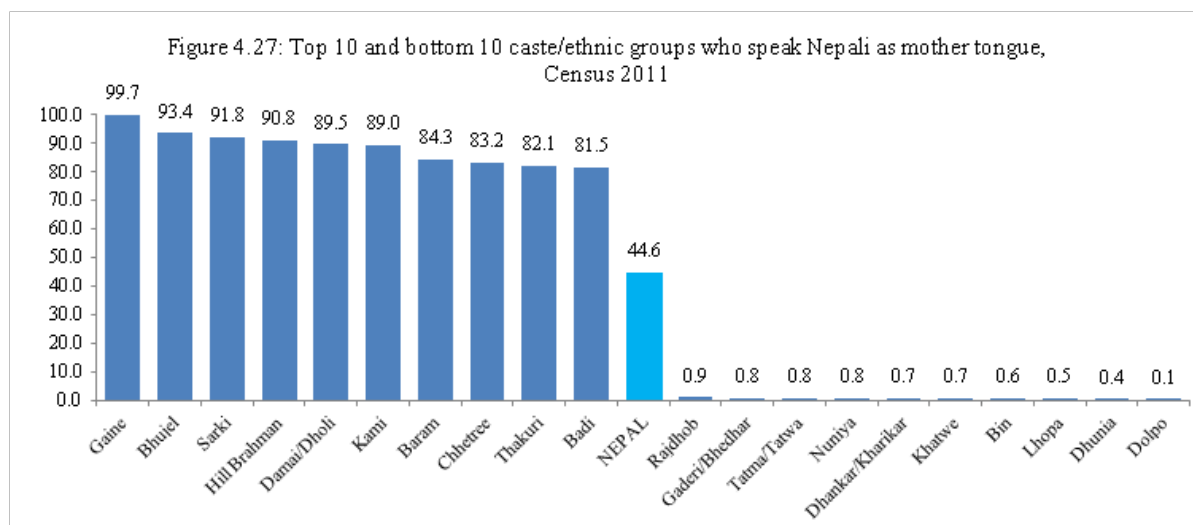
4.3.1 Proficiency in Nepali language

Proficiency in Nepali language is a prerequisite for literacy, education and employment opportunities. The indicator for this is computed in terms of the percentage of the population in each group who speak Nepali language as their mother tongue. Overall, 44.6% of the population aged 5 years and above speak Nepali as their mother tongue (Fig 4.26). Among broader social groups, there are only three Hill caste groups (Hill Brahman, Chhetree and Dalits) whose mother tongue is Nepali. However, only 90.8% of Hill Brahman, 83.0% of Hill Chhetree and 89.5% of Hill Dalit speak Nepali as their mother tongue. Two reasons may justify this finding. First, there are 11 new variants of Nepali language added in the 2011 census that were not recorded in the 2001 census. They are Khas, Achhami, Doteli, Baitadeli, Bajhang, Dailekhi, Dadeldhuri, Bajureli, Darchuleli, Jumli and Gadhwali. These languages are spoken mostly in far-western Hill districts where a large population of Chhetrees, Brahman and Dalit live. Second, the population of these groups living in areas where the language spoken locally is not Nepali may have reported other than Nepali as their mother tongue. For example, hill people for generations living in some core villages of Central Tarai speak Maithili as their mother tongue.



It is natural that Madhesi groups, including Madhesi BC, OCs, Dalits, Tarai Janajati, Musalman as well as Marwadi/Panjabi/Bangali groups have a considerably low percentage of those who speak Nepali as their mother tongue, because they have their own mother language. Newar and M/H Janajatis also have their own language, but it seems that the adoption of the Nepali language among them is increasing tremendously. For example, well above half of Kumal, Byasi, Pahari, Dura, Thakali, Kisan, Magar, Majhi, Kusunda, and Chhantyal reported Nepali as their mother tongue (Annex 4.13).

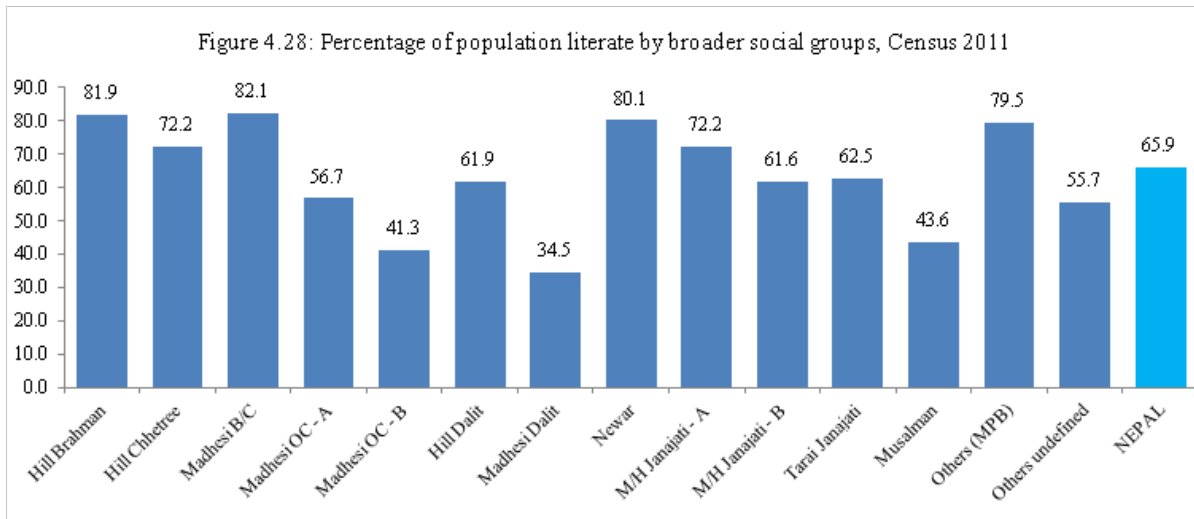
At an individual level, almost all Gaine reported that they speak Nepali as their mother tongue (99.7%) (Fig 4.27). Of the top ten, eight are Hill Brahman/Chhetree/Dalits and two are Janajatis such as Bhujel (93.4%) and Baram (84.3%) who reported Nepali as their mother tongue. In the bottom ten, eight are Madhesi groups and two are Mountain Janajatis, Lhopa (0.4%) and Dolpo (0.1%). Out of 125 groups, there are only 24 groups who have more than and 101 groups who have less than the national average for those who reported Nepali as their mother tongue (Annex 4.13).



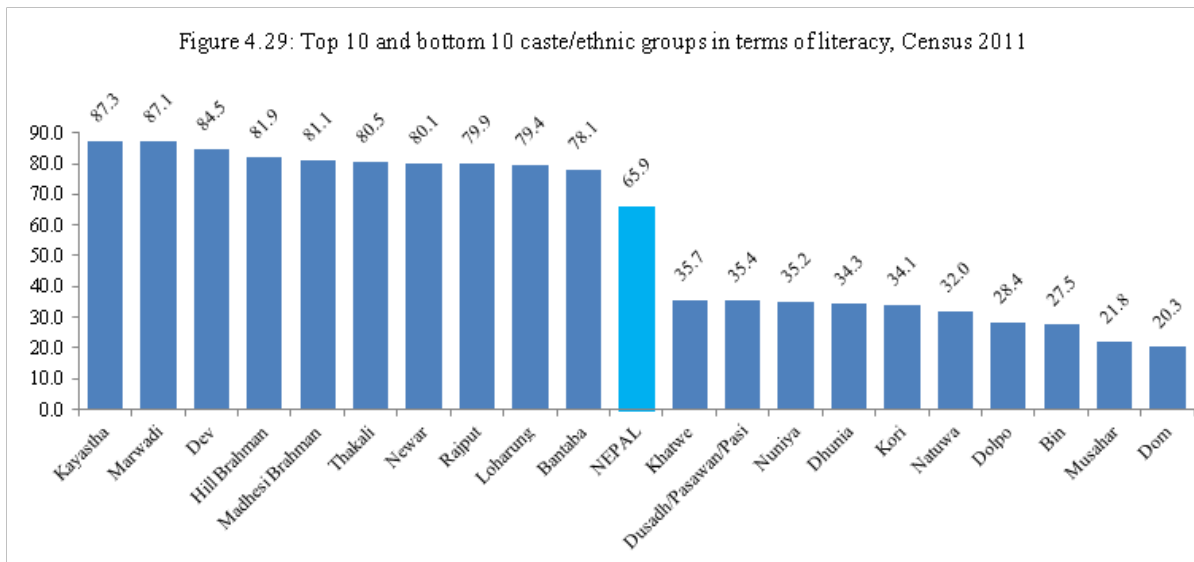
4.3.2 Literacy level

Overall, the literacy rate is 65.9% in Nepal based on the 2011 census (Fig 4.28). The gender gap is wider in literacy, which is 75.1% for males and 57.4% for females (*see* Annex 4.14) with a difference of about 18 percentage points. Literacy is highest among Madhesi B/C (82.1%), followed by Hill Brahman (81.9%) and Newar (80.1%). Literacy among Marwadi/Panjabi/Bangali is also considerably high (79.5%). It is lowest among Madhesi Dalit (34.5%) Madhesi OC-B (41.3%) and Musalman (43.6%). These three groups have far less than half of the population that is literate. Madhesi OC-A, Hill Dalit and M/H Janajati-B and Tarai Janajatis are also below the national average of literacy.

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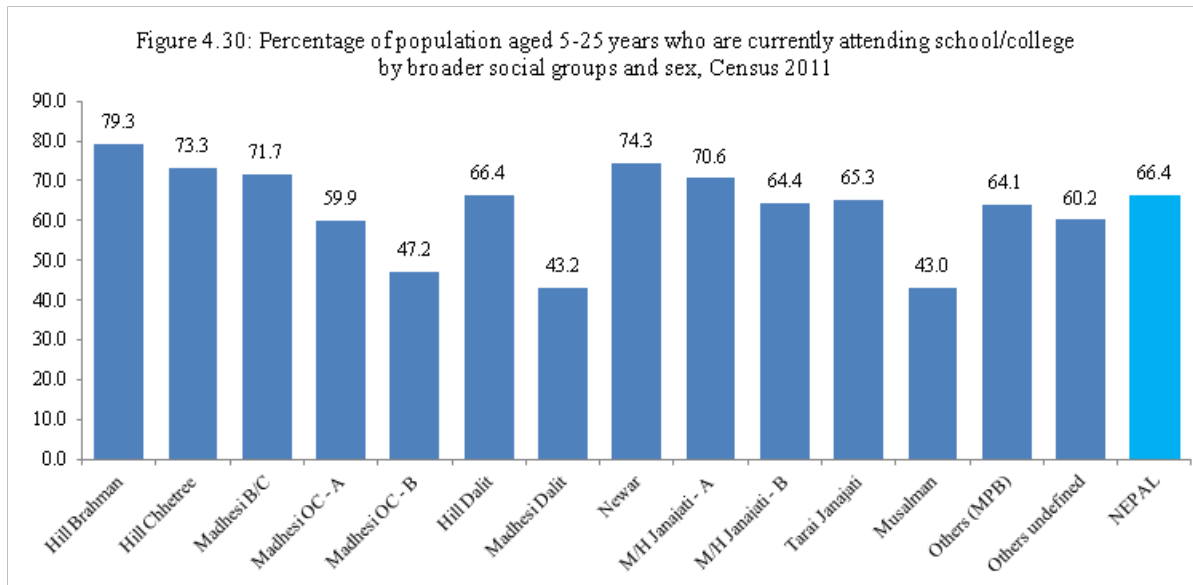
Looking at individual groups, literacy is considerably high among Kayastha (87.3%), Marwadi (87.1%) and Dev (84.5%) (Fig 4.29). There are also Janajati groups such as Thakali, Newar, Loharung, and Bantaba that are ranked in the top ten in terms of literacy rates. Of the bottom ten, all are Madhesi groups. Dom (20.3%) and Musahar (21.8%) have the lowest literacy rates among the bottom ten. Out of 125, 44 groups have above and 81 groups have below the national average of literacy (65.9%) (Annex 4.14). There are 33 groups that have less than half of the population who are literate.



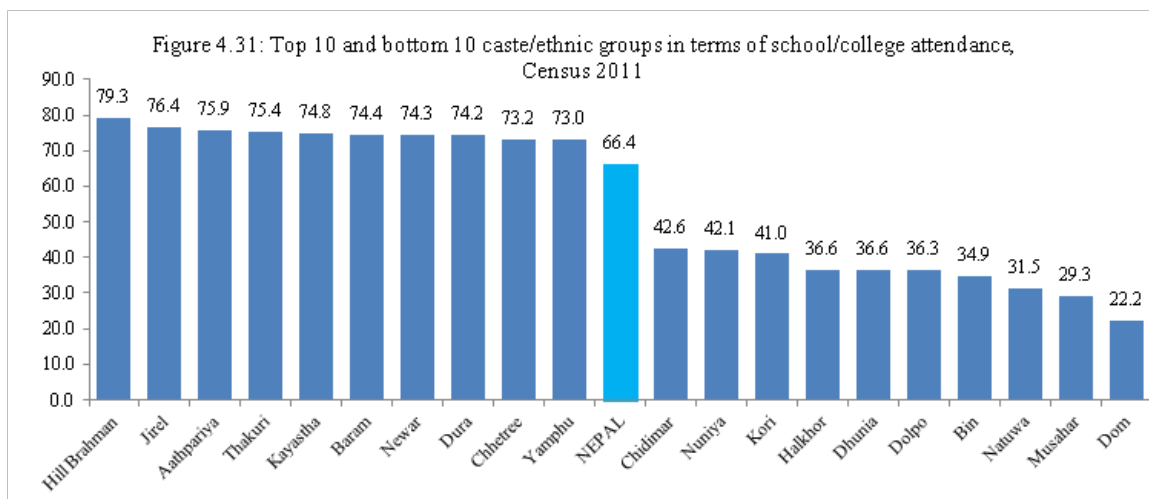
4.3.3 Current school/college attendance

Overall the percentage of current school/college attendance is 66.4% of the population aged 5-25 years (Fig 4.30). The gender gap is found to be wider in current school/college attendance than in literacy. It is 70.% for males and 62.9% for females (*see* Annex 4.15) with a difference of 7 percentage points. Current school/college attendance is highest among Hill Brahman (79.3%), followed by Newar (74.3%) and Hill Chhetree (73.3%). It is lowest among Musalman (43%). In addition to Musalman, Madhesi

Dalit and Madhesi OC-B have less than half of the population aged 5-25 years who currently attend school/college.



It is interesting to note that out of the top ten, seven groups are from M/H Janajatis who are currently attending school/college and the other three are Hill Brahman, Thakuri and Chhetree (Fig 4.31). Similar to literacy, all the bottom ten are Madhesi groups and Dom has the lowest percentage for current school/college attendance (22.2%), followed by Musahar (29.3%). Out of 125, there are 20 groups who have less than half of the population aged 5-25 years currently attending school/college (Annex 4.15). Forty-six groups have more than and 79 groups have less than the national average of current school/college attendance.

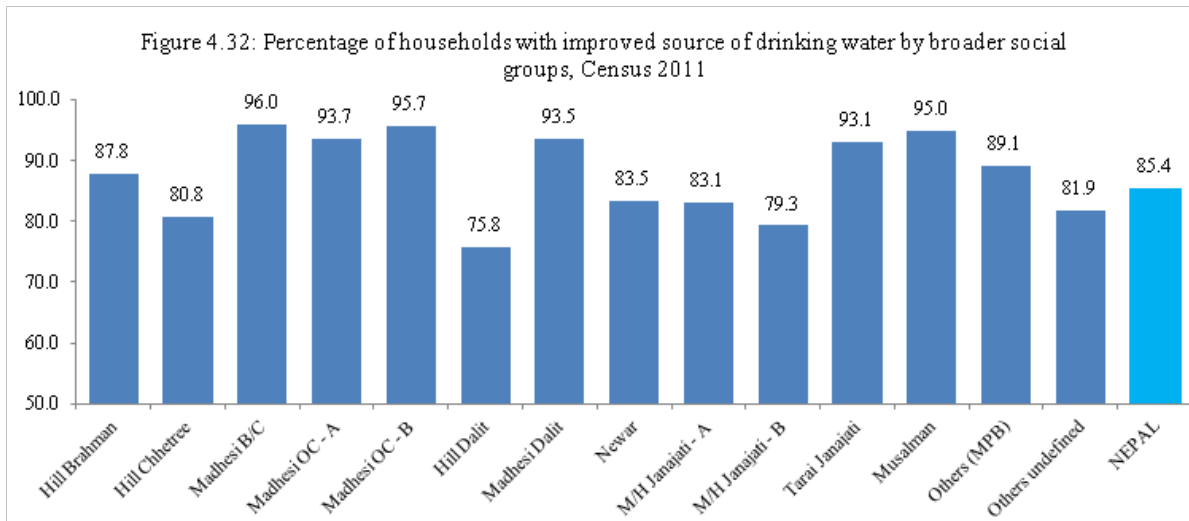


4.3.4 General health and sanitation

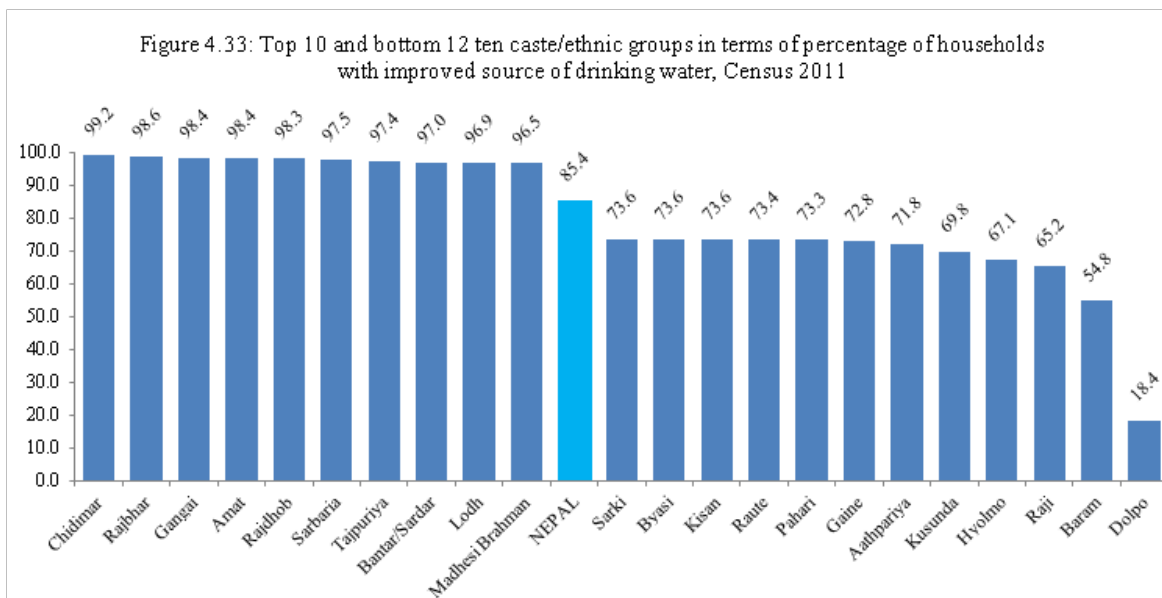
As discussed above, general health and sanitation is measured in terms of the facility of improved drinking water and toilets in a household. A household with an improved source of drinking water and

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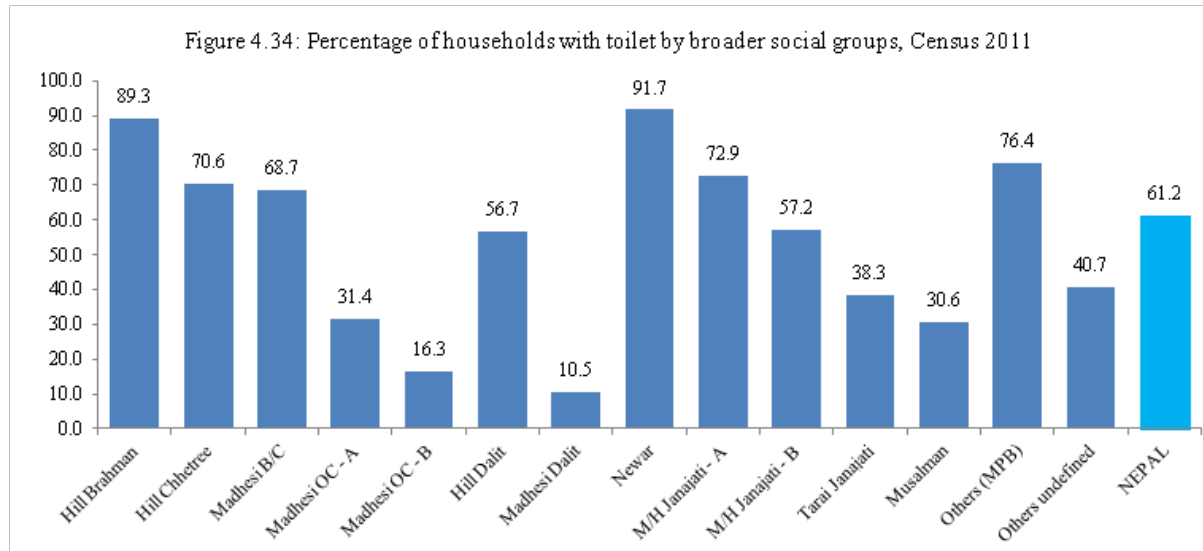
toilet facility means general health and sanitation have been maintained. Improved sources of drinking water include tap/piped drinking water, tube-well/hand pump and covered well/kuwa. Overall, 85.4% of households have an improved source of drinking water (Fig 4.32). More than 90 % of households among Madhesi B/C, Madhesi OCs, Madhesi Dalit, Tarai Janajati and Musalman have an improved source of drinking water. Whereas, Hill Dalit (75.8%), M/H Janajati-B (79.3%) and Hill Chhetree (80.8%) have an improved source of drinking water less than the national average.



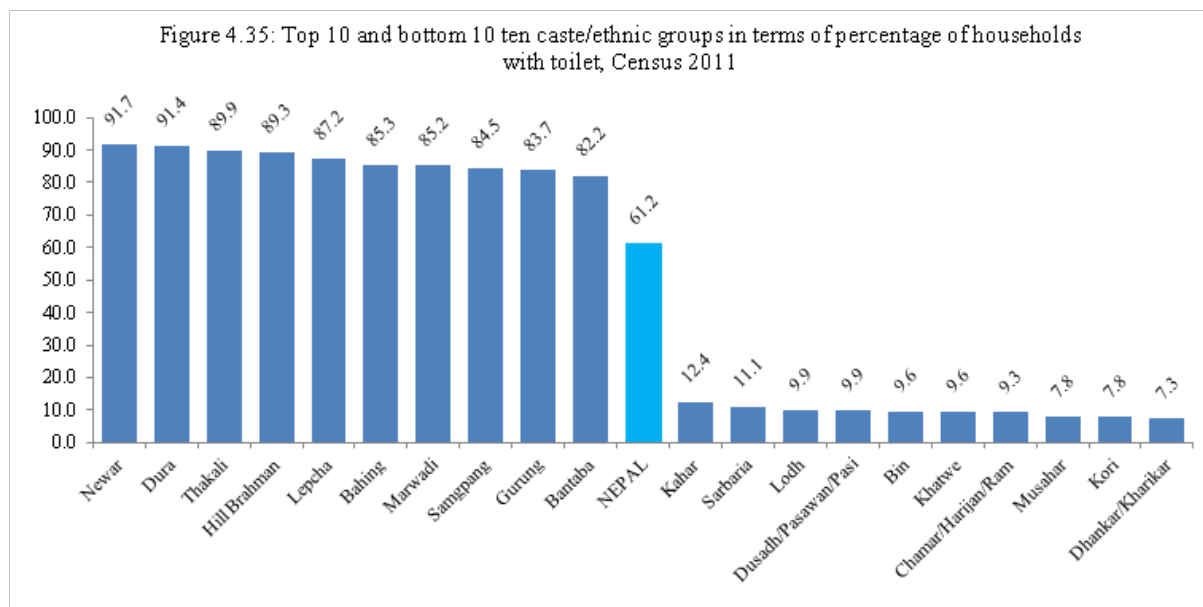
All the groups in the top ten are from Madhesi groups and all the groups in the bottom ten are Hill groups including Janajatis and Dalits (Fig 4.33). Among them, the lowest percentage of Dolpo households have an improved source of drinking water (18.4%). Out of 125, 81 groups are above and 44 groups are below the national average in terms of households with an improved source of drinking water (Annex 4.16).



In the case of toilet facilities, 61.2% of total household have a toilet facility in Nepal (Fig 4.34). Newar has the highest percentage of households that have a toilet facility (91.7%), followed by Hill Brahman (89.3%). On the other hand, Madhesi Dalits have the lowest percentage of households that have a toilet (10.5%), followed by Madhesi OC-B (16.3%). Other groups are around the national average in terms of having a toilet facility.



Of the top ten with a toilet facility at home, almost all groups are from M/H Janajatis, except Hill Brahmin, and all have more than 80% of households with a toilet facility (Fig 4.35). Whereas, all groups are from Madhesis in the bottom ten and eight of them have less than 10% of households with a toilet facility. Of the total 125, only 44 groups are above and 81 groups are below the national average of households that have a toilet facility (Annex 4.17).



4.3.5 Communication

Mobile telephones are much more common in Nepal today. They are used not only for making telephone calls but also for sending/receiving messages, listening to the radio and accessing the internet and email. They are easily and readily available in most market centres with a wide range of prices so that a variety of users can afford them. They are the most powerful means of communication and widely used as well. Fig 4.36 shows that 64.6% of total households in Nepal have a mobile phone. This is highest among Hill Brahman (83.2%), followed by Newar (82.9%) and Marwadi/Panjabi/Bangali (76.7%). The lowest percentage of households with a mobile phone are found among Madhesi Dalit (37.8%).

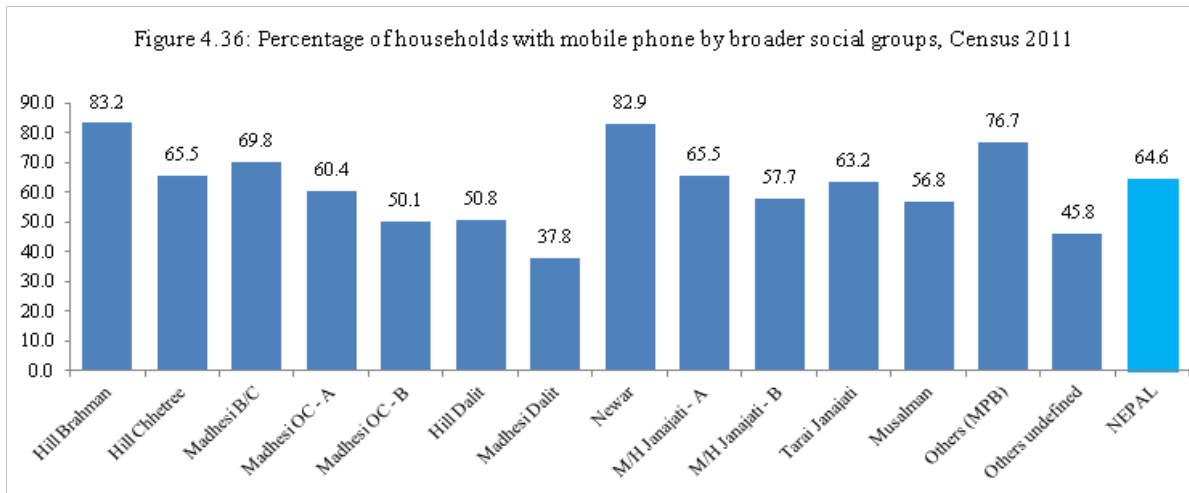
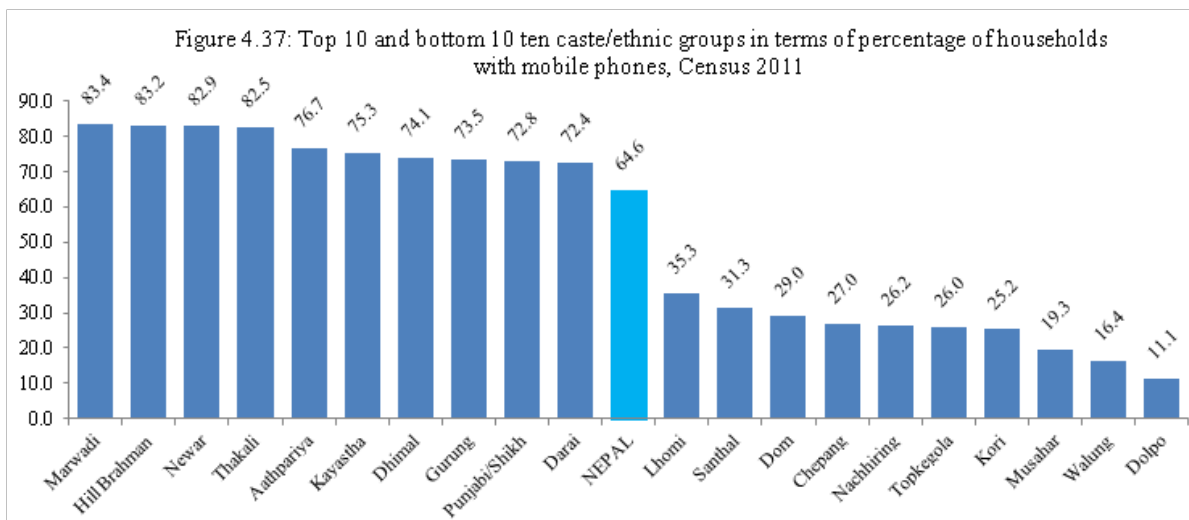


Fig 4.37 shows the top ten and bottom ten groups in terms of households with a mobile phone. Marwadi (83.4%), Hill Brahman (83.2%), Newar (82.9%) and Thakali (82.5%) are the groups that have more than 80% of households with a mobile phone. Dolpo has the lowest percentage of households that have a mobile phone (11.1%), followed by Walung (16.4%) and Musahar (19.3%). Out of 125, only 30 groups have more than and 95 groups have less than the national average of households that have a mobile phone (Annex 4.18).



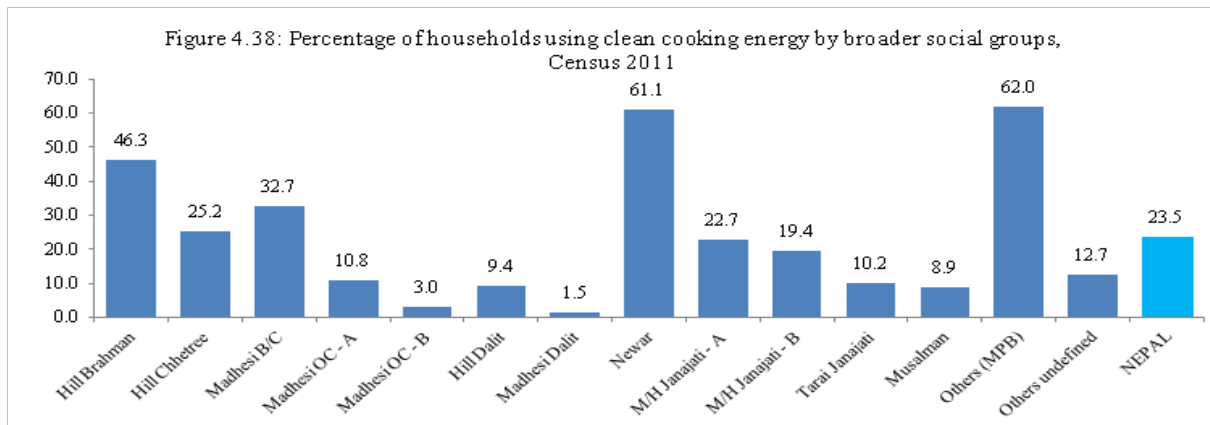
4.4 Economic aspect of ethnicity in Nepal

Two components are discussed in economic aspects. The first part covers the use of clean energy that includes cooking fuel and source of light and, the second part covers economic activities. Indicators for clean energy is computed at the household level, whereas economic activities are computed for the individual population. Both components indicate the economic status of each groups of population.

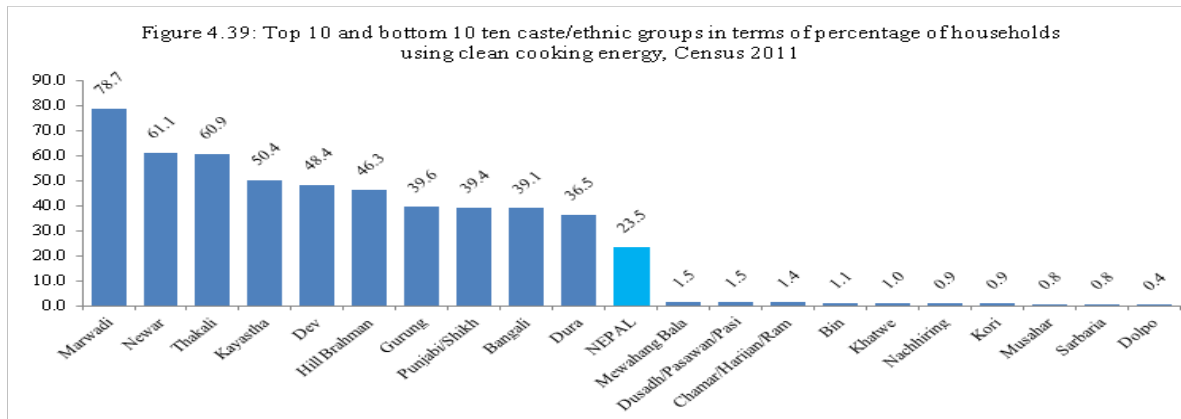
4.4.1 Use of clean energy

Clean cooking fuel

Clean energy for cooking based on census 2011 data includes Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LP Gas), bio-gas, and electricity as cooking fuel. The percentage of households using these three materials for cooking food is the indicator of clean cooking fuel. Overall, 23.5% of households in Nepal use clean cooking energy (Fig 4.38). This percentage is highest among Marwadi/Panjabi/Bangali (62%), followed by Newar (61.1%) and Hill Brahman (46.3%). Madhesi OCs, Dalits, Musalman, and Janajati groups are below the national average in terms of using clean energy. Among them, the percentage of households using clean energy is lowest among Madhesi Dalit (1.5%) and then Madhesi OC-B (3%).

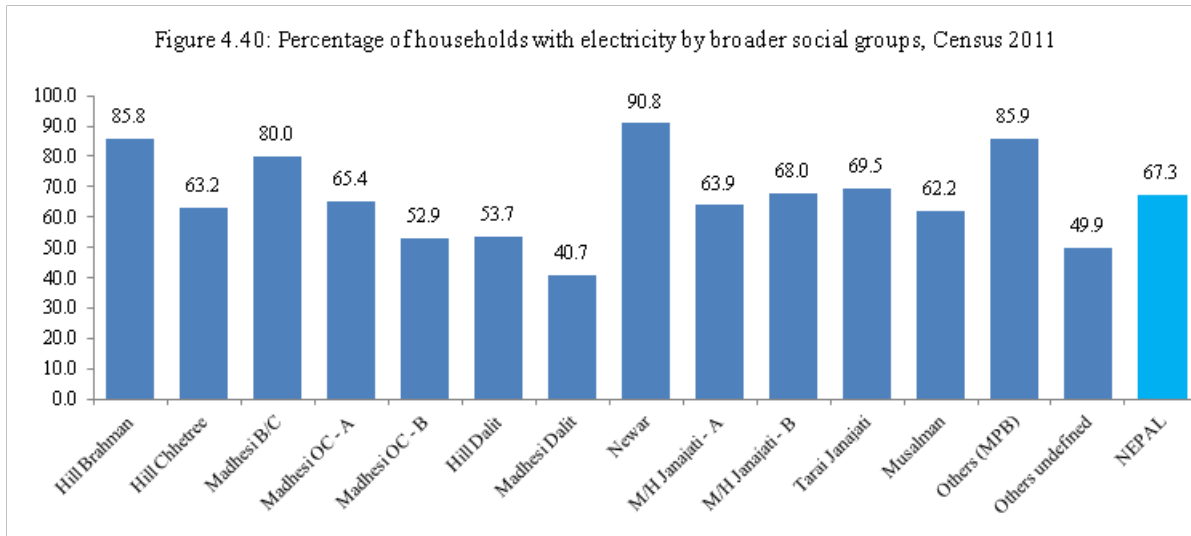


Looking at individual groups, Marwadi has the highest percentage of households using clean energy (78.7%) followed by Newar (61.1%) and Thakali (60.9%) (Fig 4.39). Dolpo has the lowest percentage of households using clean energy (0.4%) followed by Sarbaria (0.8%) and Musahar (0.8%), with less than 1%. All groups in the top ten are well above the national average, whereas all groups in the bottom ten are far below the national average with less than 2%. Of the total 125, only 20 caste/ethnic groups have a percentage of households using clean energy that is more than national average (Annex 4.19). The remaining 105 groups are below the national average in terms of using clean energy.

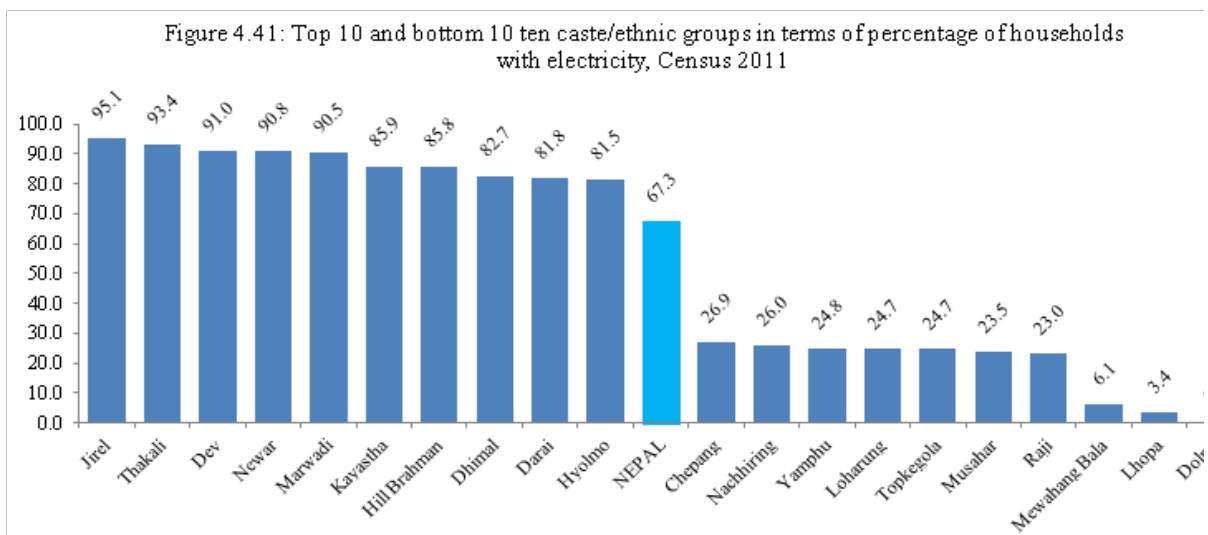


Electricity

Based on the 2011 census, 67.3% of households have electricity in Nepal (Fig 4.40). Newar has the highest percentage of households with electricity (90.8%), followed by Marwadi/Panjabi/Bangali (85.9%) and Hill Brahman (85.8%). Madhesi B/C (80%) is also well above the national average in using electricity. On the other hand, Madhesi Dalit has the lowest percentage of households that have electricity (40.7%). It is the only group where less than half of households have electricity.



Individually, Jirel has the highest percentage of households using electricity (95.1%), followed by Thakali (93.4%) and Dev (91%) (Fig 4.41). All the top ten have more than 80% of households using electricity. Dolpo has the lowest percentage of households using electricity (0.3%), followed by Lhopa (3.4%) and Mewahang Bala (6.1%), well below 10 per cent.

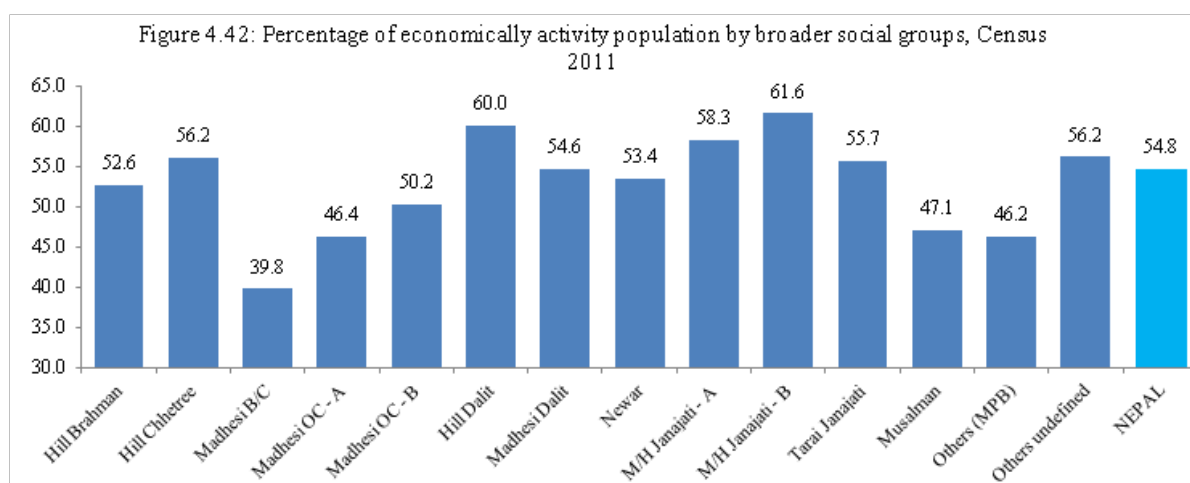


4.4.2 Economic Activities

Economic activity is measured by three indicators; the economically active population, employment status and type of occupation. These three components are computed from the same population. The census of 2011 uses the International Labour Organization’s definition for defining economic activity. According to this, populations aged 10 years and above are economically active who were economically active at some time during the last year preceding the enumeration (ILO, 1990; Niraula, 2003). Employed persons are the populations aged 10 years and above who were employed for more than six months during the last year preceding the enumeration. Occupation is the sector in which those who were usually economically active for six months or more were involved.

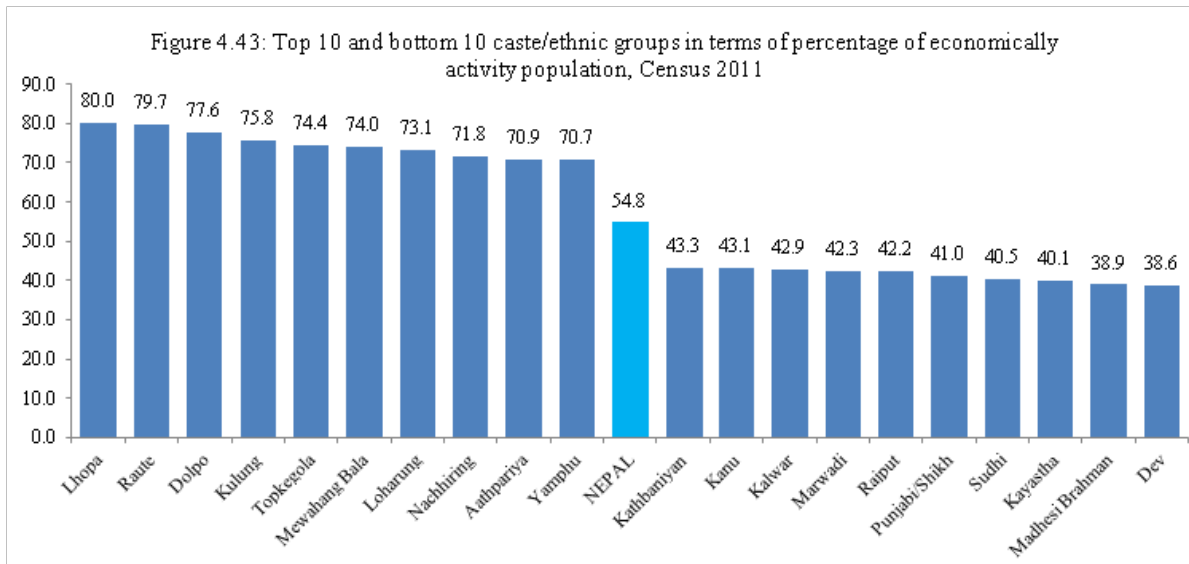
Economically active population

The economically active population has decreased over the years. It was 63.4% in the 2001 census (Niraula, 2003:328), decreasing to 54.8% in the 2011 census (Fig 4.42). This decline may be due to increased school enrolment and increased out-migration for work. The economically active population is highest among M/H Janajatis (61.6%), followed by Hill Dalit (60%), whereas it is lowest among Madhesi B/C (39.8%).



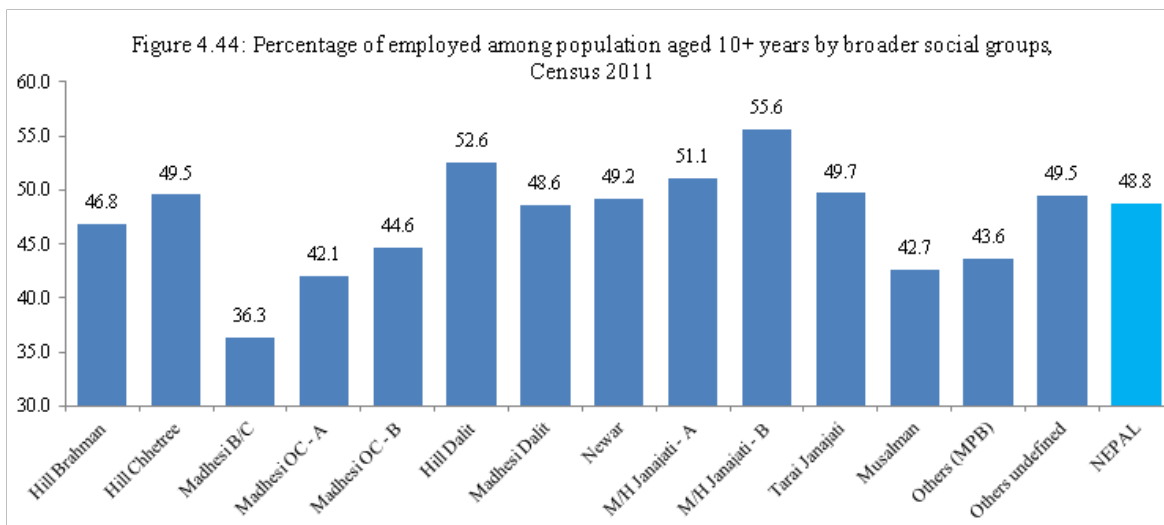
All the top ten groups have more than 70% of the economically active population and all the bottom ten groups have less than half of the population that is economically active (Fig 4.43). Lhopa (80%) and Raute (79.7%) have the highest percentage of economically active population, whereas Dev (38.6%) and Madhesi Brahman (38.9%) have the lowest economically active population. Out of 125, 68 caste/ethnic groups are above and 57 groups are below the national average of economically active population (Annex 4.21).

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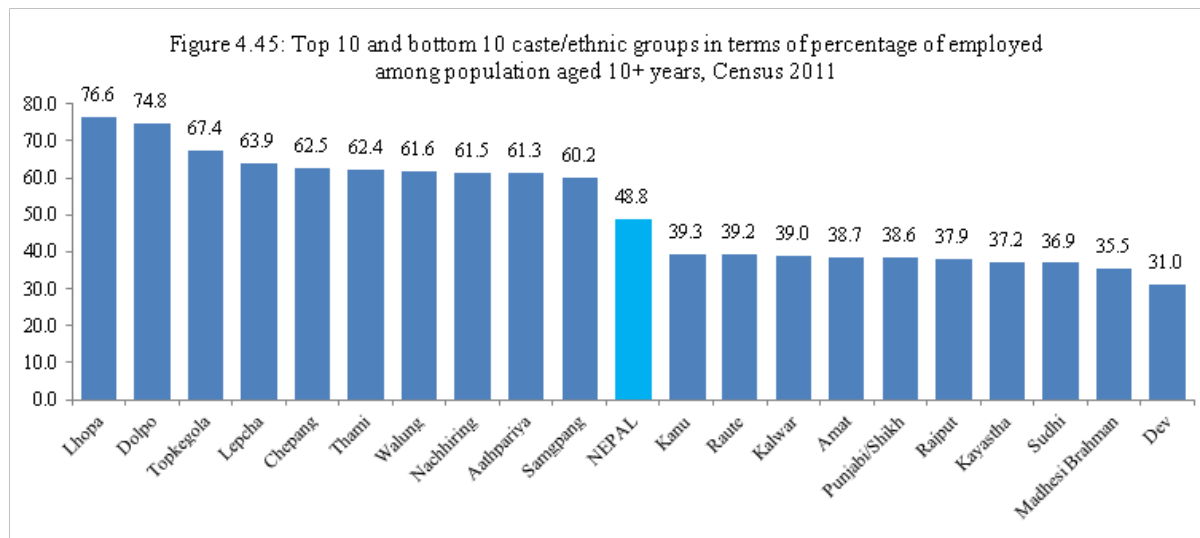


Employment status

As in economically active population, the percentage of employed population has also decreased from the 2001 census. It was 53.1% in 2001 (Niraula, 2003) and 48.8% in 2011 (Fig 4.44). The highest percentage of employed persons is among M/H Janajati-B (55.6%), followed by Hill Dalit (52.6%). It is lowest among Madhesi B/C (36.3%). The pattern is similar to the economically active population.



Looking at individual groups, all the top ten groups are M/H Janajatis and have more than 60% of employed persons (Fig 4.45). Lhopa has the highest percentage of economically active population (76.6%), which is followed by Dolpo (74.8%). All the bottom ten groups, except Raute, are from Madhesi groups and have less than 40% of employed persons. Among them, Dev has the lowest percentage of economically active population at 31%.



Type of occupation

There are ten types of occupations recorded by the census of 2011. The data clearly shows that there are four main occupations: i) skilled agriculture, forestry and fishery work; ii) elementary occupation; iii) service and sales work; and iv) craft and related trade work. The percentage of those involved in skilled agriculture, forestry and fishery work is highest for almost all social groups, except for Madhesi Dalit and Marwadi/Panjabi/Bangali group (Table 4.4). Hill Brahman, Chhetree, Madhesi other caste groups, Hill Dalit, M/H Janajatis and Tarai Janajatis are in the majority for their involvement in agriculture and related works. The highest percentage of Madhesi Dalits is involved in elementary occupation (41.4%) and Marwadi/Panjabi/Bangali in service and sales workers (36.3%). However, there are some social groups, whose percentage of occupations is scattered in multiple occupations. For example, taking 10% and above of the concentration, Musalman and Marwadi/Panjabi/Bangali are scattered into four occupations; service and sales work, skilled agriculture, forestry and fishery, craft and related trade, and elementary occupation. Accordingly, Hill Brahman, Madhesi B/C, Madhesi OC-A, Hill Dalit, Newar, and Tarai Janajatis are scattered among three occupations.

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Table 4.4: Percentage of population aged 10 years and above by type of occupation by broader social groups, 2011 Census

Broader social groups	Armed forces	Managing and professional work	Technician & associate professional work	Office assistance	Service & sale work	Skilled agriculture, forestry & fishery work	Craft and related trades work	Plant & machine operators & assembling work	Elementary occupation	Total
Hill Brahman	0.27	13.91	4.83	2.56	11.82	54.91	3.55	1.85	4.27	100.0
Hill Chhetree	0.49	6.40	2.32	1.55	8.19	68.59	3.96	1.85	5.15	100.0
Madhesi B/C	0.27	17.54	7.93	3.34	12.72	34.42	5.79	2.92	10.00	100.0
Madhesi OC - A	0.10	3.78	1.73	0.79	12.10	57.84	7.18	1.75	11.91	100.0
Madhesi OC - B	0.05	1.47	0.87	0.52	5.35	54.97	9.22	2.08	22.07	100.0
Hill Dalit	0.13	1.30	0.56	0.55	3.70	62.78	16.51	1.85	11.17	100.0
Madhesi Dalit	0.06	0.75	0.49	0.46	3.24	38.80	8.71	2.30	41.40	100.0
Newar	0.36	10.58	4.89	2.91	19.79	35.21	13.76	4.07	5.66	100.0
M/H Janajati - A	0.27	4.30	1.36	0.91	5.94	71.68	6.32	1.75	6.00	100.0
M/H Janajati - B	0.18	2.64	1.11	0.83	5.44	68.34	8.76	3.16	7.99	100.0
Tarai Janajati	0.10	2.38	1.17	0.85	4.84	59.96	10.35	2.85	15.67	100.0
Musalman	0.04	1.61	0.87	0.53	10.11	46.06	17.47	2.49	17.40	100.0
Others (MPB)	0.03	7.27	3.45	1.41	36.30	19.10	13.28	2.70	11.43	100.0
NEPAL	0.04	11.38	6.12	1.25	20.05	27.67	16.83	3.50	10.40	100.0

Service and sales work is secondary I for four groups, Hill Brahman, Chhetree, Madhesi OC-A, and Newar (Table 4.5). Similarly, craft and related trade work is secondary I for four groups, Hill Dalit, M/H Janajati A and B, and Musalman and secondary II for five groups, Madhesi OC-B, Madhesi Dalit, Newar, and Tarai Janajati. Elementary occupation is secondary I for two groups (Madhesi OC-B and Tarai Janajati) and secondary II for six groups (Chhetree, Madhesi OC-A, Hill Dalit, M/H Janajati A and B and Musalman). Managing and professional work is also secondary I for Madhesi B/C and secondary II for Hill Brahman.

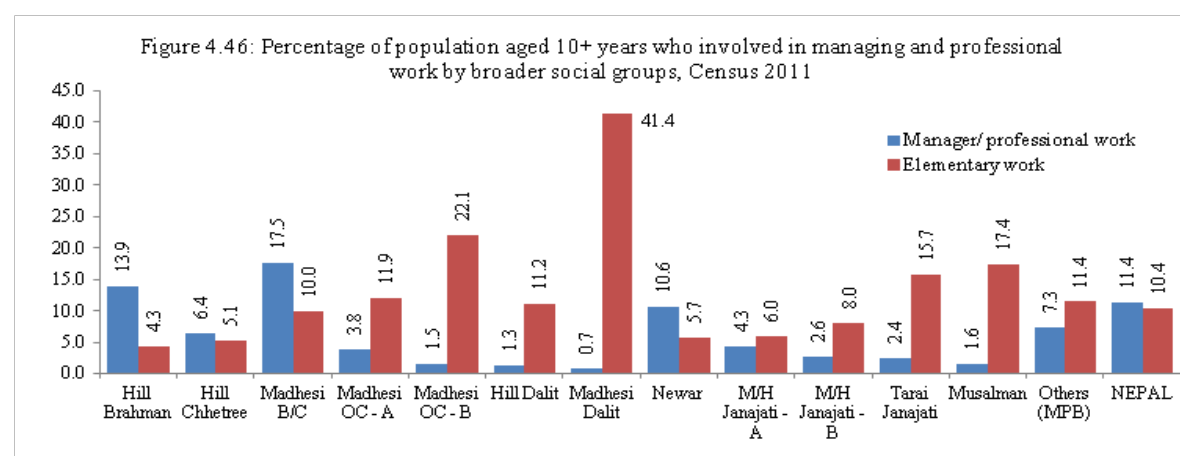
Table 4.5: Classification of social groups according to hierarchical concentration of percentage for type of occupation, 2011 Census

Broader social groups	Managing/ professional work	Service & sales work	Skilled agri., forestry and fishery work	Craft and related trade work	Elementary occupation
Hill Brahman	Secondary II	Secondary I	Primary	–	–
Hill Chhetree	–	Secondary I	Primary	–	Secondary II
Madhesi B/C	Secondary I	Secondary II	Primary	–	–
Madhesi OC – A	–	Secondary I	Primary	–	Secondary II
Madhesi OC – B	–	–	Primary	Secondary II	Secondary I
Hill Dalit	–	–	Primary	Secondary I	Secondary II
Madhesi Dalit	–	–	Secondary I	Secondary II	Primary
Newar	–	Secondary I	Primary	Secondary II	–
M/H Janajati – A	–	–	Primary	Secondary I	Secondary II
M/H Janajati – B	–	–	Primary	Secondary I	Secondary II
Tarai Janajati	–	–	Primary	Secondary II	Secondary I
Musalman	–	–	Primary	Secondary I	Secondary II
Others (MPB)	–	Primary	Secondary I	Secondary II	–

Note: Primary, secondary I & secondary II are based on the percentage with highest, second & third highest respectively.

Source: Table 4.4.

It is important to compare two different occupations. Management and professional work are high status and high-income occupations, whereas elementary occupation is considered to be economically inferior. A comparison between caste/ethnic groups in these occupations shows an interesting picture (Fig 4.46). Madhesi Dalit is the group with the highest percentage of those involved in elementary work and the lowest percentage of those involved in managing and professional work. This pattern is also the same among Madhesi other caste groups, Hill Dalit, Musalman, Tarai and M/H Janajatis but the extent of the gap is smaller. In contrast, the percentage of those involved in managing and professional work is higher than those involved in elementary occupation among Madhesi B/C, Hill Brahman, Newar and Chhetree.



Looking at individual groups, it is interesting to note that the majority of the Musahar (64%) and about half of the Halkhor are involved in elementary occupation (Annex 4.23). In addition, of the 125 groups, there are 16 groups who have more than 25% involved in elementary occupation. They are namely Chamar/Harijan/Ram, Dusadh/Paswan/Pasi, Tatma, Khatwe, Santhal, Jhangad/Uraon, Bantar, Gaderi, Nurang, Dom, Kisan, Raji, Dhuniya, Munda, Sarbaria and Amat. On the other hand, there are seven

groups who have more than 10% of the population involved in managing/professional work. They include Hill Brahman, Newar, Madhesi B/C, Rajput, Kayastha, Thakali, and Dev.

4.5 Conclusions

This chapter deals with demographic, social and economic aspects disaggregated by cultural groups, that is, caste/ethnicity within the limitations of census data. The chapter uses two versions of caste/ethnic compositions, 125 caste/ethnicity and 13 broader social groups for the disaggregation. Further sub-grouping of Madhesi Other Caste and Mountain/Hill Janajatis is useful to examine variations in demographic and socio-economic indicators, which has significance for targeted development policies. The analysis of census data on the basis of caste/ethnicity is useful in understanding variations in demographic, social and economic outcomes. It makes sense in exploring how the development process is progressing in such a heterogeneous culture and how to initiate an inclusive development process. The findings aim to explore necessary policy insights useful for inclusive development plans and programmes. Table 4.6 summarises the findings in relation to policy issues, which also helps to draw conclusions in a systematic manner.

The number of caste/ethnic groups has been increasing over the census. There are only 98 out of 125 groups matched in the 2001 and 2011 censuses. Comparisons over the years are not possible for all groups. However, the number of groups is expected to increase in the next census. The main reason is that the establishment of identity and the identification of people has just begun in Nepal with the restoration of democracy and it is still an on-going process. There is no such government institution or policy, such as the Anthropological Survey of India¹⁵, which can identify and study communities and groups of people in Nepal¹⁶. Another issue regarding caste/ethnicity is a mismatch in identification, which is a result of misreporting by both census enumerators and respondents. A mismatch occurred at the coding stage in the census, whereas respondents changed their identity in terms of caste/ethnicity (e.g., Gurung in 2001 and Ghale in 2011) and reported common identities such as “Lama” (Lama is a common religious title of multiple groups such as Tamang, Hyolmo, Bhote, Sherpa, and Walung. In this case, Tamang Lama may be coded as other groups or vice-versa).

Large household sizes, a low mean age of population, a high dependency ratio, low age at first marriage, and a high child-woman ratio all indicate high fertility is still continuing among some caste/ethnic groups. They mainly include Madhesi Dalits, Madhesi other castes, Musalman and some M/H Janajatis-B (see Table 4.6). The low mean age and high dependency ratio also indicate a large propor-

15 See <http://www.ansi.gov.in>. Anthropological Survey of India (ANSI) is government institution under the Ministry of Culture, Government of India. It has been working since 1916 to study cultural and biological aspects of tribes and other communities of the population of India and their arts and crafts.

16 “People of Nepal” by late Dor Bahadur Bista (1967) is the only document to account for some communities/groups of people in Nepal. It was published a long time ago it does not provide an updated account all communities/groups of Nepal. There are a few studies published by Nepal Academy (Nepal Pragya Pratishthan) but not in a systematic and regular way.

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18 Abortion is legalised in Nepal in 2002 as safe choice for women to end unintended pregnancy.

19 India experienced a disturbing decline in the number of girls compared with boys in the last decade due to selective-sex abortion and infanticide.

tion of child population, which, in turn, is a sign of fertility potential. The low age at first marriage implies a long span of childbearing period, which is also an indication of high fertility potential. The level of TFR is supportive to the finding that Musalman, Madhesi OCs and Hill/Madhesi Dalits still have high fertility rates. The sex ratio is considerably high among seven groups, Bangali, Marwadi and some Madhesi groups such as Dev, Rajput, Kalwar, Kanu and Kathbaniyan. There is no clear evidence for justification of high sex ratios for these groups. Missing women may be the result of missing girls as an implication of abortion legalisation for unintended pregnancies¹⁷ as in India (see Stephenson, 2003)¹⁸. Life expectancy is low among Hill Dalits meaning that they have relatively high mortality. This indicates access to health services is poor among Hill Dalits. Regarding migration, out-migration (absentee) for work has increased tremendously recently to an extent that the country has been enjoying a remittance of about 25% of the national GDP¹⁹.

Having a toilet facility is indispensable for the general health and sanitation of every household. The percentage of households with a toilet facility is less than 40% among Madhesi Dalit, Madhesi OCs, Musalman and Tarai Janajati. Access to communication is poor among Madhesi Dalit and Mountain Janajatis like Dolpo and Walung. Less than 10% of the households of Dolpo, Walung and Mewahang Bela have electricity. Madhesi Dalits also have poor access to electricity. The economically active population is more than 70% among M/H Janajati such as Lhopa, Raute, Dolpo, Kulung, Topkegola, Mewahang Bala, Loharung, Nachhiring, Aathpariya, Yamphu, and Lepcha. This may be due a higher proportion of the working age population being employed rather than enrolled at school.

Table 4.6: Summary of findings and policy issues and target groups, 2011 Census

S.No.	Indicators	Position	Policy issue	Caste/ethnicity to be addressed
I	Demographic Aspects			
1.	Population growth rate	Negative growth rate	• Identification and coding	• 18 groups – no clear justification for most of the groups
2.	Sex ratio	>110	• Missing women: Sex selective abortion?	• 7 groups – Bangali, Marwadi and Madhesi groups (Dev, Rajput, Kalwar, Kanu and Kathbaniyan)
3.	Household size	>6 members	• High fertility	• Musalman and other Madhesi OC groups (Dhunia, Lodh, Kanu, Kahar Kurmi, Dhandi, Natuwa, Lohar, Kumhar Baraee, and Gaderi) and Madhesi Dalits (Halkhor and Dhobi)
4.	Mean age	21-23 years	• High fertility	• Dhunia, Raute, Natuwa, Chepang, Halkhor and Dom.
5.	Dependency ratio	High: >85%	• Less working population	• Chepang, Musalman, Natuwa, Dhunia, Dom, Bin, Hayu and Lohar
6.	Age at marriage (female)	13.9 years	• Girls child marriage • Early marriage	• Dom and Chidimar • Other 48 mostly Madhesi groups with less than legal age at marriage (18 yrs.).
7.	Child-woman ratio	>600	• High fertility	• Dom, Chepang, Natuwa, and Raute. Musalman also has >550
8.	Total fertility rate	>3.0	• High fertility	• Musalman (3.7), Madhesi OCs and Hill/Madhesi Dalits (>3).
9.	Life expectancy at birth	65.57	• Lowest life expectancy at birth	• Hill Dalits

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S.No.	Indicators	Position	Policy issue	Caste/ethnicity to be addressed
10.	Absentee population	Up to 12% (Migration for work)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Safe migration Management of remittance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All: focusing on Hill Dalits and M/H Janajatis – A.
II Social Aspects				
1.	Proficiency in Nepali language	<10% <20%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Impact on education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Madhesi B/C, OCs and Dalits, Tarai Janajati, and Musalman. Also M/H Janajatis including Newar
2.	Literacy	<50% <national average	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Impact on education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Madhesi OC-B, Madhesi Dalit and Musalman Hill Dalit, Madhesi OC-A, H/M Janajati-B, Tarai Janajati
3.	Current school attendance	<50% <65%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Impact on education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Madhesi Dalit, Madhesi OC-B and Musalman Madhesi OC-A, M/H Janajati-B
4.	Improved source of drinking water	<80%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Health 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hill Dalit and M/H Janajati-B (e.g., Dolpo, Baram, etc.)
5.	Toilet	<40% <60%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sanitation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Madhesi Dalit, Madhesi OCs, Musalman and Tarai Janajati Hill Dalit and M/H Janajati-B
6.	Mobile phone	38% <60%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Media and communication 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Madhesi Dalit Madhesi OC-B, Hill Dalit, M/H Janajati-B (Walung Dolpo), Musalman
III Economic Aspects				
1.	Clean cooking energy	<=10%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Economic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hill/Madhesi Dalit, Musalman, Madhesi OCs and Tarai Janajati
2.	Electricity	<60% <67% <10%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Public service 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hill/Madhesi Dalit and Madhesi OC-B Musalman, M/H Janajati-A, Madhesi OC-A, Chhetree Dolpo, Lhopa, Mewahang
3.	Economically active population	Around 60% >70%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Economic 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> M/H Janajatis (A/B) and Hill Dalits Lhopa, Raute, Dolpo, Kulung, Topkegola, Mewahang Bala, Loharung, Nachhiring, Aathpariya, Yamphu, Lepcha
4.	Elementary occupation	41.4% 8-22%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inaccessibility to gainful job opportunity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Madhesi Dalit (all) Madhesi OCs, Tarai Janajati, Musalman and Hill Dalit

As the medium of instruction in school is Nepali and textbooks are only available in Nepali, proficiency in the Nepali language, literacy and current school attendance are positively associated with each other. A higher percentage of proficiency in Nepali for a group is associated with a higher percentage of literacy and school/college

20 Karl Pearson correlation between proficiency in Nepali language and literacy and current school/college attendance is significant at 0.001 level.

21 Karl Pearson correlation of literacy and current school/college attendance with managing/professional work and elementary works is significant at 0.001 level.

attendance for that group²⁰. Proficiency in Nepali language is poor among Madhesi groups, especially Dalits, and other caste groups such as Musalman and Tarai Janajati which is why their literacy rates and current school attendance is also low. A good example is the relationship of literacy and current school attendance with occupation, particularly managing/professional and elementary work. Literacy and current school attendance have a significant positive correlation with managing/professional work and a significant negative correlation with elementary work²¹. Even though most of the population groups are involved in skilled agriculture, forestry and fishery, the involvement of Hill Brahman and Madhesi B/C in managing and professional work is also significant. Madhesi Dalits are primarily involved in elementary occupation, in which some Madhesi OC-B, Tarai Janajati, Hill Dalits and Musalman are also involved. In this way, it can be concluded that occupation is an outcome of proficiency in the Nepali language, literacy and education.

All caste/ethnic groups have a long way to go in terms of demographic, social and economic indicators based on data from the census of 2011. However, some groups such as Hill Brahman, Madhesi B/C, Newar, Marwadi, Thakali and other groups have already achieved quite high levels in indicators in these areas. Whereas, Madhesi Dalit, Musalman, some Madhesi OC groups, some Hill Dalits and some M/H Janajatis are lagging behind in all areas. Among them, Dom, Musahar, Musalman, Dolpo, Chepang, Walung, and Natuwa are frequently at the bottom for most of the demographic, social and economic indicators.

4.6 Recommendations

Findings are useful to strengthen inclusive development policies of the country. Recommendations are made separately for policy and further research required based on the findings.

Policy recommendations

- A Mismatch in reporting, recording and coding of some caste/ethnic groups should be addressed by the census-operating agency. Rigorous procedures, such as mobilising experts in related fields from the beginning to end of the census operation process would help to minimise such errors.
- Awareness raising activities should be targeted at some caste/ethnic groups with high fertility potential to improve their knowledge about the disadvantages of high fertility. Musalman, Hill Dalits, and Madhesi OCs and Dalits should be made aware of the disadvantages of high fertility, the risks to reproductive health, and the law regarding legal age at marriage.
- The health status is relatively poor among Hill Dalits, indicated by fact that they have the lowest life expectancy at birth. Programmes related to health and nutrition are necessary for Hill Dalits.
- Increased labour migration is associated with increased unsafe migration and trafficking, which has to be properly addressed with “safe migration” policy.
- Means of communication, such as mobile phone that have multiple applications, are important for raising people’s awareness about the importance of education, the disadvantages of high fertility, the health risks associated with early marriage, particularly reproductive health issues, and many other development opportunities. Communication access is low in rural Tarai and mountain areas and needs to be expanded in these areas.

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- Education is the gateway to all kinds of development opportunities. It is noted that occupation is an outcome of proficiency in the Nepali language, literacy and education. Those proficient in the Nepali language have a higher possibility of acquiring a better education that increases the chances of getting a better job. There should be an inclusive education policy that addresses those people who have a low proficiency in the Nepali language so that they are able to get a better education.

Recommendations for further research

- Anthropological surveys, such as in India, are necessary to study communities and culture in Nepal. There is a need for a dedicated institution, under the government, to carry out a systematic and scientific ethnographic study on a regular basis. This would help in the identification of communities/groups and number of groups, which would address the ever-changing number of caste/ethnic groups as well as mismatches of caste/ethnic groups in censuses.
- The high sex ratio among some Madhesi groups may be the result of missing girls, as in India, due to the legalisation of abortion. There is a need for further research in this area to identify the reason for the striking deficits of females.

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Annex 4.1: Percentage of population by caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	%	Population 2011	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	%	Pop. 2011	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	%	Pop. 2011
Chhetree	16.60	4,398,053	Chepang	0.26	68,399	Dura	0.02	5,394
Hill Brahman	12.18	3,226,903	Sonar	0.24	64,335	Sarbaria	0.02	4,906
Magar	7.12	1,887,733	Kumhar	0.24	62,399	Meche	0.02	4,867
Tharu	6.56	1,737,470	Sunuwar	0.21	55,712	Bantaba	0.02	4,604
Tamang	5.81	1,539,830	Bantar/Sardar	0.21	55,104	Raji	0.02	4,235
Newar	4.99	1,321,933	Kahar	0.20	53,159	Dolpo	0.02	4,107
Kami	4.75	1,258,554	Santhal	0.20	51,735	Halkhor	0.02	4,003
Musalman	4.39	1,164,255	Marwadi	0.19	51,443	Byasi	0.01	3,895
Yadav	3.98	1,054,458	Kayastha	0.17	44,304	Amat	0.01	3,830
Rai	2.34	620,004	Rajput	0.16	41,972	Thulung	0.01	3,535
Gurung	1.97	522,641	Badi	0.15	38,603	Lepcha	0.01	3,445
Damai/Dholi	1.78	472,862	Jhangad/Uraon	0.14	37,424	Kushwadiya	0.01	3,182
Thakuri	1.61	425,623	Gangai	0.14	36,988	Mewahang Bala	0.01	3,100
Limbu	1.46	387,300	Lodh	0.12	32,837	Bahing	0.01	3,096
Sarki	1.41	374,816	Badhaee	0.11	28,932	Natuwa	0.01	3,062
Teli	1.40	369,688	Thami	0.11	28,671	Hayu	0.01	2,925
Chamar/Harijan/Ram	1.27	335,893	Kulung	0.11	28,613	Dhankar/Kharikar	0.01	2,681
Koiri/Kushwaha	1.16	306,393	Bangali	0.10	26,582	Lhopa	0.01	2,624
Musahar	0.89	234,490	Gaderi/Bhedhar	0.10	26,375	Munda	0.01	2,350
Kurmi	0.87	231,129	Dhimal	0.10	26,298	Dev	0.01	2,147
Sanyasi/Dashnami	0.86	227,822	Yakkha	0.09	24,336	Dhandi	0.01	1,982
Dhanuk	0.83	219,808	Ghale	0.09	22,881	Kamar	0.01	1,787
Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	0.79	208,910	Tajpuriya	0.07	19,213	Kisan	0.01	1,739
Mallaha	0.65	173,261	Khawas	0.07	18,513	Samgpang	0.01	1,681
Kewat	0.58	153,772	Darai	0.06	16,789	Koche	0.01	1,635
Kathbaniyan	0.52	138,637	Mali	0.06	14,995	Lhomi	0.01	1,614
Madhesi Brahman	0.51	134,106	Dhunia	0.06	14,846	Khaling	0.01	1,571
Kalwar	0.48	128,232	Pahari	0.05	13,615	Topkegola	0.01	1,523
Kanu	0.47	125,184	Rajdhob	0.05	13,422	Chidimar	0.00	1,254
Kumal	0.46	121,196	Bhote	0.05	13,397	Walung	0.00	1,249
Bhujel	0.45	118,650	Dom	0.05	13,268	Loharung	0.00	1,153
Hajam/Thakur	0.44	117,758	Thakali	0.05	13,215	Kalar	0.00	1,077
Rajbansi	0.43	115,242	Kori	0.05	12,276	Raute	0.00	618
Sherpa	0.43	112,946	Chhantyal	0.04	11,810	Nurang	0.00	278
Dhobi	0.41	109,079	H Yolmo	0.04	10,752	Kusunda	0.00	273

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EVIDENCES FROM POPULATION AND HOUSING CENSUS 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	%	Population 2011	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	%	Pop. 2011	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	%	Pop. 2011
Tatma/Tatwa	0.40	104,865	Bote	0.04	10,397	Dalit Others	0.59	155,354
Lohar	0.38	101,421	Rajbhar	0.04	9,542	Janajati Others	0.00	1,228
Khatwe	0.38	100,921	Baram	0.03	8,140	Terai Others	0.39	103,811
Sudhi	0.35	93,115	Punjabi/Shikh	0.03	7,176	Undefined Others	0.06	15,277
Danuwar	0.32	84,115	Nachhiring	0.03	7,154	Foreigner	0.03	6,651
Haluwai	0.32	83,869	Yamphu	0.03	6,933			
Majhi	0.32	83,727	Gaine	0.03	6,791			
Baraee	0.30	80,597	Chamling	0.03	6,668			
Bin	0.28	75,195	Aathpariya	0.02	5,977			
Nuniya	0.27	70,540	Jirel	0.02	5,774			

Annex 4.2: Growth rate by caste/ethnic groups, census 2001-2011

98 Caste/ethnic groups	Growth rate	98 Caste/ethnic groups	Growth rate
Hyolmo	29.22	Marwadi	1.57
Dhunia	24.90	Dhanuk	1.56
Badi	21.62	Magar	1.51
Kushwadiya	17.52	Gaine	1.43
Bin	13.90	Majhi	1.42
Munda	12.70	Kumhar	1.37
Bangali	9.92	Koche	1.35
Punjabi/Sikh	8.54	Sanyasi/Dasnami	1.35
Baraee	8.22	Tharu	1.25
Byasi	6.16	Darai	1.22
Raji	5.68	Kewat	1.16
Kusunda	5.10	Hill Brahman	1.08
Halwai	5.06	Kalwar	1.04
Hayu	4.74	Halkhor	1.00
Danuwar	4.58	Baram	0.98
Kahar	4.31	Kathabaniyan	0.88
Bantar/Sardar	4.30	Walung	0.84
Mallaha	4.01	Jirel	0.83
Gaderi/Bhedihar	3.97	Kurmi	0.82
Dhobi	3.96	Limbu	0.75
Dom	3.96	Newar	0.60
Tajpuriya	3.72	Nuniya	0.53
Yakkha	3.59	Dura	0.43

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98 Caste/ethnic groups	Growth rate
Kami	3.40
Tatma/Tatwa	3.15
Musahar	3.07
Khatwe	2.97
Dhimal	2.97
Lodh	2.83
Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	2.76
Mali	2.75
Chepang	2.70
Kanu	2.67
Bote	2.66
Meche	2.57
Thakuri	2.42
Thami	2.20
Chamar/Harijan/Ram	2.20
Lohar	2.05
Chhetri	2.02
Kumal	1.98
Koiri/Kushwaha	1.98
Teli	1.94
Santhal	1.92
Damai/Dholi	1.92
Chhantyal	1.85
Rajbansi	1.85
Tamang	1.83
Hajam/Thakur	1.82
Musalman	1.76
Pahari	1.68
Gangai	1.66
Yadav	1.63
Sarki	1.61

98 Caste/ethnic groups	Growth rate
Sudhi	0.36
Thakali	0.18
Bhujel	0.09
Madhesi Brahman	-0.03
Rai	-0.24
Kayastha	-0.39
Gurung	-0.39
Lepcha	-0.61
Raute	-0.63
Jhangad/Uraon	-1.10
Rajput	-1.44
Sherpa	-3.14
Bhote	-3.63
Badhaee	-4.63
Kisan	-5.03
Sunuwar	-5.36
Sonar	-8.13
Rajbhar	-9.33
Kamar	-15.90
Chidimar	-22.83
Nurang	-41.44
Dalit Others	-1.10
Janajati Others	-14.55
Terai Others	46.28
Undefined Others	-27.19
Nepal	1.35

Annex 4.3: Percentage of population by urban/rural and caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Urban	Rural	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Urban	Rural	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Urban	Rural
Chidimar	77.0	23.0	Kumal	15.1	84.9	Yadav	8.0	92.0
Halkhor	74.1	25.9	Hajam/Thakur	15.1	84.9	Tatma/Tatwa	8.0	92.0
Marwadi	70.9	29.1	Musalman	15.1	84.9	Dusadh/Pas- awan	7.8	92.2
Aathpariya	69.8	30.2	Sanyasi/Dash- nami	14.9	85.1	Jhangad/Uraon	7.5	92.5
Dev	53.0	47.0	Teli	14.8	85.2	Koiri/Kush- waha	7.1	92.9
Newar	48.6	51.4	Dhandi	14.7	85.3	Kamar	6.3	93.7
Kayastha	48.5	51.5	Kalar	14.1	85.9	Chamar/Hari- jan	6.1	93.9
Thakali	44.9	55.1	Badhaee	13.6	86.4	Khawas	5.9	94.1
Bangali	40.9	59.1	Hayu	13.4	86.6	Gaderi/Bhed- har	5.5	94.5
Punjabi/Shikh	39.3	60.7	Tamang	13.2	86.8	Natuwa	5.5	94.5
Kisan	37.0	63.0	Damai/Dholi	13.1	86.9	Lepcha	5.3	94.7
Darai	32.2	67.8	Chhantyal	13.0	87.0	Rajdhob	5.2	94.8
Kathbaniyan	31.3	68.7	Sunuwar	12.6	87.4	Bahing	5.1	94.9
Rajput	29.4	70.6	Magar	12.3	87.7	Raji	5.1	94.9
Haluwai	28.3	71.7	Kahar	12.2	87.8	Pahari	5.0	95.0
Hill Brahman	27.1	72.9	Lodh	12.1	87.9	Baram	4.8	95.2
Bantaba	27.0	73.0	Mali	11.9	88.1	Musahar	4.7	95.3
Sonar	26.7	73.3	Rajbansi	11.7	88.3	Bantar/Sardar	4.2	95.8
Gurung	26.3	73.7	Majhi	11.5	88.5	Dhunia	4.0	96.0
Gaine	26.1	73.9	Dhanuk	11.3	88.7	Bin	3.8	96.2
Meche	25.9	74.1	Kori	11.2	88.8	Khatwe	3.6	96.4
Dhimal	25.0	75.0	Ghale	11.1	88.9	Santhal	3.4	96.6
Madhesi Brahman	23.5	76.5	Limbu	11.1	88.9	Byasi	3.2	96.8
Dom	23.1	76.9	Kurmi	11.1	88.9	Sarbaria	3.2	96.8
Kalwar	22.4	77.6	Lhomi	11.1	88.9	Kulung	2.8	97.2
Nurang	21.9	78.1	Bote	11.1	88.9	Walung	2.6	97.4
Kusunda	21.2	78.8	Sarki	10.9	89.1	Topkegola	2.6	97.4
Sudhi	20.6	79.4	Mallaha	10.8	89.2	Chepang	2.4	97.6
Dura	20.2	79.8	Khaling	10.8	89.2	M e w a h a n g		
Samgpang	20.1	79.9	Koche	10.5	89.5	Bala	2.1	97.9
Badi	20.0	80.0	Baraee	10.5	89.5	Yamphu	2.1	97.9
						Lhopa	1.9	98.1

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Urban	Rural
Chamling	19.6	80.4
Kushwadiya	18.0	82.0
Raute	17.8	82.2
Munda	17.7	82.3
Rajbhar	17.4	82.6
Loharung	17.0	83.0
Kanu	16.7	83.3
Chhetree	16.6	83.4
Bhote	16.3	83.7
Thakuri	16.1	83.9
Rai	16.1	83.9
Bhujel	15.8	84.2
Sherpa	15.6	84.4
Amat	15.2	84.8

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Urban	Rural
Tharu	10.2	89.8
Kami	10.2	89.8
Nuniya	10.0	90.0
Thulung	9.8	90.2
Lohar	9.3	90.7
Dhankar/Khari- kar	9.3	90.7
Jirel	9.2	90.8
Kumhar	9.0	91.0
Thami	8.7	91.3
Danuwar	8.7	91.3
Kewat	8.5	91.5
Yakkha	8.4	91.6
Dhobi	8.4	91.6
Hyolmo	8.1	91.9

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Urban	Rural
Tajpuriya	1.6	98.4
Gangai	1.3	98.7
Nachhiring	0.7	99.3
Dolpo	0.0	100.0
Dalit Others	16.1	83.9
Janajati Others	47.2	52.8
Terai Others	19.4	80.6
U n d e f i n e d Others	15.9	84.1
Foreigner	54.2	45.8
Nepal	17.1	82.9

Annex 4.4: Average household size by caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Average Household size
Dhunia	6.7
Lodh	6.7
Kanu	6.6
Musalman	6.5
Kahar	6.5
Kurmi	6.5
Dhandi	6.4
Natuwa	6.4
Halkhor	6.2
Dhobi	6.2
Lohar	6.2
Kumhar	6.1
Baraee	6.1
Gaderi/Bhedhar	6.1
Rajbhar	6.0
Mallaha	6.0
Sonar	5.9

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Average Household size
Dom	5.1
Amat	5.1
Madhesi Brahman	5.1
Punjabi/Shikh	5.1
Danuwar	5.1
Rajput	5.1
Raji	5.0
Musahar	5.0
Bantar/Sardar	5.0
Topkegola	5.0
Munda	5.0
Kalar	5.0
Majhi	4.9
Santhal	4.9
Thakuri	4.9
Chidimar	4.9
Yakkha	4.9

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Average Household size
Sarki	4.6
Kisan	4.6
Samgpang	4.5
Aathpariya	4.5
Thami	4.5
Aathpariya	4.5
Thami	4.5
Dolpo	4.5
Newar	4.5
Limbu	4.5
Yamphu	4.5
Rai	4.4
Rajbansi	4.4
Dura	4.4
Bhujel	4.4
Tajpuriya	4.4
Ghale	4.4

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Average Household size
Mali	5.9
Yadav	5.9
Badhaee	5.9
Bin	5.9
Chepang	5.9
Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	5.9
Nuniya	5.8
Hajam/Thakur	5.8
Koiri/Kushwaha	5.8
Rajdhob	5.8
Kathbaniyan	5.8
Hayu	5.7
Kalwar	5.7
Tatma/Tatwa	5.7
Chamar/Harijan/Ram	5.7
Dhanuk	5.7
Kewat	5.6
Teli	5.6
Dhankar/Kharikar	5.6
Kori	5.5
Haluwai	5.5
Khatwe	5.4
Tharu	5.4
Marwadi	5.4
Sarbaria	5.3
Kamar	5.2
Sudhi	5.2
Kusunda	5.2
Jhangad/Uraon	5.1
Kayastha	5.1

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Average Household size
Kami	4.9
Kushwadiya	4.9
Raute	4.8
Bangali	4.8
Kumal	4.8
Damai/Dholi	4.8
Sunuwar	4.8
Kulung	4.8
Darai	4.8
Badi	4.7
Pahari	4.7
Mewahang Bala	4.7
Magar	4.7
Thulung	4.7
Nurang	4.7
Koche	4.7
Bote	4.7
Nachhiring	4.7
Lepcha	4.7
Chhetree	4.7
Byasi	4.7
Sanyasi/Dashnami	4.6
Dev	4.6
Khaling	4.6
Tamang	4.6
Gaine	4.6
Bhote	4.6
Meche	4.6
Chhantyal	4.6
Gangai	4.6

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Average Household size
Chamling	4.4
Lhomi	4.4
Baram	4.3
Sherpa	4.3
Khawas	4.3
Bahing	4.3
Dhimal	4.3
Loharung	4.3
Bantaba	4.2
Hill Brahman	4.2
Hyolmo	4.2
Gurung	4.2
Lhopa	4.0
Walung	3.9
Jirel	3.9
Thakali	3.9
Dalit Others	5.3
Janajati Others	5.2
Terai Others	5.5
Undefined Others	3.6
Foreigner	4.4
Nepal	4.9

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Annex 4.5: Sex ratio by caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Sex ratio
Bangali	128
Dev	114
Rajput	114
Kalwar	111
Marwadi	111
Kanu	110
Kathbaniyan	110
Kori	109
Chidimar	108
Punjabi/Shikh	108
Teli	108
Madhesi Brahman	107
Kurmi	107
Raute	107
Badhaee	107
Nuniya	107
Yadav	107
Hajam/Thakur	106
Kayastha	106
Koiri/Kushwaha	106
Halkhor	106
Haluwai	106
Walung	105
Kumhar	105
Sonar	105
Rajbhar	105
Sudhi	105
Dhandi	105
Dhobi	104
Kahar	104
Natuwa	104
Baraee	104
Mali	104
Mallaha	103
Lepcha	103
Gaderi/Bhedhar	103

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Sex ratio
Dom	101
Sarbaria	101
Musalman	101
Dhanuk	101
Bin	101
Tatma/Tatwa	100
Kushwadiya	99
Gangai	99
Kewat	99
Thulung	98
Santhal	97
Dhunia	97
Nachhiring	97
Bantar/Sardar	97
Tharu	96
Loharung	96
Lhopa	96
Khatwe	96
Pahari	96
Rajbansi	96
Byasi	96
Majhi	95
Newar	95
Kulung	94
Thami	94
Kalar	94
Jhangad/Uraon	94
Tamang	94
Tajpuriya	94
Bote	93
Raji	93
Sherpa	93
Sunuwar	92
Yamphu	92
Jirel	92
Thakuri	92

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Sex ratio
Kumal	90
Rai	90
Badi	90
Bhote	90
Sanyasi/Dashnami	90
Bhujel	90
Yakkha	89
Bantaba	89
Darai	88
Bahing	87
Limbu	87
Thakali	87
Meche	87
Kami	87
Samgpang	87
Damai/Dholi	86
Magar	86
Chamling	86
Dhimal	85
Sarki	85
Ghale	85
Khaling	85
Gurung	84
Munda	83
Baram	83
Kusunda	82
Lhomi	82
Aathpariya	82
Dura	81
Chhantyal	80
Nurang	65
Dalit Others	92
Janajati Others	95
Terai Others	108
Undefined Others	97
Foreigner	126

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Sex ratio
Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	103
Lodh	103
Rajdhob	103
Chepang	102
Lohar	102
Dhankar/Kharikar	102
Chamar/Harijan/Ram	102
Amat	101
Musahar	101
Koche	101
Kamar	101

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Sex ratio
Dolpo	92
Hill Brahman	92
Hayu	92
Gaine	92
Kisan	92
Topkegola	91
Chhetree	91
Khawas	91
H yolmo	91
Mewahang Bala	91
Danuwar	91

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Sex ratio
Nepal	94

Annex 4.6: Mean age (year) by sex and caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both
Nurang	32.7	37.9	35.8	Tamang	26.1	26.5	26.3	Rajdhob	24.8	24.5	24.6
Thakali	33.7	34.5	34.1	Meche	26.2	26.4	26.3	Khatwe	24.6	24.6	24.6
Lhopa	33.9	33.5	33.7	Magar	25.8	26.7	26.3	Gaine	24.3	24.9	24.6
H yolmo	32.5	31.7	32.1	Chhetree	25.8	26.6	26.2	Bote	24.6	24.6	24.6
Newar	30.3	30.8	30.6	Sudhi	25.9	26.4	26.2	Tatma/Tatwa	24.5	24.6	24.6
Marwadi	29.9	29.9	29.9	Nachhiring	26.0	26.2	26.1	Sarbaria	24.5	24.5	24.5
Dev	30.1	29.2	29.7	Khaling	25.7	26.5	26.1	Hajam/Thakur	24.7	24.3	24.5
Gurung	28.9	29.9	29.5	Koche	26.3	25.7	26.0	Kahar	24.5	24.4	24.5
Hill Brahman	28.7	29.5	29.1	Tharu	26.1	25.8	25.9	Lodh	24.5	24.2	24.4
Walung	28.9	29.0	28.9	Bangali	26.2	25.6	25.9	Chamar/H/R	24.3	24.4	24.4
Chhantyal	27.9	29.7	28.9	Gangai	25.8	25.7	25.7	Dhobi	24.3	24.3	24.3
Dura	27.4	29.9	28.8	Thami	25.6	25.8	25.7	Mali	24.4	24.2	24.3
Aathpariya	28.8	28.7	28.7	Punjabi/Shikh	25.8	25.5	25.7	Dhankar/Kharikar	24.3	24.3	24.3
Ghale	28.6	28.8	28.7	Thakuri	25.1	26.1	25.6	Dusadh/Pasawan	24.3	24.2	24.3
Lepcha	29.7	27.7	28.7	Kulung	25.6	25.6	25.6	Sonar	24.2	24.4	24.3
Madhesi Brahman	28.5	28.5	28.5	Dhandi	25.4	25.7	25.5	Kanu	24.2	24.0	24.1
Jirel	27.7	29.1	28.4	Gaderi/Bhedhar	25.7	25.3	25.5	Damai/Dholi	23.7	24.4	24.1
Baram	28.1	28.6	28.4	Kori	25.5	25.3	25.4	Nuniya	23.9	24.1	24.0
Thulung	27.7	28.7	28.2	Topkegola	25.5	25.4	25.4	Kami	23.3	24.3	23.8
Kayastha	28.2	28.1	28.2	Yadav	25.4	25.3	25.4	Mallaha	23.8	23.9	23.8
Bahing	28.1	28.1	28.1	Pahari	25.3	25.3	25.3	Bin	23.7	23.8	23.8
Samgpang	27.4	28.2	27.8	Kalwar	25.3	25.4	25.3	Lohar	23.7	23.8	23.7
Khawas	27.8	27.8	27.8	Bantar/Sardar	25.2	25.4	25.3	Musahar	23.7	23.6	23.6
Dhimal	27.8	27.8	27.8	Hayu	25.2	25.4	25.3	Raji	23.2	23.9	23.6
Rajput	27.8	27.7	27.8	Kamar	25.1	25.5	25.3	Chidimar	22.2	24.9	23.5

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both
Yamphu	27.8	27.7	27.8	Teli	25.2	25.3	25.3	Badi	23.1	23.9	23.5
Loharung	27.3	28.1	27.7	Kathbaniyan	25.3	25.1	25.2	Dhunia	22.9	23.0	22.9
Kusunda	28.2	27.2	27.7	Danuwar	25.1	25.3	25.2	Raute	23.5	22.1	22.8
Lhomi	27.1	28.1	27.6	Haluwai	25.3	25.0	25.1	Musalman	22.7	22.6	22.6
Munda	26.3	28.3	27.4	Kushwadiya	24.3	25.9	25.1	Chepang	22.7	22.1	22.4
Limbu	26.9	27.6	27.3	Kumal	25.0	25.2	25.1	Natuwa	22.2	22.3	22.3
Chamling	27.0	27.4	27.3	Amat	25.0	25.2	25.1	Halkhor	21.8	21.9	21.9
Byasi	27.3	27.1	27.2	Kisan	25.3	24.8	25.1	Dom	21.2	21.3	21.3
Bantaba	26.9	27.3	27.1	Kewat	25.0	25.1	25.0	Dalit Others	22.5	23.9	23.2
Bhote	26.7	27.5	27.1	Badhaee	25.1	24.9	25.0	Janajati Others	26.8	26.5	26.6
Yakkha	26.8	27.4	27.1	Koiri/Kushwaha	25.1	24.9	25.0	Terai Others	24.7	24.8	24.7
Rai	26.9	27.3	27.1	Kumhar	25.1	24.9	25.0	Undefined Others	28.5	28.9	28.7
Mewahang Bala	27.2	26.8	27.0	Rajbhar	24.8	25.0	24.9	Foreigner	27.3	26.3	26.8
Bhujel	26.8	27.1	26.9	Jhangad/Uraon	24.8	24.9	24.9	Nepal	26.0	26.5	26.3
Sherpa	26.2	27.2	26.7	Kalar	24.3	25.4	24.9				
Dolpo	26.7	26.4	26.6	Baraee	25.0	24.8	24.9				
Sunuwar	26.3	26.8	26.6	Majhi	24.9	24.7	24.8				
Sanyasi/Dash-nami	26.2	26.8	26.5	Kurmi	24.9	24.7	24.8				
Rajbansi	26.4	26.5	26.5	Santhal	24.7	24.8	24.7				
Darai	26.3	26.4	26.3	Dhanuk	24.7	24.7	24.7				
Tajpuriya	26.4	26.2	26.3	Sarki	24.2	25.1	24.7				

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Annex 4.7: Dependency ratio by sex and caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both
Chepang	98.3	94.5	96.4	Sarbaria	77.1	72.4	74.7	Gangai	66.8	61.7	64.2
Dhunia	101.3	88.4	94.5	Sonar	74.3	74.6	74.4	Limbu	72.7	56.5	63.7
Natuwa	91.4	88.4	90.0	Badhaee	74.0	74.2	74.1	Aathpariya	74.8	55.0	63.4
Dom	91.1	86.6	88.8	Kumal	82.3	66.1	73.4	Bhote	67.2	59.1	62.8
Musalman	91.6	84.7	88.1	Hajam/Thakur	71.9	74.2	73.0	Thulung	71.4	55.1	62.8
Bin	89.6	85.7	87.6	Topkegola	71.5	74.2	72.9	Rai	69.4	56.5	62.3
Hayu	91.7	82.5	86.8	Pahari	74.9	70.1	72.4	Samgpang	71.4	52.2	60.6
Lohar	88.2	84.4	86.3	Santhal	73.6	70.9	72.2	Gurung	70.5	52.8	60.4
Nuniya	86.2	83.0	84.6	Mewahang	77.6	67.1	71.9	Jirel	68.4	52.6	59.8
Mallaha	85.5	83.0	84.3	Thakuri	79.3	65.1	71.6	Darai	68.4	52.6	59.6
Tatma/Tatwa	86.4	80.9	83.6	Kalar	80.0	64.2	71.5	Chamling	65.1	54.0	59.0
Kami	96.9	72.3	82.9	Teli	71.7	70.9	71.3	Loharung	69.0	49.4	58.4
Dhobi	84.2	80.3	82.3	Byasi	73.2	68.9	71.0	Punjabi/Shikh	57.6	59.0	58.2
Dusadh/P/Pasi	83.0	80.7	81.9	Rajbhar	71.6	68.8	70.2	Tharu	59.6	53.6	56.5
Lodh	83.5	80.0	81.8	Lhomi	68.8	70.8	69.9	Tajpuriya	59.3	53.4	56.2
Khatwe	86.4	75.9	80.9	Magar	81.5	61.0	69.9	Bantaba	60.6	51.6	55.7
Chamar/H/R	83.3	78.4	80.8	Bote	75.8	64.6	69.8	Walung	58.7	52.4	55.5
Thami	85.0	76.9	80.7	Gaine	77.7	62.5	69.4	Hyolmo	55.2	55.8	55.5
Raute	77.8	84.0	80.7	Yakkha	77.8	62.3	69.2	Rajbansi	59.1	52.1	55.4
Kahar	80.9	78.5	79.7	Sunuwar	74.8	64.1	69.0	Madhesi Brah- man	56.3	54.2	55.3
Raji	84.0	75.4	79.4	Sanyasi/Dash	77.4	62.1	69.0	Hill Brahman	60.1	50.1	54.7
Musahar	80.9	77.9	79.4	Kalwar	68.2	69.6	68.9	Rajput	52.5	55.7	54.0
Gaderi/Bhedhar	81.3	77.3	79.3	Dolpo	69.4	67.6	68.5	Bangali	49.2	59.0	53.4
Sarki	94.5	67.9	79.2	Majhi	72.0	64.8	68.2	Meche	56.4	49.9	52.9
Damai/Dholi	90.8	70.2	79.1	Tamang	72.5	64.2	68.1	Munda	59.5	46.3	52.0
Kanu	77.3	81.0	79.0	Yamphu	74.1	62.9	68.1	Lepcha	52.5	50.2	51.4
Kumhar	78.0	79.5	78.7	Ghale	77.7	60.3	67.9	Thakali	55.7	46.8	50.8
Dhandi	81.5	74.0	77.8	Chhetree	75.3	61.7	67.9	Khawas	54.7	46.6	50.4
Halkhor	81.8	73.5	77.7	Bhujel	76.7	60.6	67.8	Dev	48.3	51.6	49.8
Dhankar/Khari- kar	82.1	73.4	77.7	Kusunda	70.8	64.8	67.5	Dhimal	57.2	44.1	49.8
Nachhiring	86.1	70.2	77.7	Amat	68.9	66.0	67.5	Kayastha	48.7	50.3	49.5
Kori	76.4	78.4	77.3	Chhantyal	84.6	55.7	67.3	Newar	49.3	43.4	46.2
Baraee	78.1	76.1	77.1	Sudhi	69.0	65.5	67.3	Lhopa	47.8	41.0	44.3
Kurmi	76.9	77.4	77.1	Chidimar	72.7	61.7	67.2	Marwadi	44.3	42.3	43.3
Badi	85.4	70.0	76.9	Khaling	78.2	58.8	67.1	Nurang	41.0	44.8	43.3
Dhanuk	79.1	74.7	76.9	Bantar/Sardar	70.7	63.2	66.8	Dalit Others	94.6	79.8	86.5
Mali	77.1	75.3	76.2	Danuwar	73.4	61.1	66.7	Janati Others	52.6	51.8	52.2
Kushwadiya	83.3	69.5	76.1	Dura	79.9	57.1	66.5	Terai Others	68.6	70.3	69.4

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both
Kewat	79.4	72.2	75.7	Bahing	68.9	64.1	66.3	Undefined			
Kamar	73.9	77.6	75.7	Jhangad/Uraon	68.9	62.7	65.7	Others	59.6	53.0	56.2
Rajdhob	76.5	74.8	75.7	Haluwai	65.6	65.8	65.7	Foreigner	38.0	51.6	43.7
Baram	93.1	63.3	75.6	Kathbaniyan	63.5	66.1	64.7	Nepal	72.8	62.2	67.2
Koiri/Kushwaha	75.3	75.0	75.2	Kisan	67.2	62.1	64.5				
Kulung	79.4	71.0	75.0	Sherpa	68.6	60.8	64.4				
Yadav	75.8	73.9	74.9	Koche	69.3	59.5	64.3				

Annex 4.8: Percentage of currently married population by caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Currently married	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Currently married	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Currently married
Dom	72.8	Sudhi	62.5	Dev	58.1
Nurang	72.2	Halkhor	62.2	Hayu	58.1
Dhandi	69.7	Kalwar	62.1	Kisan	58.0
Chidimar	68.6	Kumal	62.1	Bahing	57.6
Sarbaria	67.9	Munda	62.0	Sunuwar	57.4
Lodh	67.7	Musalman	61.7	Raji	57.2
Kori	67.2	Bangali	61.5	Loharung	57.1
Musahar	67.0	Haluwai	61.1	Yamphu	57.1
Khatwe	66.9	Gangai	61.0	Chamling	57.0
Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	66.5	Sanyasi/Dashnami	60.9	Samgpang	56.8
Bin	66.1	Tharu	60.9	Khaling	56.8
Kurmi	65.9	Thami	60.9	Limbu	56.5
Gaderi/Bhedhar	65.8	Newar	60.9	Lepcha	56.5
Nuniya	65.7	Majhi	60.8	Rai	56.4
Chamar/Harijan/Ram	65.7	Kathbaniyan	60.8	Topkegola	56.3
Bantar/Sardar	65.6	Khawas	60.7	Aathpariya	56.1
Kahar	65.6	Rajput	60.7	Kulung	56.1
Dhankar/Kharikar	65.5	Badi	60.7	Jirel	55.7
Dhobi	65.5	Gaine	60.7	Thulung	55.7
Mallaha	65.5	Hill Brahman	60.7	Lhomi	55.5
Tatma/Tatwa	65.4	Damai/Dholi	60.6	Nachhiring	55.1
Kusunda	65.1	Bote	60.6	Lhopa	54.9
Kumhar	65.0	Santhal	60.5	Sherpa	54.4
Mali	64.9	Yakkha	60.3	Bhote	54.3
Kewat	64.8	Kami	60.2	Dolpo	49.8
Raute	64.8	Darai	60.1	Dalit Others	59.6
Yadav	64.8	Sarki	60.1	Janajati Others	57.3

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Currently married
Dhanuk	64.7
Kanu	64.5
Hajam/Thakur	64.4
Natuwa	64.4
Kamar	64.4
Baraee	64.4
Badhaee	64.3
Dhunia	64.2
Rajbhar	64.1
Amat	64.0
Rajdhob	63.9
Teli	63.8
Koche	63.5
Walung	63.4
Marwadi	63.3
Koiri/Kushwaha	63.2
Sonar	63.2
Chepang	63.2
Lohar	63.1
Kushwadiya	62.9
Madhesi Brahman	62.6

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Currently married
Chhantyal	60.1
Chhetree	60.0
Danuwar	60.0
Bhujel	59.9
Kalar	59.9
Pahari	59.8
Kayastha	59.7
Punjabi/Shikh	59.6
Dhimal	59.6
Baram	59.6
Bantaba	59.6
Thakali	59.4
Ghale	59.4
Tamang	59.3
Magar	59.3
Rajbansi	59.2
Hyolmo	59.0
Tajpuriya	58.9
Gurung	58.8
Thakuri	58.8
Byasi	58.7

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Currently married
Terai Others	63.0
Undefined Others	62.1
Foreigner	57.6
Nepal	60.9

Annex 4.9: Mean age at first marriage (year) by caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Fe male	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both
Lhopa	26.2	24.2	25.1	Gangai	21.9	17.8	19.7	Mali	19.1	16.4	17.7
Dolpo	22.9	21.2	22.0	Baram	21.0	17.8	19.1	Mallaha	18.9	16.4	17.6
Thakali	24.5	20.5	22.3	Meche	21.7	17.7	19.4	Badhaee	19.2	16.4	17.7
Topkegola	21.2	20.3	20.7	Chhetree	21.2	17.7	19.2	Musahar	18.9	16.4	17.6
Lepcha	24.3	20.2	22.2	Bhujel	21.6	17.7	19.3	Kumhar	19.0	16.4	17.6
Kulung	22.7	20.0	21.3	Hayu	21.0	17.7	19.2	Kanu	19.0	16.4	17.7
Thulung	22.9	20.0	21.3	Jhangad/Uraon	20.7	17.7	19.0	Lohar	19.0	16.3	17.6
Hyolmo	22.7	20.0	21.2	Raji	20.5	17.6	18.9	Hajam/Thakur	19.1	16.3	17.7
Limbu	22.6	20.0	21.1	Darai	20.7	17.6	18.9	Dhanuk	19.2	16.3	17.6
Nachhiring	22.5	19.9	21.1	Punjabi/Shikh	21.6	17.6	19.5	Gaderi/Bhedhar	18.9	16.3	17.5
Chhantyal	22.9	19.7	20.9	Kisan	21.7	17.5	19.3	Kewat	19.0	16.2	17.4
Samgpang	23.1	19.7	21.1	Santhal	21.3	17.5	19.2	Kurmi	18.6	16.2	17.3
Walung	23.0	19.7	21.3	Pahari	20.1	17.5	18.7	Tatma/Tatwa	18.7	16.1	17.3
Sherpa	21.7	19.6	20.6	Kalar	20.6	17.5	18.9	Dhobi	18.5	16.1	17.2

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both
Khaling	22.7	19.6	20.9	Madhesi Brahman	21.2	17.4	19.2	Bin	18.5	16.1	17.2
Byasi	23.4	19.6	21.3	Sanyasi/Dashnami	20.9	17.4	18.9	Khatwe	18.5	16.1	17.2
Loharung	22.2	19.6	20.8	Kushwadiya	20.0	17.4	18.5	Dhunia	18.4	16.1	17.1
Aathpariya	21.9	19.5	20.5	Majhi	20.2	17.3	18.6	Amat	19.7	16.1	17.7
Mewahang Bala	22.5	19.4	20.8	Hill Brahman	22.3	17.2	19.4	Dusadh/Pas/Pasi	18.4	16.0	17.1
Newar	23.0	19.4	21.1	Sarki	20.2	17.2	18.4	Chamar/H/Ram	18.2	15.9	17.0
Bantaba	22.7	19.4	20.9	Kami	20.1	17.2	18.4	Raute	20.0	15.8	17.8
Jirel	22.1	19.4	20.6	Bangali	21.9	17.1	19.6	Kahar	17.8	15.7	16.7
Rai	22.5	19.4	20.8	Rajdhob	20.1	17.1	18.5	Lodh	17.4	15.6	16.4
Yamphu	22.0	19.3	20.5	Kusunda	19.9	17.1	18.2	Dhankar/Khari- kar	17.9	15.4	16.6
Marwadi	23.3	19.3	21.2	Kamar	20.4	17.1	18.6	Kori	17.7	15.4	16.5
Bahing	21.9	19.2	20.4	Kumal	19.9	17.1	18.3	Halkhor	18.0	15.3	16.6
Yakkha	21.9	19.2	20.4	Danuwar	19.4	17.1	18.1	Dhandi	17.4	15.3	16.3
Bhote	21.6	19.1	20.2	Kathbaniyan	20.5	17.0	18.7	Dom	16.1	13.9	14.9
Dev	24.0	19.1	21.5	Rajbhar	19.5	17.0	18.2	Chidimar	17.0	13.8	15.3
Gurung	22.6	19.0	20.5	Sudhi	20.7	17.0	18.7	Dalit Others	19.5	16.7	17.9
Lhomi	21.3	19.0	20.0	Gaine	19.9	17.0	18.3	Janajati Others	21.7	17.9	19.6
Ghale	21.8	19.0	20.2	Damai/Dholi	19.9	17.0	18.2	Terai Others	19.6	16.6	18.0
Chamling	22.3	18.9	20.3	Badi	20.0	17.0	18.2	Undefined Oth- ers	21.0	17.8	19.2
Kayastha	23.0	18.7	20.7	Kalwar	20.3	16.9	18.6	Foreigner	23.2	19.5	21.5
Tajpuriya	22.6	18.7	20.4	Tharu	19.2	16.9	18.0	Nepal	20.7	17.5	18.9
Dura	22.4	18.5	20.0	Haluwai	20.6	16.9	18.6				
Dhimal	21.5	18.4	19.7	Natuwa	19.4	16.8	18.1				
Tamang	20.7	18.4	19.4	Bantar/Sardar	19.5	16.8	18.1				
Sunuwar	21.3	18.4	19.7	Sarbaria	20.1	16.8	18.3				
Thami	20.5	18.3	19.3	Chepang	19.4	16.7	18.0				
Koche	22.6	18.3	20.3	Bote	19.9	16.7	18.1				
Rajbansi	22.5	18.3	20.2	Koiri/Kush- waha	19.7	16.6	18.1				
Nurang	22.1	18.3	19.6	Teli	19.6	16.6	18.0				
Rajput	22.0	18.1	20.0	Sonar	19.6	16.5	18.0				
Magar	21.0	18.1	19.3	Musalman	19.2	16.5	17.8				
Munda	21.3	18.0	19.3	Baraee	19.1	16.4	17.7				
Thakuri	21.7	18.0	19.6	Yadav	19.1	16.4	17.7				
Khawas	21.0	17.9	19.3	Nuniya	19.1	16.4	17.7				

Annex 4.10: Child-women ratio by caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Child- Woman ratio	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Child- woman ratio	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Child- Woman ratio
Dom	698	Damai/Dholi	440	Rajput	302
Chepang	666	Rajbhar	439	Limbu	302
Natuwa	638	Chidimar	434	Rai	301
Raute	619	Kulung	433	Madhesi Brahman	290
Kori	577	Teli	430	Chamling	289
Dhunia	572	Kalar	422	Aathpariya	289
Nuniya	566	Amat	422	Lhomi	284
Bin	563	Kalwar	420	Lepcha	282
Musalman	555	Sarki	420	Tharu	280
Mallaha	551	Bantar/Sardar	410	Kusunda	274
Lohar	551	Koche	408	Kayastha	272
Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	546	Thakuri	402	Dev	268
Musahar	544	Haluwai	396	Bantaba	263
Dhankar/Kharikar	528	Pahari	395	Darai	261
Kanu	528	Kumal	392	Gurung	260
Chamar/Harijan/Ram	528	Walung	391	Samg pang	260
Dhobi	527	Kathbaniyan	390	Meche	259
Tatma/Tatwa	527	Yakkha	390	Hill Brahman	255
Lodh	518	Gaine	383	Marwadi	252
Dhandi	506	Sudhi	381	Dura	250
Kumhar	505	Gangai	381	Jirel	246
Sarbaria	503	Bangali	379	Munda	244
Kahar	503	Majhi	369	Khawas	242
Khatwe	501	Mewahang Bala	369	Dhimal	238
Byasi	499	Jhangad/Uraon	365	Lhopa	236
Kurmi	496	Chhetree	360	Hyolmo	229
Halkhor	491	Punjabi/Shikh	356	Newar	209
Gaderi/Bhedhar	490	Bote	355	Thakali	207
Kushwadiya	485	Sanyasi/Dashnami	354	Nurang	185
Badhaee	481	Kisan	353	Dalit Others	552
Raji	479	Dolpo	348	Janajati Others	244
Topkegola	479	Khaling	343	Terai Others	437
Rajdhob	477	Sunuwar	342	Undefined Others	286
Mali	474	Magar	341	Foreigner	307
Sonar	473	Tamang	338	Nepal	361

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Child- Woman ratio
Hayu	472
Baraee	472
Dhanuk	471
Kami	467
Hajam/Thakur	461
Thami	459
Yadav	454
Koiri/Kushwaha	454
Kamar	454
Santhal	448
Badi	446
Nachhiring	446
Kewat	445

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Child- woman ratio
Yamphu	338
Chhantyal	338
Danuwar	334
Baram	333
Bhote	331
Bahing	330
Tajpuriya	326
Ghale	321
Bhujel	319
Sherpa	318
Thulung	314
Rajbansi	313
Loharung	304

Annex 4.11: In-migrants as percentage of total population aged 5+ years by caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	In- migrants
Dev	15.0
Punjabi/Shikh	13.5
Natuwa	12.7
Bangali	12.3
Bantaba	12.3
Hill Brahman	11.3
Thakali	10.6
Kayastha	10.0
Chhantyal	9.4
Marwadi	9.3
Kalar	9.2
Chamling	8.6
Rajput	8.5
Dura	8.4
Thakuri	8.3
Gurung	8.2
Badi	8.1
Gaine	8.0
Rai	7.9
Chhetree	7.7
Lhomi	7.3

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	In- migrants
Sudhi	5.0
Haluwai	4.9
Lepcha	4.9
Kushwadiya	4.7
Rajdhob	4.7
Badhaee	4.7
Kumal	4.7
Musalman	4.6
Sonar	4.6
Teli	4.6
Bhote	4.6
Kori	4.5
Yakkha	4.5
Dhandi	4.4
Rajbhar	4.4
Thulung	4.3
Nurang	4.3
Hayu	4.2
Mali	4.2
Thami	4.2
Kamar	4.2

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	In- migrants
Kusunda	3.2
Danuwar	2.8
Dhunia	2.8
Nuniya	2.8
Jhangad/Uraon	2.8
Sarbaria	2.8
Tharu	2.6
Musahar	2.6
Khawas	2.5
Meche	2.4
Bantar/Sardar	2.4
Khatwe	2.2
Tajpuriya	2.2
Yamphu	2.1
Aathpariya	2.1
Mewahang Bala	2.1
Chepang	2.1
Rajbansi	2.1
Lodh	2.0
Satar/Santhal	1.9
Baram	1.9

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	In- migrants
Sanyasi/Dashnami	7.0
Limbu	6.8
Jirel	6.7
Newar	6.7
Koche	6.6
Tamang	6.5
Loharung	6.5
Samgpang	6.4
Dom	6.3
Kalwar	6.3
Magar	6.2
Sunuwar	6.0
Majhi	6.0
Topkegola	5.9
Sherpa	5.9
Madhesi Brahman	5.8
Bhujel	5.8
Kathbaniyan	5.7
Damai/Dholi	5.6
Halkhor	5.6
Khaling	5.5
Amat	5.4
Kami	5.2
Hajam/Thakur	5.1
Ghale	5.1
Kanu	5.0

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	In- migrants
Gaderi/Bhedhar	4.1
Munda	4.1
Pahari	4.1
Byasi/Sanka	4.1
Sarki	4.1
Dhanuk	4.0
Kumhar	3.9
Koiri/Kushwaha	3.9
Dhimal	3.9
H yolmo	3.9
Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	3.8
Kulung	3.8
Mallaha	3.8
Darai	3.8
Lohar	3.8
Kisan	3.7
Yadav	3.6
Kurmi	3.6
Dhobi	3.6
Bin	3.5
Baraee	3.4
Tatma/Tatwa	3.3
Kahar	3.2
Kewat	3.2
Chamar/Harijan/Ram	3.2
Bote	3.2

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	In- migrants
Chidimar	1.5
Bahing	1.5
Gangai	1.3
Raji	1.1
Dolpo	0.8
Dhankar/Kharikar	0.6
Lhopa	0.5
Nachhiring	0.4
Walung	0.0
Raute	0.0
Dalit Others	5.2
Janajati Others	17.7
Terai Others	7.8
Undefined Others	7.4
Foreigner	21.4
Nepal	6.4

Annex 4.12: Absentees as percentage of total population by caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Absentee population
H yolmo	23.3
Thakali	14.7
Gurung	14.5
Chhantyal	13.3
Lhopa	12.5
Dura	12.4
Kami	12.0
Sarki	11.6
Ghale	11.5

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Absentee population
Kewat	6.0
Yamphu	5.9
Khatwe	5.8
Lohar	5.8
Khawas	5.7
Newar	5.7
Danuwar	5.7
Sudhi	5.7
Musalman	5.6

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Absentee population
Rajbhar	3.4
Teli	3.4
Koiri/Kushwaha	3.4
Santhal	3.3
Hajam/Thakur	3.3
Mallaha	3.3
Nuniya	3.2
Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	3.2
Rajdhob	3.1

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Absentee population	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Absentee population	125 Caste/ethnic groups	Absentee population
Limbu	11.1	Nachhiring	5.5	Lodh	3.0
Dhimal	11.1	Majhi	5.4	Kahar	3.0
Badi	11.0	Nurang	5.4	Kumhar	2.8
Magar	10.9	Dhanuk	5.3	Sonar	2.8
Damai/Dholi	10.9	Tatma/Tatwa	5.1	Natuwa	2.6
Aathpariya	10.7	Tajpuriya	5.0	Marwadi	2.6
Samgpang	10.6	Amat	4.9	Sarbaria	2.6
Walung	10.5	Koche	4.8	Kayastha	2.5
Chamling	10.3	Gaderi/Bhedhar	4.8	Rajput	2.5
Darai	9.6	Bhote	4.7	Kalwar	2.4
Gaine	9.5	Rajbansi	4.7	Kamar	2.4
Baram	9.3	Kalar	4.6	Musahar	2.3
Yakkha	9.3	Kulung	4.5	Dev	2.2
Bote	9.1	Dolpo	4.4	Kathbaniyan	2.2
Rai	9.0	Lepcha	4.4	Kurmi	2.0
Bhujel	8.9	Bin	4.3	Pahari	1.6
Kisan	8.9	Gangai	4.2	Kori	1.3
Kumal	8.9	Raute	4.2	Kanu	1.3
Sherpa	8.9	Baraee	4.2	Dom	1.2
Thulung	8.5	Madhesi Brahman	4.1	Chepang	1.1
Sanyasi/Dashnami	8.5	Dhandi	4.0	Halkhor	1.0
Meche	8.5	Kushwadiya	4.0	Chidimar	0.4
Hill Brahman	8.4	Haluwai	4.0	Dalit Others	13.9
Chhetree	8.1	Jhangad/Uraon	4.0	Janajati Others	4.8
Bantaba	7.9	Dhankar/Kharikar	3.9	Terai Others	3.9
Mewahang Bala	7.8	Bantar/Sardar	3.8	Undefined Others	8.2
Khaling	7.6	Punjabi/Shikh	3.8	Foreigner	3.0
Thakuri	7.5	Badhaee	3.8	Nepal	7.3
Topkegola	7.4	Mali	3.7		
Lhomi	7.3	Yadav	3.7		
Sunuwar	7.3	Chamar/Ha/Ram	3.7		
Loharung	7.3	Bangali	3.6		
Raji	6.9	Thami	3.6		
Tamang	6.9	Munda	3.5		
Bahing	6.7	Hayu	3.5		
Kusunda	6.6	Dhobi	3.5		
Jirel	6.5	Tharu	3.4		
Dhunia	6.2	Byasi	3.4		

Annex 4.13: Percentage of population who speak Nepali as mother tongue by caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Nepali as mother tongue	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Nepali as mother tongue	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Nepali as mother tongue
Gaine	99.75	Danuwar	13.85	Koiri/Kushwaha	1.80
Bhujel	93.41	Dhimal	12.52	Kulung	1.76
Sarki	91.85	Kalar	12.35	Lodh	1.74
Hill Brahman	90.81	Thulung	12.33	Musahar	1.65
Damai/Dholi	89.55	Lohar	12.07	Topkegola	1.58
Kami	89.03	Tamang	11.68	Dhanuk	1.57
Baram	84.30	Marwadi	11.47	Badhace	1.53
Chhetree	83.25	Loharung	11.27	Kori	1.48
Thakuri	82.12	Lepcha	11.12	Kumhar	1.48
Badi	81.46	Raji	11.00	Rajbhar	1.38
Sanyasi/Dashnami	80.79	Limbu	9.71	Mallaha	1.36
Kumal	76.32	Bangali	9.69	Sarbaria	1.35
Byasi	75.20	Sherpa	9.53	Dhobi	1.23
Pahari	68.75	Meche	9.47	Chamar/Harijan/Ram	1.15
Dura	60.05	Madhesi Brahman	8.43	Kurmi	1.13
Thakali	60.02	Yakkha	7.91	Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	1.10
Kisan	56.53	Punjabi/Shikh	7.83	Kahar	1.10
Magar	55.61	Mewahang Bala	7.19	Kewat	1.09
Majhi	55.36	Aathpariya	6.79	Barace	1.07
Kusunda	54.95	Rajput	5.98	Yadav	1.05
Chhantyal	53.62	Sonar	5.81	Halkhor	0.97
Nurang	50.36	Kathbaniyan	5.51	Gangai	0.96
Kushwadiya	49.78	Chidimar	5.50	Kanu	0.96
Hayu	46.77	Haluwai	5.41	Rajdhob	0.95
Bhote	43.25	Dev	5.08	Gaderi/Bhedhar	0.80
Bote	40.36	Kayastha	4.96	Tatma/Tatwa	0.79
Raute	39.16	Yamphu	4.92	Nuniya	0.77
Gurung	37.82	Walung	4.88	Dhankar/Kharikar	0.71
Ghale	37.20	Natuwa	4.15	Khatwe	0.67
Newar	35.48	Hajam/Thakur	3.89	Bin	0.57
Sunuwar	32.75	Bahing	3.81	Lhopa	0.53
Kamar	32.62	Santhal	3.58	Dhunia	0.40
Koche	32.23	Mali	3.46	Dolpo	0.07
Bantar/Sardar	31.62	Dom	3.34	Dalit Others	49.13
Darai	30.17	Hyalmo	3.19	Janajati Others	27.20

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Nepali as mother tongue
Chepang	29.18
Lhomi	25.03
Bantaba	23.44
Chamling	22.69
Samgpang	21.06
Rai	20.92
Munda	20.30
Thami	17.54
Khawas	15.89
Khaling	14.77
Jirel	14.50

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Nepali as mother tongue
Kalwar	3.04
Rajbansi	3.00
Tharu	2.89
Nachhiring	2.78
Dhandi	2.72
Teli	2.57
Amat	2.45
Musalman	2.38
Jhangad/Uraon	2.22
Tajpuriya	1.94
Sudhi	1.83

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Nepali as mother tongue
Terai Others	8.47
Undefined Others	31.25
Foreigner	9.86
Nepal	44.6

Annex 4.14: Percentage of population aged 5+ years that are literate by sex and caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Fe male	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Fe male	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Fe- male	Both
Kayastha	92.1	82.1	87.3	Nachhiring	73.0	57.0	64.8	Kewat	61.6	38.3	49.8
Marwadi	90.8	82.9	87.1	Tharu	73.9	55.3	64.4	Mali	60.7	38.2	49.7
Dev	90.9	77.1	84.5	Ghale	72.6	55.9	63.5	Jhangad/Uraon	57.8	41.9	49.6
Hill Brahman	90.6	74.0	81.9	Gangai	75.0	52.1	63.4	Dhanuk	61.0	36.4	48.8
Madhesi Brah- man	88.9	72.6	81.1	Baram	70.6	57.3	63.3	Kahar	60.4	35.7	48.3
Thakali	89.1	73.0	80.5	Kumal	71.5	55.6	63.1	Santhal	56.0	40.8	48.3
Newar	87.9	72.7	80.1	Badi	72.0	54.8	62.8	Chepang	54.5	41.7	48.2
Rajput	86.8	72.1	79.9	Kusunda	71.2	55.6	62.8	Dhandi	60.2	35.1	47.8
Loharung	87.6	71.5	79.4	Tajpuriya	74.5	51.7	62.7	Kumhar	59.0	35.5	47.6
Bantaba	84.9	72.2	78.1	Tamang	71.0	54.8	62.6	Lhopa	59.2	34.4	46.6
Chamling	84.6	70.6	77.1	Damai/Dholi	70.8	55.5	62.5	Sarbaria	57.3	34.7	46.2
Dura	87.7	68.4	76.9	H yolmo	70.4	54.4	62.0	Nurang	57.8	37.9	45.6
Samgpang	82.9	69.9	75.9	Kami	70.6	54.7	62.0	Bantar/Sardar	53.7	34.9	44.1
Lepcha	80.4	70.9	75.7	Teli	73.6	48.8	61.6	Lodh	56.7	30.6	43.8
Limbu	82.3	68.2	74.7	Walung	69.7	53.3	61.6	Musalman	53.0	34.0	43.6
Gurung	83.2	67.0	74.4	Bote	67.6	54.8	61.0	Dhobi	54.2	31.5	43.1
Rai	81.4	68.0	74.3	Sarki	69.3	53.7	60.7	Raute	47.3	37.7	42.7
Thulung	80.7	68.1	74.3	Hayu	70.4	51.6	60.4	Dhankar/Kharikar	49.1	32.6	40.9
Thakuri	84.0	64.3	73.7	Sonar	70.1	48.5	59.6	Chidimar	47.1	34.1	40.6
Bahing	83.4	64.7	73.4	Byasi	71.7	47.4	59.3	Tatma/Tatwa	49.8	28.4	39.1
Aathpariya	79.7	67.4	72.9	Rajdhob	73.6	43.9	59.0	Halkhor	45.6	29.3	37.7
Chhantyal	83.0	64.8	72.7	Kisan	63.6	53.9	58.5	Mallaha	47.8	26.4	37.3
Chhetree	82.7	62.7	72.1	Danuwar	68.7	48.8	58.2	Chamar/Harijan/ Ram	46.2	27.7	37.0

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Fe male	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Fe male	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Fe- male	Both
Kathbaniyan	81.5	60.9	71.7	Majhi	65.5	50.9	58.0	Khatwe	46.5	25.4	35.7
Magar	79.9	63.6	71.1	Topkegola	65.9	50.4	57.7	Dusadh/Pasawan/ Pasi	43.9	26.5	35.4
Punjabi/Shikh	80.9	60.5	71.1	Bhote	67.3	49.0	57.6	Nuniya	45.3	24.4	35.2
Darai	77.7	65.3	71.0	Thami	64.7	50.5	57.4	Dhunia	44.8	24.2	34.3
Khaling	78.4	64.0	70.5	Koiri/Kush- waha	68.5	44.7	57.0	Kori	43.5	23.9	34.1
Sanyasi/Dash- nami	80.1	61.7	70.3	Munda	70.3	45.6	56.8	Natuwa	40.5	23.1	32.0
Kalwar	79.9	58.2	69.7	Baraee	69.5	43.5	56.7	Dolpo	38.5	19.0	28.4
Dhimal	78.6	61.9	69.5	Koche	67.0	46.2	56.7	Bin	36.0	19.0	27.5
Bhujel	75.8	62.2	68.6	Kamar	67.2	45.2	56.3	Musahar	26.9	16.7	21.8
Gaine	76.9	61.0	68.6	Badhaee	67.9	42.4	55.6	Dom	26.4	14.2	20.3
Meche	78.2	59.7	68.3	Hajam/Thakur	67.2	42.7	55.4	Dalit Others	68.3	45.4	56.3
Mewahang Bala	76.2	61.0	68.2	Rajbhar	66.3	43.1	55.0	Janajati Others	75.7	56.0	65.6
Rajbansi	78.3	56.7	67.2	Raji	61.6	47.4	54.3	Terai Others	65.3	41.3	53.7
Bangali	75.5	55.4	66.8	Kanu	66.0	40.8	54.1	Undefined Others	70.4	54.9	62.5
Yamphu	75.6	58.7	66.8	Lhomi	64.6	44.4	53.5	Foreigner	81.3	67.0	75.0
Kulung	73.5	60.2	66.6	Lohar	65.4	40.8	53.2	Nepal	75.1	57.4	65.9
Sudhi	77.4	55.2	66.5	Pahari	60.2	46.3	53.1				
Haluwai	76.6	55.8	66.5	Amat	65.4	39.8	52.7				
Jirel	76.9	57.0	66.4	Yadav	64.1	38.6	51.8				
Yakkha	74.5	59.1	66.3	Kalar	59.3	44.3	51.4				
Sherpa	75.1	57.5	66.0	Kushwadiya	58.8	43.2	50.9				
Sunuwar	73.3	58.5	65.6	Kurmi	62.4	37.1	50.2				
Khawas	77.0	54.2	65.0	Gaderi/Bhedhar	61.7	38.2	50.2				

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Annex 4.15: Percentage of population aged 5-25 years who are currently attending school/college by sex and caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both
Hill Brahman	83.0	75.8	79.3	Khawas	68.8	63.9	66.2	Rajbhar	58.0	51.5	54.9
Jirel	78.9	74.1	76.4	Kalwar	68.6	63.3	66.1	Kanu	59.1	50.0	54.8
Aathpariya	78.4	73.8	75.9	Sunuwar	68.4	63.8	66.0	Kurmi	58.3	49.3	54.0
Thakuri	79.1	71.8	75.4	Rajbansi	68.4	62.5	65.4	Koche	61.7	46.5	54.0
Kayastha	77.0	72.4	74.8	Tamang	67.5	62.9	65.2	Kumhar	58.7	48.7	53.9
Baram	81.5	68.2	74.4	Damai/Dholi	69.6	61.1	65.1	Bantar/Sardar	58.2	49.0	53.5
Newar	76.5	72.2	74.3	Rajdhob	73.3	56.2	64.9	Bangali	52.8	53.6	53.2
Dura	77.1	71.6	74.2	Kathbaniyan	67.3	62.3	64.9	Mali	56.7	48.8	52.8
Chhetree	77.6	69.2	73.2	Kumal	69.4	60.7	64.8	Kahar	57.0	48.1	52.7
Yamphu	75.7	70.4	73.0	Gaine	68.6	61.3	64.8	Dhandi	58.9	45.4	52.2
Thakali	77.3	68.5	72.7	Meche	68.4	61.6	64.7	Chepang	53.6	49.8	51.7
Bahing	74.7	70.5	72.4	Thami	65.7	63.8	64.7	Lodh	57.0	43.9	50.6
Gurung	75.8	69.2	72.3	Raji	65.0	63.6	64.3	Dhobi	55.6	44.9	50.4
Limbu	74.2	70.2	72.1	Teli	67.4	59.0	63.4	Tatma/Tatwa	55.4	42.1	48.9
Samgpan	75.5	69.1	72.1	Dev	64.7	61.2	63.1	Kushwadiya	51.1	44.2	47.8
Loharung	76.3	67.4	72.0	Tajpuriya	65.5	60.4	62.9	Khatwe	54.6	39.4	46.9
Chhantyal	78.4	66.4	72.0	Danuwar	67.4	58.7	62.8	Chamar/Har/Ram	51.1	41.5	46.5
Thulung	72.6	70.9	71.8	Badi	66.7	59.2	62.8	Nurang	47.4	42.3	44.4
Madhesi Brah	74.5	68.7	71.7	Bote	67.3	58.6	62.8	Dusadh/Pas/Pasi	48.7	39.3	44.2
Chamling	74.1	68.7	71.3	Yakkha	66.1	59.5	62.6	Raute	48.0	39.6	43.8
Nachhiring	73.4	69.1	71.2	Kisan	65.2	60.2	62.5	Musalman	48.1	37.8	43.0
Rai	73.2	69.2	71.1	Haluwai	65.7	59.0	62.5	Mallaha	48.7	36.9	43.0
Ghale	74.8	67.2	70.7	Koiri/Kushwaha	66.8	57.8	62.4	Dhankar/Kharkar	45.1	40.7	43.0
Marwadi	72.6	68.0	70.4	Bhote	65.2	59.7	62.4	Chidimar	45.6	39.6	42.6
Hayu	74.3	67.0	70.4	Majhi	63.2	58.3	60.7	Nuniya	47.8	35.7	42.1
Sanyasi/Dash	74.8	66.4	70.4	Baraee	65.6	55.4	60.6	Kori	45.4	36.2	41.0
Hyalmo	70.4	69.9	70.2	Topkegola	62.3	59.0	60.6	Halkhor	40.5	32.5	36.6
Magar	74.4	66.3	70.1	Lohar	63.6	55.5	59.7	Dhunja	43.4	29.8	36.6
Kusunda	75.0	64.6	69.8	Lepcha	57.3	61.3	59.4	Dolpo	42.9	30.3	36.3
Kulung	71.5	67.3	69.4	Walung	59.2	59.6	59.4	Bin	40.8	28.7	34.9
Lhomi	76.1	63.4	69.2	Munda	65.2	53.8	59.2	Natuwa	35.4	27.3	31.5
Byasi	77.6	61.0	69.1	Kamar	61.0	56.2	58.6	Musahar	33.4	25.0	29.3
Mewahang	72.2	66.1	69.0	Jhangad/Uraon	60.4	57.0	58.6	Dom	27.3	17.0	22.2
Bhujel	72.2	66.1	69.0	Yadav	64.0	52.0	58.3	Dalit Others	68.8	59.2	63.9
Darai	72.8	65.2	68.7	Gaderi/Bhedhar	63.1	52.7	58.1	Janajati Others	65.7	60.9	63.3
Rajput	69.8	66.9	68.4	Kalar	61.1	55.4	58.1	Terai Others	58.1	50.0	54.3

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Male	Female	Both
Dhimal	71.1	64.7	67.7	Santhal	61.4	54.6	58.0	Undefined			
Sherpa	69.3	65.9	67.6	Sonar	60.5	53.6	57.2	Others	63.9	58.3	61.1
Sarki	73.0	62.7	67.5	Pahari	59.3	55.0	57.1	Foreigner	54.0	56.4	55.1
Sudhi	71.1	63.5	67.5	Hajam/Thakur	60.0	53.0	56.6	Nepal	70.1	62.9	66.4
Bantaba	68.6	65.8	67.2	Badhaee	60.0	52.8	56.5				
Punjabi/Shikh	70.7	63.2	67.1	Kewat	60.9	51.3	56.1				
Gangai	69.3	64.9	67.1	Lhopa	66.7	45.2	56.1				
Tharu	69.1	64.8	66.9	Sarbaria	61.8	49.3	55.7				
Khaling	68.3	65.5	66.8	Dhanuk	61.0	49.9	55.6				
Kami	71.6	62.3	66.7	Amat	61.5	49.0	55.3				

Annex 4.16: Percentage of households with improved source of drinking water by caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Improved source of water	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Improved source of water	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Improved source of water
Chidimar	99.2	Khatwe	94.1	Topkegola	82.6
Rajbhar	98.6	Natuwa	94.0	Sanyasi/Dashnami	82.4
Gangai	98.4	Sudhi	94.0	Kalar	81.9
Amat	98.4	Tatma/Tatwa	93.9	Khaling	81.5
Rajdhob	98.3	Mali	93.6	Mewahang Bala	81.5
Sarbaria	97.5	Badhaee	93.5	Sunuwar	81.2
Tajpuriya	97.4	Chamar/Harijan/Ram	93.4	Kumal	81.0
Bantar/Sardar	97.0	Kori	93.4	Magar	81.0
Lodh	96.9	Punjabi/Shikh	92.7	Chhetree	80.9
Madhesi Brahman	96.5	Bahing	92.6	Majhi	79.8
Santhal	96.4	Tharu	92.2	Thami	79.8
Kewat	96.2	Dhimal	92.1	Tamang	79.7
Dhandi	96.1	Halkhor	92.1	Yakkha	79.6
Kahar	96.1	Musahar	91.4	Thakuri	78.8
Kurmi	96.1	Bangali	91.3	Hayu	78.4
Gaderi/Bhedhar	96.1	Kamar	90.9	Lhopa	77.7
Dhanuk	96.1	Bantaba	90.7	Danuwar	77.6
Khawas	96.0	Lepcha	90.5	Damai/Dholi	77.6
Kanu	96.0	Dura	90.5	Jirel	77.4
Dev	95.9	Kushwadiya	90.2	Kami	75.9
Walung	95.9	Chhantyal	89.8	Bhote	74.6
Rajbansi	95.9	Dom	89.3	Chepang	74.5
Mallaha	95.9	Loharung	88.9	Badi	74.3

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Improved source of water	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Improved source of water	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Improved source of water
Kathbaniyan	95.7	Gurung	88.1	Sarki	73.6
Dhobi	95.6	Hill Brahman	87.8	Byasi	73.6
Dhankar/Kharikar	95.6	Marwadi	87.3	Kisan	73.6
Jhangad/Uraon	95.5	Kulung	87.1	Raute	73.4
Sonar	95.3	Chamling	87.1	Pahari	73.3
Kayastha	95.3	Koche	86.7	Gaine	72.8
Dhunia	95.3	Darai	86.7	Aathpariya	71.8
Bin	95.2	Samgpang	86.4	Kusunda	69.8
Meche	95.2	Lohar	86.4	Hyolmo	67.1
Kumhar	95.1	Sherpa	86.3	Raji	65.2
Nuniya	95.1	Nachhiring	86.2	Baram	54.8
Rajput	95.0	Ghale	86.1	Dolpo	18.4
Musalman	95.0	Thulung	86.1	Dalit Others	73.8
Teli	95.0	Thakali	85.3	Janajati Others	88.7
Yadav	94.9	Koiri/Kushwaha	84.7	Terai Others	93.5
Nurang	94.9	Yamphu	84.4	Undefined Others	85.7
Haluwai	94.8	Limbu	84.3	Foreigner	83.0
Munda	94.7	Lhomi	84.1	Nepal	85.4
Kalwar	94.4	Bhujel	83.7		
Hajam/Thakur	94.3	Newar	83.5		
Baraee	94.3	Bote	83.1		
Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	94.2	Rai	82.9		

Annex 4.17: Percentage of households with toilet facility by caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	House- hold	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	House- hold	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	House- holds
Newar	91.7	Bhote	60.1	Rajdhob	23.9
Dura	91.4	Lhopa	59.8	Kumhar	23.8
Thakali	89.9	Sunuwar	59.6	Dhanuk	20.9
Hill Brahman	89.3	Tamang	58.8	Yadav	20.9
Lepcha	87.2	Kathbaniyan	58.5	Kurmi	20.6
Bahing	85.3	Damai/Dholi	56.8	Kewat	20.6
Marwadi	85.2	Badi	56.5	Kalar	20.4
Samgpang	84.5	Kalwar	56.2	Rajbhar	20.0
Gurung	83.7	Sudhi	56.2	Gangai	19.4
Bantaba	82.2	Walung	56.0	Santhal	19.1

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	House- hold
Limbu	81.6
Loharung	81.2
Darai	80.4
Kayastha	77.6
Thulung	77.3
Chamling	76.9
Hyolmo	76.2
Sherpa	75.8
Rai	75.4
Chhantyal	75.2
Khaling	74.8
Bhujel	72.4
Chhetree	71.2
Nachhiring	70.8
Dev	70.8
Mewahang Bala	70.5
Yakkha	69.6
Rajput	68.3
Bote	68.1
Dhimal	67.9
Kisan	67.5
Kulung	66.9
Sanyasi/Dashnami	66.8
Magar	66.4
Thakuri	66.1
Aathpariya	66.0
Punjabi/Shikh	65.9
Madhesi Brahman	65.8
Yamphu	65.5
Ghale	65.2
Thami	64.5
Bangali	63.9
Jirel	63.0
Gaine	62.7
Kumal	60.9
Pahari	60.6
Sarki	60.2

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	House- hold
Kami	55.6
Meche	53.5
Haluwai	52.9
Kusunda	50.9
Nurang	50.8
Baram	49.9
Chepang	49.6
Hayu	47.7
Kushwadiya	47.1
Majhi	45.8
Chidimar	45.0
Byasi	44.3
Lhomi	43.8
Sonar	43.5
Halkhor	42.9
Topkegola	42.4
Tharu	41.7
Teli	40.2
Khawas	39.6
Raute	39.1
Koche	35.7
Rajbansi	35.6
Raji	35.4
Kamar	33.9
Hajam/Thakur	33.1
Kanu	31.8
Amat	31.6
Musalman	30.6
Baraee	29.1
Danuwar	29.1
Lohar	28.5
Munda	27.5
Koiri/Kushwaha	26.3
Tajpuriya	26.2
Badhaee	26.2
Dolpo	25.8
Mali	24.4

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	House- holds
Nuniya	17.4
Jhangad/Uraon	17.4
Dhunia	17.1
Gaderi/Bhedhar	16.2
Dom	15.8
Tatma/Tatwa	14.8
Bantar/Sardar	14.7
Dhobi	14.6
Mallaha	14.6
Dhandi	13.0
Natuwa	12.5
Kahar	12.4
Sarbaria	11.1
Lodh	9.9
Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	9.9
Bin	9.6
Khatwe	9.6
Chamar/Harijan/Ram	9.3
Musahar	7.8
Kori	7.8
Dhankar/Kharikar	7.3
Dalit Others	42.6
Janajati Others	60.9
Terai Others	34.0
Undefined Others	56.7
Foreigner	79.6
Nepal	61.2

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Annex 4.18: Percentage of households with mobile phone by caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	House- hold	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	House- hold	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	House- hold
Marwadi	83.4	Lhopa	59.3	Bantar/Sardar	46.2
Hill Brahman	83.2	Badhaee	59.1	Raute	46.1
Newar	82.9	Chhantyal	59.0	Pahari	45.7
Thakali	82.5	Kanu	58.9	Nuniya	45.4
Aathpariya	76.7	Kewat	58.5	Munda	45.3
Kayastha	75.3	Gaderi/Bhedhar	58.4	Hayu	44.8
Dhimal	74.1	Rajbansi	58.0	Koche	44.4
Gurung	73.5	Ghale	58.0	Kulung	44.1
Punjabi/Shikh	72.8	Yadav	57.3	Khatwe	43.5
Darai	72.4	Kamar	57.3	Bin	43.4
Dura	72.1	Musalman	56.8	Jhangad/Uraon	42.8
Dev	71.2	Mali	56.8	Mewahang Bala	42.5
Meche	70.3	Khaling	56.6	Dhankar/Kharikar	41.8
Bantaba	69.9	Kurmi	56.5	Chamar/Harijan/Ram	40.6
Sudhi	69.8	Dhanuk	56.5	Byasi	40.1
Madhesi Brahman	68.5	Loharung	55.4	Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	39.9
Kalwar	68.5	Yamphu	55.3	Raji	39.4
Rajput	68.4	Kumhar	54.8	Thami	35.8
Kathbaniyan	68.3	Kusunda	54.7	Chidimar	35.7
Haluwai	68.0	Rajdhob	54.4	Lhomi	35.3
Jirel	67.9	Sunuwar	54.2	Santhal	31.3
Limbu	66.7	Dhandi	52.9	Dom	29.0
Hyolmo	66.7	Natuwa	52.4	Chepang	27.0
Bangali	66.3	Kalar	52.3	Nachhiring	26.2
Tharu	66.3	Bote	52.3	Topkegola	26.0
Sanyasi/Dashnami	66.2	Badi	52.2	Kori	25.2
Chhetree	65.8	Sarki	52.0	Musahar	19.3
Chamling	65.4	Tajpuriya	51.8	Walung	16.4
Yakkha	65.4	Bahing	51.7	Dolpo	11.1
Bhujel	64.6	Damai/Dholi	51.7	Dalit Others	38.1
Magar	64.4	Kahar	51.6	Janajati Others	58.4
Teli	64.0	Majhi	51.4	Terai Others	55.4
Lepcha	62.7	Thulung	50.9	Undefined Others	55.8
Rai	62.5	Rajbhar	50.7	Foreigner	72.5
Baraee	62.2	Tatma/Tatwa	50.6	Nepal	64.6

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	House- hold
Sonar	62.1
Thakuri	61.5
Gaine	61.4
Sherpa	61.0
Koiri/Kushwaha	60.9
Hajam/Thakur	60.6
Samgpang	60.6
Danuwar	60.2
Amat	60.1
Kumal	60.1
Tamang	60.1
Khawas	59.7
Kami	50.0

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	House- hold
Dhunia	49.8
Dhobi	49.4
Nurang	49.2
Gangai	49.0
Kisan	48.4
Lohar	47.7
Bhote	47.4
Mallaha	47.2
Halkhor	47.0
Kushwadiya	46.6
Baram	46.4
Lodh	46.4
Sarbaria	46.2

Annex 4.19: Percentage of households using clean cooking energy by caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	House- hold
Marwadi	78.7
Newar	61.1
Thakali	60.9
Kayastha	50.4
Dev	48.4
Hill Brahman	46.3
Gurung	39.6
Punjabi/Shikh	39.4
Bangali	39.1
Dura	36.5
Rajput	30.7
Kathbaniyan	30.6
Sherpa	29.7
Bantaba	29.5
Madhesi Brahman	27.5
Chhetree	25.8
Kalwar	25.6
Haluwai	24.4
Chhantyal	23.8
Chamling	23.5

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	House- hold
Hajam/Thakur	12.9
Khaling	11.7
Byasi	11.6
Loharung	11.4
Tharu	11.4
Damai/Dholi	10.9
Munda	10.6
Meche	10.2
Lepcha	10.2
Kanu	9.9
Amat	9.9
Khawas	9.8
Yakkha	9.6
Lhomi	9.3
Kami	9.1
Musalman	8.9
Rajbansi	8.5
Aathpariya	8.5
Kalar	8.3
Badhaee	7.8

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	House- hold
Gaderi/Bhedhar	3.7
Topkegola	3.6
Kewat	3.6
Kulung	3.4
Dhobi	3.3
Gangai	2.9
Mallaha	2.8
Dom	2.7
Chepang	2.6
Nuniya	2.5
Jhangad/Uraon	2.5
Dhankar/Kharikar	2.3
Dhunia	2.3
Santhal	2.2
Tatma/Tatwa	2.1
Bantar/Sardar	2.1
Chidimar	1.9
Yamphu	1.8
Raji	1.8
Lodh	1.6

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	House- hold
Ghale	23.3
Tamang	22.4
Bhote	21.9
Darai	21.8
Hyolmo	21.8
Rai	21.6
Thakuri	21.6
Kusunda	20.8
Samgpang	20.4
Nurang	20.3
Sanyasi/Dashnami	19.8
Sudhi	19.3
Magar	19.0
Bhujel	18.7
Badi	18.3
Limbu	17.9
Sonar	17.5
Gaine	16.9
Jirel	16.5
Dhimal	16.1
Sunuwar	15.4
Thulung	15.2
Raute	14.1
Kushwadiya	13.7
Teli	13.7
Majhi	13.0
Koche	13.0
Kumal	12.9

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	House- hold
Halkhor	7.6
Baraee	7.6
Bahing	7.3
Baram	7.3
Sarki	7.1
Pahari	7.0
Kisan	6.8
Mali	6.7
Rajdhob	6.5
Kamar	6.4
Walung	6.3
Yadav	6.2
Danuwar	6.2
Dhanuk	6.1
Hayu	6.1
Bote	5.8
Natuwa	5.8
Koiri/Kushwaha	5.7
Thami	5.5
Kurmi	5.3
Lohar	4.8
Tajpuriya	4.7
Kumhar	4.2
Lhopa	4.2
Dhandi	3.9
Kahar	3.8
Rajbhar	3.7

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	House- hold
Mewahang Bala	1.5
Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	1.5
Chamar/Harijan/Ram	1.4
Bin	1.1
Khatwe	1.0
Nachhiring	0.9
Kori	0.9
Musahar	0.8
Sarbaria	0.8
Dolpo	0.4
Dalit Others	9.7
Janajati Others	28.6
Terai Others	15.2
Undefined Others	21.0
Foreigner	63.3
Nepal	23.5

Annex 4.20: Percentage of households with electricity by caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Household
Jirel	95.1
Thakali	93.4
Dev	91.0
Newar	90.8
Marwadi	90.5

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Household
Chhetree	63.9
Majhi	63.8
Chamling	62.8
Nurang	62.7
Kewat	62.6

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Household
Nuniya	49.3
Mallaha	49.0
Dhobi	48.7
Kalar	48.6
Natuwa	48.2

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Household
Kayastha	85.9
Hill Brahman	85.8
Dhimal	82.7
Darai	81.8
Hyolmo	81.5
Punjabi/Shikh	80.7
Bantaba	80.6
Aathpariya	80.2
Sudhi	79.9
Bangali	79.3
Madhesi Brahman	79.3
Gurung	79.2
Dura	79.2
Haluwai	78.3
Kathbaniyan	77.9
Danuwar	77.2
Chhantyal	76.1
Rajput	76.0
Kalwar	76.0
Khawas	74.1
Ghale	73.4
Tharu	72.9
Meche	72.4
Sonar	72.0
Bhujel	72.0
Halkhor	71.9
Kumal	70.6
Tamang	70.4
Sherpa	69.7
Baraee	69.6
Teli	69.5
Pahari	68.2
Rajbansi	67.8
Amat	67.6
Yakkha	67.5
Koiri/Kushwaha	67.5

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Household
Bote	62.3
Musalman	62.2
Kurmi	62.2
Chidimar	60.9
Magar	60.7
Mali	60.7
Koche	60.5
Gaderi/Bhedhar	60.5
Limbu	60.5
Kusunda	60.4
Gaine	60.1
Yadav	59.4
Rajbhar	59.1
Dhanuk	59.1
Dhunia	58.7
Rai	58.6
Munda	58.5
Sarki	57.5
Kushwadiya	57.5
Damai/Dholi	57.3
Sunuwar	56.8
Badi	56.6
Samgpang	56.5
Kumhar	56.5
Kahar	56.3
Lepcha	56.2
Kamar	56.1
Tajpuriya	55.8
Rajdhob	55.3
Khaling	54.8
Bhote	54.7
Tatma/Tatwa	53.9
Gangai	53.9
Thakuri	53.1
Bantar/Sardar	52.1
Kami	51.1

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Household
Khatwe	46.8
Bin	46.1
Dhankar/Kharikar	45.7
Thulung	45.3
Walung	45.3
Bahing	44.8
Raute	44.5
Baram	44.4
Lodh	43.6
Chamar/Harijan/Ram	42.4
Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	42.0
Dhandi	41.2
Dom	40.6
Hayu	39.1
Byasi	38.3
Kulung	33.9
Santhal	33.0
Lhomi	28.2
Kori	27.6
Chepang	26.9
Nachhiring	26.0
Yamphu	24.8
Loharung	24.7
Topkegola	24.7
Musahar	23.5
Raji	23.0
Mewahang Bala	6.1
Lhopa	3.4
Dolpo	0.3
Dalit Others	40.1
Janajati Others	69.3
Terai Others	61.6
Undefined Others	64.9
Foreigner	85.6
Nepal	67.3

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Household
Badhaee	67.3
Sanyasi/Dashnami	66.6
Thami	65.8
Hajam/Thakur	65.2
Kanu	64.3

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Household
Sarbaria	50.5
Kisan	50.3
Jhangad/Uraon	49.8
Lohar	49.5

Annex 4.21: Percentage of population aged 10+ years economically active by caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Economic activity rate
Lhopa	80.0
Raute	79.7
Dolpo	77.6
Kulung	75.8
Topkegola	74.4
Mewahang Bala	74.0
Loharung	73.1
Nachhiring	71.8
Aathpariya	70.9
Yamphu	70.7
Lepcha	70.7
Lhomi	69.3
Thami	68.7
Walung	68.4
Chepang	68.4
Bhote	68.1
Bahing	67.3
Kalar	67.1
Thulung	66.4
Pahari	65.6
Hayu	64.8
Byasi	64.7
Musahar	64.0
Dom	63.9
Baram	63.5
Khaling	63.5
Sherpa	63.3

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Economic activity rate
Darai	58.4
Magar	58.4
Koche	58.3
Rajbhar	57.9
Badi	57.9
Kusunda	57.6
Sunuwar	57.5
Khawas	57.4
Kamar	57.4
Raji	57.2
Lodh	57.2
Tharu	56.5
Chhetree	56.4
Rajbansi	56.1
Kushwadiya	56.0
Sanyasi/Dashnami	55.9
Bangali	55.8
Tajpuriya	55.6
Nurang	55.6
Rajdhob	55.4
Danuwar	55.3
Dhimal	54.7
Bantaba	54.6
Kahar	54.3
Meche	54.1
Chamling	54.0
Thakuri	53.9

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Economic activity rate
Bin	49.5
Lohar	49.4
Gaderi/Bhedhar	49.1
Hajam/Thakur	48.3
Natuwa	48.1
Tatma/Tatwa	47.6
Yadav	47.6
Nuniya	47.5
Dhanuk	47.4
Musalman	47.1
Dura	47.0
Haluwai	47.0
Dhunia	47.0
Amat	46.6
Kumhar	46.6
Kurmi	46.5
Teli	46.4
Mali	46.4
Koiri/Kushwaha	45.9
Halkhor	45.1
Baraee	44.5
Sonar	43.6
Kathbaniyan	43.3
Kanu	43.1
Kalwar	42.9
Marwadi	42.3
Rajput	42.2

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Economic activity rate
Yakkha	63.2
Santhal	63.0
Samgpang	62.7
Sarki	62.6
Bote	62.3
Hyolmo	62.1
Tamang	61.6
Sarbaria	61.4
Kumal	61.1
Kisan	60.7
Bantar/Sardar	60.6
Bhujel	60.3
Damai/Dholi	60.3
Jhangad/Uraon	60.3
Limbu	59.9
Jirel	59.8
Rai	59.6
Majhi	59.2
Kami	59.2
Ghale	59.1

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Economic activity rate
Gaine	53.5
Newar	53.4
Chidimar	53.4
Gurung	52.9
Munda	52.7
Chamar/Harijan/Ram	52.7
Hill Brahman	52.6
Dhandi	52.6
Khatwe	52.4
Kori	52.2
Chhantyal	51.8
Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	51.6
Dhobi	51.5
Gangai	51.4
Thakali	51.2
Kewat	50.7
Badhaee	50.3
Mallaha	50.0
Dhankar/Kharikar	49.8

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Economic activity rate
Punjabi/Shikh	41.0
Sudhi	40.5
Kayastha	40.1
Madhesi Brahman	38.9
Dev	38.6
Dalit Others	59.0
Janajati Others	55.3
Terai Others	52.2
Undefined Others	56.4
Foreigner	58.8
Nepal	54.8

Annex 4.22: Percentage of population aged 10+ years that are employed by caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Employed population
Lhopa	76.6
Dolpo	74.8
Topkegola	67.4
Lepcha	63.9
Chepang	62.5
Thami	62.4
Walung	61.6
Nachhiring	61.5
Aathpariya	61.3
Samgpang	60.2
Bahing	60.1
Dom	59.9
Pahari	59.6

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Employed population
Kami	51.6
Sunuwar	51.5
Rai	51.4
Limbu	51.4
Darai	51.3
Mewahang Bala	50.9
Tajpuriya	50.9
Lodh	50.9
Dhandi	50.8
Munda	50.7
Rajbansi	50.6
Rajbhar	50.5
Tharu	50.2

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Employed population
Haluwai	43.2
Yadav	43.1
Nuniya	42.8
Musalman	42.7
Tatma/Tatwa	42.5
Dhunia	42.5
Teli	42.2
Dhanuk	42.2
Kurmi	42.1
Raji	42.1
Mali	42.0
Koiri/Kushwaha	41.8
Kumhar	41.5

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125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Employed population	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Employed population	125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Employed population
Kulung	58.7	Kushwadiya	50.2	Halkhor	41.5
Bhote	58.4	Rajdhob	49.8	Dura	41.4
Santhal	58.2	Chhetree	49.8	Sonar	40.4
Musahar	57.8	Khawas	49.7	Marwadi	40.3
Khaling	57.6	Meche	49.6	Baraee	40.0
Kusunda	57.6	Danuwar	49.3	Kathbaniyan	39.9
Hyolmo	57.2	Newar	49.2	Kanu	39.3
Jirel	57.1	Chidimar	49.2	Raute	39.2
Lhomi	57.0	Sanyasi/Dashnami	49.1	Kalwar	39.0
Kisan	56.9	Dhimal	48.9	Amat	38.7
Sarbaria	56.4	Thakali	48.1	Punjabi/Shikh	38.6
Sherpa	56.0	Kahar	47.5	Rajput	37.9
Tamang	55.9	Kori	47.2	Kayastha	37.2
Thulung	55.6	Thakuri	47.2	Sudhi	36.9
Bote	55.5	Chhantyal	47.1	Madhesi Brahman	35.5
Baram	55.2	Gaine	47.0	Dev	31.0
Sarki	55.1	Chamar/Harijan/Ram	47.0	Dalit Others	51.6
Jhangad/Uraon	54.8	Gurung	46.9	Janajati Others	51.6
Kamar	54.5	Hill Brahman	46.8	Terai Others	46.3
Kumal	53.7	Chamling	46.5	Undefined Others	51.0
Ghale	53.6	Bantaba	46.2	Foreigner	54.0
Yamphu	53.6	Dhobi	46.1	Nepal	48.8
Byasi	53.4	Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	46.0		
Hayu	53.4	Gaderi/Bhedhar	45.5		
Bhujel	53.3	Kalar	45.0		
Majhi	53.2	Gangai	44.8		
Damai/Dholi	53.2	Mallaha	44.7		
Yakkha	52.9	Lohar	44.7		
Loharung	52.8	Kewat	44.5		
Nurang	52.5	Khatwe	44.4		
Bantar/Sardar	52.1	Badhaee	44.3		
Badi	52.0	Dhankar/Kharikar	44.0		
Koche	51.9	Bin	43.7		
Bangali	51.8	Hajam/Thakur	43.3		
Magar	51.6	Natuwa	43.3		

Annex 4.23: Percentage of usually active population aged 10 years and above for more than six months during the last year by type of occupation and caste/ethnic groups, census 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Armed forces	Managing/professional work	Technicians and associate professional	Office assistance	Service & sale workers	Skilled agri., forestry & fishery workers	Craft and related trades workers	Plant & machine operators & assemblers	Elementary occupations	Not stated	Total
Chhetree	0.51	6.32	2.31	1.58	8.23	68.62	3.95	1.87	5.12	1.49	100.00
Hill Brahman	0.27	13.91	4.83	2.56	11.82	54.91	3.55	1.85	4.27	2.02	100.00
Magar	0.26	3.50	1.08	0.85	5.03	73.09	6.77	1.79	6.35	1.27	100.00
Tharu	0.10	2.41	1.17	0.87	4.50	62.94	10.36	2.81	13.32	1.53	100.00
Tamang	0.20	2.82	1.16	0.86	5.98	68.43	8.65	3.51	6.76	1.61	100.00
Newar	0.36	10.58	4.89	2.91	19.79	35.21	13.76	4.07	5.66	2.76	100.00
Musalman	0.04	1.61	0.87	0.53	10.11	46.06	17.47	2.49	17.40	3.41	100.00
Kami	0.13	1.31	0.60	0.48	4.02	66.14	13.72	1.59	10.56	1.46	100.00
Yadav	0.13	3.88	1.60	0.87	4.32	71.53	3.83	1.58	10.06	2.21	100.00
Rai	0.26	4.69	1.43	0.78	6.22	71.56	6.37	1.46	5.28	1.95	100.00
Gurung	0.44	6.23	2.03	1.25	8.87	65.25	6.01	2.37	5.94	1.62	100.00
Damai/Dholi	0.15	1.20	0.50	0.77	2.95	50.17	28.19	2.54	11.94	1.58	100.00
Limbu	0.20	4.38	1.66	0.74	4.83	76.67	4.67	1.08	4.21	1.55	100.00
Thakuri	0.47	7.82	2.68	1.36	7.81	68.95	3.47	1.39	4.55	1.49	100.00
Sarki	0.11	1.26	0.47	0.42	3.36	69.58	10.47	1.63	11.54	1.16	100.00
Teli	0.09	4.37	2.06	0.58	14.37	55.85	6.62	1.71	11.47	2.90	100.00
Chamar/Harijan/Ram	0.07	0.66	0.66	0.49	2.83	43.25	9.44	1.86	36.92	3.81	100.00
Koiri/Kushwaha	0.06	2.94	1.54	0.55	5.78	64.90	6.41	2.14	13.02	2.65	100.00
Kurmi	0.07	2.56	1.42	0.95	6.32	57.33	8.92	2.09	17.26	3.10	100.00
Sanyasi/Dashnami	0.19	5.48	1.86	1.41	7.96	67.47	4.82	2.23	6.65	1.93	100.00
Dhanuk	0.07	2.58	1.59	0.99	5.73	54.55	8.31	2.25	20.77	3.15	100.00
Musahar	0.03	0.17	0.21	0.24	2.05	21.75	5.25	2.36	63.79	4.13	100.00
Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	0.09	0.86	0.49	0.65	3.80	43.36	8.35	2.39	36.06	3.95	100.00
Sherpa	0.08	5.93	1.62	1.35	11.14	65.50	5.29	1.54	5.88	1.68	100.00
Sonar	0.02	2.55	1.57	0.56	22.85	30.48	17.71	2.56	16.16	5.54	100.00
Kewat	0.03	1.96	1.21	0.55	4.81	60.29	6.86	2.25	18.78	3.26	100.00
Madhesi Brahman	0.27	17.38	7.39	3.07	11.11	39.11	4.82	2.67	9.22	4.95	100.00
Kathbaniyan	0.05	5.01	2.57	1.09	41.63	27.77	6.13	1.59	10.68	3.46	100.00
Bhujel	0.17	3.52	1.31	1.35	5.43	64.73	8.36	2.77	10.86	1.49	100.00
Mallaha	0.03	1.28	0.71	0.40	6.49	53.66	8.78	2.24	23.32	3.09	100.00
Kalwar	0.11	5.33	2.79	0.84	31.51	35.72	7.00	2.21	11.17	3.31	100.00
Kumal	0.15	1.51	0.98	0.71	3.91	61.81	13.09	2.54	14.03	1.26	100.00
Hajam/Thakur	0.36	2.73	1.36	0.91	32.09	42.52	5.09	1.17	10.59	3.18	100.00

Population Monograph of Nepal 2014

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Armed forces	Managing/professional work	Technicians and associate professional	Office assistance	Service & sale workers	Skilled agri., forestry & fishery workers	Craft and related trades workers	Plant & machine operators & assemblers	Elementary occupations	Not stated	Total
Kanu	0.07	4.26	2.22	0.86	16.54	44.25	10.49	2.11	16.42	2.78	100.00
Rajbansi	0.13	2.81	1.22	0.87	9.19	42.08	14.15	4.02	22.41	3.10	100.00
Sunuwar	0.15	4.28	1.30	0.87	4.89	69.83	8.09	2.12	6.83	1.64	100.00
Sudhi	0.07	5.59	2.64	0.98	22.48	46.06	3.71	2.07	11.29	5.11	100.00
Lohar	0.03	1.74	0.55	0.31	4.11	52.01	27.33	1.04	11.15	1.74	100.00
Tatma/Tatwa	0.08	1.33	0.62	0.38	4.23	48.83	9.68	1.71	29.18	3.96	100.00
Khatwe	0.03	1.17	0.27	0.40	3.14	45.82	6.72	1.80	36.63	4.03	100.00
Dhobi	0.05	1.35	0.56	0.42	4.85	56.38	8.15	2.52	22.92	2.80	100.00
Majhi	0.10	1.95	0.83	0.68	5.14	56.48	10.62	3.53	18.39	2.27	100.00
Nuniya	0.12	0.68	0.46	0.31	4.95	44.84	10.91	2.01	31.15	4.59	100.00
Kumhar	0.11	3.28	1.49	0.70	5.36	52.53	15.26	1.40	16.44	3.43	100.00
Danuwar	0.08	2.48	1.24	0.72	2.76	65.44	9.87	2.18	13.84	1.40	100.00
Chepang	0.03	0.60	0.34	0.49	1.22	82.49	4.07	1.13	9.16	0.48	100.00
Haluwai	0.04	5.01	1.84	0.95	32.17	33.17	7.66	1.95	13.43	3.78	100.00
Rajput	0.49	10.60	5.70	1.76	15.99	36.81	7.94	3.89	12.29	4.53	100.00
Kayastha	0.07	24.66	11.58	5.63	14.08	18.92	6.44	2.72	10.00	5.91	100.00
Badhaee	0.00	3.54	1.25	0.23	4.27	45.53	27.91	2.29	11.44	3.54	100.00
Marwadi	0.00	8.69	4.11	1.38	50.27	12.79	6.70	1.91	7.90	6.25	100.00
Santhal	0.04	0.54	0.30	0.23	1.79	47.41	8.31	2.60	36.43	2.35	100.00
Jhangad/Uraon	0.00	0.63	0.68	0.48	3.15	44.59	8.60	3.88	36.65	1.35	100.00
Bantar/Sardar	0.00	0.87	0.44	0.20	3.96	28.90	15.55	5.82	42.02	2.24	100.00
Baraee	0.00	3.44	1.03	0.87	7.15	52.81	17.80	1.51	12.76	2.64	100.00
Kahar	0.04	1.54	0.92	1.05	6.56	58.70	8.12	1.77	18.49	2.82	100.00
Gangai	0.00	3.51	1.56	0.78	4.59	61.38	4.92	1.43	19.77	2.06	100.00
Lodh	0.06	0.67	0.59	0.42	3.09	75.43	5.01	2.29	10.13	2.32	100.00
Rajbhar	0.33	2.00	1.31	1.37	1.68	52.95	10.37	3.14	20.88	5.97	100.00
Thami	0.31	1.35	0.58	0.33	1.92	75.34	8.86	0.86	8.92	1.52	100.00
Dhimal	0.24	1.84	1.69	1.02	8.00	49.83	15.41	4.90	14.68	2.39	100.00
Bhote	0.18	5.39	1.52	1.14	11.16	65.37	5.66	1.21	7.23	1.15	100.00
Bin	0.04	0.76	0.27	0.27	3.51	48.89	9.36	1.89	31.20	3.82	100.00
Gaderi/Bhedhar	0.09	2.46	1.81	0.86	4.39	67.65	3.99	1.61	14.62	2.52	100.00
Nurang	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	16.60	24.13	0.00	11.23	48.03	0.00	100.00
Yakkha	0.35	3.88	1.22	0.38	4.70	74.34	5.09	0.77	8.08	1.18	100.00
Darai	0.00	2.16	0.58	1.16	5.98	63.17	8.96	5.31	11.59	1.10	100.00
Tajpuriya	0.00	0.86	0.32	0.63	4.78	52.84	9.87	1.59	23.46	5.65	100.00
Thakali	0.00	25.69	4.20	1.48	17.39	34.38	4.39	2.10	7.69	2.68	100.00
Chidimar	0.00	1.74	0.00	8.59	10.31	24.06	24.05	5.24	22.60	3.41	100.00
Pahari	0.03	0.60	0.69	0.77	4.34	63.29	17.01	1.94	9.73	1.60	100.00

SOCIAL DEMOGRAPHY OF NEPAL:
EVIDENCES FROM POPULATION AND HOUSING CENSUS 2011

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Armed forces	Managing/professional work	Technicians and as- sociate professional	Office assistance	Service & sale workers	Skilled agri., forestry & fishery workers	Craft and related trades workers	Plant & machine op- erators & assemblers	Elementary occupa- tions	Not stated	Total
Mali	0.17	1.67	2.26	0.66	10.95	52.68	7.75	1.30	18.10	4.45	100.00
Bangali	0.08	4.72	2.16	1.46	18.11	25.04	25.02	3.85	15.98	3.58	100.00
Chhantyal	0.18	4.92	0.38	0.28	5.33	78.93	4.12	0.43	4.17	1.26	100.00
Dom	0.18	0.32	0.74	1.61	4.18	17.27	41.56	0.30	28.51	5.32	100.00
Kamar	0.00	1.09	1.09	1.07	8.96	35.50	26.87	3.20	18.98	3.25	100.00
Bote	0.00	0.40	3.09	0.79	3.47	55.78	8.96	4.19	22.38	0.93	100.00
Baram	0.24	1.68	0.06	0.98	1.11	82.48	7.43	0.97	4.78	0.27	100.00
Gaine	0.34	1.88	2.43	2.38	10.64	34.72	16.44	5.47	23.31	2.38	100.00
Jirel	0.88	4.44	4.41	2.60	3.42	75.24	5.57	0.57	2.30	0.57	100.00
Dura	0.52	6.17	0.58	1.52	4.50	73.26	6.43	0.98	3.56	2.48	100.00
Badi	0.19	2.58	0.97	1.03	5.43	49.82	20.15	2.83	14.71	2.30	100.00
Meche	0.84	3.46	0.91	0.89	17.41	47.68	11.88	2.14	11.47	3.33	100.00
Lepcha	0.00	6.78	1.06	0.46	3.75	77.08	4.20	2.33	2.84	1.49	100.00
Halkhor	0.00	1.46	5.82	4.46	9.91	11.40	5.83	3.08	49.26	8.78	100.00
Punjabi/Shikh	0.00	8.63	4.55	1.35	18.81	36.99	7.47	3.20	16.07	2.93	100.00
Kisan	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.84	0.92	45.25	12.00	2.55	36.85	1.58	100.00
Raji	0.00	0.62	0.00	0.00	3.09	61.56	4.95	1.25	26.08	2.45	100.00
Byasi	0.00	5.63	2.57	0.86	5.09	80.10	2.93	0.07	2.49	0.26	100.00
Hayu	0.00	2.33	0.00	3.08	1.54	77.42	10.13	0.00	5.49	0.00	100.00
Koche	0.00	2.69	1.49	1.32	18.29	42.10	13.74	5.55	12.13	2.68	100.00
Dhunia	0.00	0.61	0.21	0.36	5.05	45.49	17.78	1.19	25.13	4.18	100.00
Walung	0.00	3.00	0.00	0.00	1.28	87.83	2.55	0.00	5.35	0.00	100.00
Munda	0.00	3.48	0.90	0.92	2.75	45.26	13.17	3.22	29.49	0.82	100.00
Raute	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	51.32	38.79	0.00	9.89	0.00	100.00
H yolmo	0.00	3.44	0.83	1.64	5.03	77.98	5.22	1.12	3.93	0.81	100.00
Kushwadiya	0.00	6.90	0.73	0.40	7.24	36.92	15.29	5.79	19.75	6.99	100.00
Kusunda	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	58.20	14.03	0.80	20.37	6.61	100.00
Lhomi	0.00	3.57	2.30	1.18	2.49	82.34	2.32	1.17	4.63	0.00	100.00
Kalar	0.00	5.81	0.00	0.34	20.72	58.21	0.00	0.69	5.82	8.42	100.00
Natuwa	0.00	1.84	2.89	4.78	7.97	28.74	18.89	1.19	22.72	10.99	100.00
Dhandi	0.00	3.39	0.00	2.32	0.28	55.07	13.00	2.45	21.03	2.45	100.00
Dhankar/Kharikar	0.00	0.11	0.88	0.00	3.00	23.29	35.82	2.79	25.48	8.64	100.00
Kulung	0.13	1.57	0.73	0.55	2.75	88.25	2.81	0.34	2.61	0.27	100.00
Ghale	0.08	4.10	1.23	1.24	7.40	70.57	6.54	2.49	4.54	1.81	100.00

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Population Monograph of Nepal 2014

125 Caste/ ethnic groups	Armed forces	Managing/profes- sional work	Technicians and as- sociate professional	Office assistance	Service & sale work- ers	Skilled agri., forestry & fishery workers	Craft and related trades workers	Plant & machine op- erators & assemblers	Elementary occupa- tions	Not stated	Total
Khawas	0.30	3.65	0.71	0.63	5.94	47.92	13.63	4.13	20.66	2.43	100.00
Rajdhob	0.02	3.29	2.25	0.74	6.57	70.07	1.80	0.84	13.32	1.09	100.00
Kori	0.00	0.46	0.60	0.05	3.58	56.92	8.55	3.36	24.63	1.85	100.00
Nachhiring	0.00	1.61	0.55	0.00	2.18	90.96	1.09	0.00	2.82	0.78	100.00
Yamphu	0.00	2.80	0.85	0.38	1.38	87.16	3.96	1.25	1.42	0.81	100.00
Chamling	0.35	4.47	1.33	0.00	9.61	67.83	6.47	2.00	5.44	2.50	100.00
Aathpariya	0.07	2.67	1.02	1.75	1.93	86.22	3.26	0.29	2.64	0.15	100.00
Sarbaria	0.00	1.14	1.24	1.19	7.74	41.45	11.16	4.31	28.30	3.47	100.00
Bantaba	0.60	3.67	3.22	1.15	8.00	56.42	12.00	2.86	9.08	3.00	100.00
Dolpo	0.00	0.61	0.22	0.35	3.66	89.27	2.40	0.04	3.27	0.17	100.00
Amat	0.00	6.21	0.20	0.81	9.20	43.23	5.68	1.77	26.16	6.74	100.00
Thulung	0.56	5.38	0.54	0.53	3.23	75.66	7.31	0.53	4.70	1.56	100.00
Mewahang Bala	0.61	3.59	0.07	0.57	2.40	84.90	2.54	0.60	2.37	2.35	100.00
Bahing	0.00	2.33	1.75	0.58	4.08	77.35	4.59	0.67	6.93	1.71	100.00
Lhopa	0.00	3.61	1.09	1.57	5.93	83.24	1.43	0.20	2.59	0.34	100.00
Dev	0.00	21.83	11.70	5.37	17.12	5.60	6.97	1.34	4.14	25.94	100.00
Samgpang	1.28	9.61	1.17	0.00	5.94	66.13	3.12	5.80	6.94	0.00	100.00
Khaling	0.00	1.92	0.00	0.00	9.12	67.55	7.02	1.99	9.41	2.98	100.00
Topkegola	0.00	1.25	0.00	0.00	2.62	96.13	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Loharung	0.00	4.75	0.75	1.60	10.28	71.15	9.60	0.00	0.00	1.87	100.00
Dalit Others	0.17	1.30	0.60	0.67	3.95	65.50	13.20	1.60	11.19	1.82	100.00
Janajati Others	1.94	2.09	1.84	1.82	7.37	39.17	9.35	5.52	25.37	5.53	100.00
Terai Others	0.05	2.93	1.99	0.85	10.65	49.82	10.33	2.66	17.16	3.57	100.00
Undefined Others	0.10	4.02	1.63	0.88	8.17	53.04	8.97	2.54	17.62	3.03	100.00
Foreigner	0.04	11.38	6.12	1.25	20.05	27.67	16.83	3.50	10.40	2.76	100.00
Nepal	0.24	5.41	2.09	1.27	8.29	60.43	8.07	2.22	9.94	2.03	100.00

CHAPTER 5

LITERACY AND EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF NEPALESE POPULATION

Radha Krishna G.C.*

Nebin Lal Shrestha**

Abstract

This chapter analyses the levels, patterns and trends in the literacy status and educational attainment of the population, disaggregated by age, sex and regions, from the last three population censuses of Nepal (1991, 2001 and 2011) and highlights certain recommendations. The analysis of the data has indicated remarkable achievements in the status of literacy, educational attainment and/or school attendance rate of both, male and female population over the years. However, the disparities that continued to exist across sex, rural-urban, districts and regions has pointed out a need for further improvement in the access to services of the programmes related to literacy and educational campaigns. Nevertheless, a further study is desirable to identify various measures to be undertaken in different regions of the country for further improvement in this area.

5.1 Introduction

The right to education is a law in Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR). Education is a fundamental human right and, is essential for the exercise of all other human rights. It is an effective tool for personal empowerment and enhancement of human dignity. It plays a significant role in the welfare of people, as well as the socio-economic development of the nation. It enhances access to information that is necessary to carry out various essential activities of daily life and work, and has an impact on an individual's ability to participate in society and better understand important public issues. Investment in education could be seen as an investment in human capital formation and an instrument for acquiring skilled human resources. A population with strong literacy skills or education places a country in a better position to meet the complex socio-economic challenges that it confronts.

While the goal of literacy in Nepal is to ensure a person is able to read and write, the goal of education is to ensure a person acquires knowledge to enhance their ability to reason and make sound judgments by attaining education at school or university.

The Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS), Nepal, has been collecting information on literacy status and educational attainment of the people through different population censuses since 1952/54. The CBS also collects information on literacy and educational attainment in other surveys conducted at different times. This chapter attempts to analyse the levels, patterns and trends in the literacy status and educational attainment of the population, disaggregated by age, sex and region from the last three population censuses of Nepal, i.e. from 1991 to 2011.

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5.2 Education system in Nepal

Education in Nepal was long based on home schooling and Gurukula. The first formal school was established in 1853 but was intended to serve children from elite families. The birth of Nepalese democracy in 1951 opened up classrooms to a more diverse population. The Education Plan in 1971 secured the development of education in the country. In 1971, Nepal had a literacy rate of 14% (for the population 6 years and above), which increased to 67% in 2011. The government has committed to achieving the goals of UNESCO's Education for All initiatives that would see all students of primary age accessing good quality primary education by 2015. There are now over 34,000 primary and secondary schools in the country, nine university-level institutions, with over a 1,000 colleges and affiliated campuses (see Table 5.1). Poverty and social exclusion of women, disadvantaged castes and indigenous people are the main barriers to equitable access to education for all.

There are two main types of schools in Nepal: community schools and institutional schools. The Government, or a community, usually run community schools. Institutional schools are often referred to as 'private' schools. Both community schools and institutional schools cater to primary, lower secondary, secondary and higher secondary students.

Colleges under the Council for Technical Education and Vocational Training (CTEVT) offer Diploma courses of three years, equivalent to higher secondary education. Colleges also offer SLC-level certificate programmes of between one and two years.

Table 5.1: Number of educational institutions, student enrolment and teachers, Nepal 2011/12

Total number of institutions	Total	Public	Private
Schools	34361	29063	5298
Higher Secondary Schools	3383	2499	884
Universities	9		
Campuses	1102	90	1012
Medical Institutions (Deemed Universities)	3	3	-
TEVT	418	72	346
Total number of enrolment			
	Total	Female	Male
School	7444134	3748614	3695520
Higher Secondary	655415	301483	353932
University (all Campus + Medical Institutions)	412540	171699	240841
Medical Institutions	1335	556	779
TEVT (TSLC + Diploma)	25313	NA	NA
Non Formal Literates in 2068 BS	349963	293664	56299
Total number of teachers in			
	Total	Female	Male
Schools	258237	92890	165347
Higher Secondary (only attached with School)	17445	2493	14952
Universities (Constituent + Community)	15365	1322	14043

Source: MOE, Nepal Education in Figures 2012

5.2.1 Administration

The Ministry of Education is the apex body responsible for initiating and managing education activities in the country. The Ministry has established five Regional Directorates and 75 District Education Offices in five development regions and 75 districts respectively. These decentralised offices are responsible for overseeing non-formal and school-level education activities in their respective areas. Regional Directorates are mainly responsible for coordinating and monitoring and evaluating education activities, while the District Education Offices are the main implementing agencies.

5.2.2 Structure

The school system in Nepal consists of primary, lower secondary, secondary and higher secondary education, continuing for 12 years. Basic education lasts eight years, with a five-year primary cycle and a three-year lower secondary cycle. Students can take a further two years of schooling at the secondary level, which concludes with the School Leaving Certificate (SLC) Examination, required for admission to higher secondary level. Higher secondary schooling is a further two years, which is undertaken within the school system.

Since 2009, the government of Nepal has been implementing a School Sector Reform Programme (SSRP: 2009-15), which aims to restructure school education by integrating the various levels into basic education (grades 1-8) and secondary education (grades 9-12), with the hope of boosting school retention rates and overall enrolments.

Higher education consists of bachelor, masters, and PhD levels. Depending upon the stream and subject, Bachelor's level may be of three to five years' duration. The duration of Master's level is generally two years. Some universities offer programmes like M Phil. and Postgraduate Diplomas.

Vocational education in Nepal starts after lower secondary education. Students can choose to follow a two-year curriculum leading to the "Technical School Leaving Certificate". Universities also offer professional and technical degrees.

Box 5.1: School structure in Nepal

Age	Grade	Old System	New System	
16	12	Higher Secondary Education (Grade 11-12)	Secondary Education (Grade 9-12)	
15	11			
14	10	Secondary Education (Grade 9-10)		
13	9			
12	8	Lower Secondary Education (Grade 6-8)	Basic Education (Grade 1-8)	
11	7			
10	6			
9	5	Primary Education (Grade 1-5)		
8	4			
7	3			
6	2			
5	1			
4		Pre-Primary Education/Early Childhood Development		

5.2.3 Growth in number of schools, students and teachers

There has been a significant growth in the number of schools, students and teachers during the last two decades (see Table 5.2). The number of primary schools increased from 18,694 in 1991 to 33,881 in 2011, indicating an increase of 123% during the period 1991-2011. The growth in lower-secondary and secondary level schools during 1991-2011 periods was 42% and 36% per cent respectively. Although the growth of lower secondary schools during the period 1991-2011 was greater than that of secondary level schools by 6%, the growth in students' enrolment and the number of teachers was lower at the lower secondary level than at secondary level.

Table 5.2: Number of schools by level, students and teachers, Nepal 1991-2011

Description	School level	1991	2001	2011	Percentage growth during 1991-2011
Number of schools	Primary	18694	24943	33881	123
	Lower Secondary	4045	7340	13791	42
	Secondary	2079	4113	7938	36
Number of students	Primary	2884275	3853000	4782885	75
	Lower Secondary	378000	1058000	1812680	36
	Secondary	395000	449000	848569	48
Teachers	Primary	74495	96659	173714	152
	Lower Secondary	13005	26678	48848	26
	Secondary	11627	18846	35675	87

Source: 1991, 2001 – CBS, *Population Monograph of Nepal 1995 & 2003*
2011 – MOE, Nepal Education in Figures 2012

5.2.4 Universities

Established in 1959, Tribhuvan University is the oldest institution in Nepal. The first new university to be established was Mahendra Sanskrit University. The foundation of this university was soon followed by the Kathmandu University in 1990, and the Purbanchal and Pokhara Universities in 1995 and 1996 respectively. Many schools and colleges are run by private organisations, but none of the universities in Nepal are private.

B. P. Koirala Institute of Health Sciences was the first Health and Medical University of Nepal, established in 1994 and upgraded to a university in 1999.

Currently there are nine universities in Nepal, and two institutions recognised as universities:

- Tribhuvan University
- Kathmandu University
- Pokhara University
- Purbanchal University
- Nepal Sanskrit University (Mahendra Sanskrit University before 2006)
- Lumbini Bouddha University
- Mid-Western University Birendranagar
- Far-Western University Kanchanpur
- Nepal Agriculture and Forestry University Rampur, Bharatpur

5.2.5 Technical and vocational education

Technical and vocational education in Nepal is provided by both public and private institutions, and is regulated by the Council for Technical and Vocational Training, established in 1989. Technical schools and polytechnics offer a mix of short and long-term training programmes. Tribhuvan University offers diploma level programmes in technical fields, and some of the newer private universities also offer diploma programmes certified by the Council through their affiliated campuses.

5.3 Government investment in education

The education budget allocated for the FY 2011/12 was NRs.63919 million, which was 17% of the total national budget (see Table 5.3). During the last 20 years, the education budget has increased by 20 fold and the national budget by 14 fold. The share of the education budget in the national budget also increased from 12% in 1991 to 17% in 2011. The education budget per unit population also rose significantly from NRs.173 in 1991 to NRs.2413 in 2011.

Table 5.3: National budget and per cent share of education budget, Nepal 1991-2011

Year	Budget in Million NRs.		Percentage of education budget	Total population (in Millions)	Education budget/ population (NRs.)
	National	Education			
1991	26713	3206	12.0	18.5	173
2001	99792	14073	14.1	23.2	608
2011	384900	63919	16.6	26.5	2413

*Source: Population Monograph of Nepal 1995
MOE, Nepal Education in Figures 2002, 2012*

5.4 Enrolment rate

Table 5.4 presents data on gross and net enrolment rates at various levels of education by sex taken from the Nepal Living Standards Survey (NLSS) reports. The gross enrolment rate (GER) is defined as the ratio of the total number of students enrolled in a school at a given level of education, irrespective of their age, to the total number of children in the age group specified for that level of education. The specified age group for primary level is 5-9 years, 10-12 years for lower secondary, 13-14 years for secondary, 15-16 years for higher secondary and 17-22 years for tertiary level. Early or delayed entry and repetitions will result in the GER exceeding 100%. The net enrolment rate (NER) is defined as the enrolment of the official age group for a given level of education expressed as a percentage of the corresponding population.

Data shows that both the NER and GER at all levels of education have been increasing and that gender gaps in enrolment have been narrowing over the years. There has been a significant growth in the enrolment rates of girls compared to boys at all levels of education in the last 15 years. However, enrolments at higher levels of education were very low compared to enrolments at lower levels, (e.g. 78% NER at primary level compared to only 10% at tertiary level in 2010/11). This indicates a high level of dropout at a higher level of education.

Table 5.4: Enrolment rate by level of schooling and sex, Nepal 1995/96-2010/11

Education level and sex	GER			NER		
	1995/96	2003/04	2010/11	1995/96	2003/04	2010/11
Primary (1-5)						
Boys	100	123	122	67	78	77
Girls	72	102	119	46	67	80
Total	86	112	121	57	72	78
Lower Secondary (6-8)						
Boys	46	74	85	23	31	43
Girls	31	67	90	14	26	41
Total	39	71	87	19	29	42
Secondary (9-10)						
Boys	16	62	81	13	17	30
Girls	6	46	67	6	13	26
Total	11	54	74	9	15	28
Higher Secondary (11-12)						
Boys	NA	26	77	NA	6	13
Girls	NA	20	75	NA	3	12
Total	NA	23	76	NA	5	13
Tertiary						
Boys	NA	8	23	NA	4	13
Girls	NA	2	13	NA	2	9
Total	NA	5	17	NA	3	10

Source: Nepal Living Standards Survey Reports, 1996, 2004, and 2011

5.5 Concepts and definition used for literacy measurement in different censuses

There has been a slight improvement in the definition of literacy used in various censuses over the years. Literacy was defined as the ability to read and write in any language in the censuses of 1952/54, 1961 and 1971. A modification was first made in the 1981 census, where literacy was defined as the ability to read and write in any language with understanding. Similarly, a further modification was made in the 1991 census where literacy was defined as the ability to read and write in any language with understanding and the ability to do simple arithmetic calculations. The same definition was used in the censuses of 2001 and 2011.

The box below shows the census questions on literacy and educational attainment used in the censuses of 1991, 2001 and 2011.

Box 5.2: Question on literacy and education attainment included in the last three population censuses of Nepal, 1991-2011

Census year	Reference population	Question
1991	6 years and above	12. Whether can read and write or not ? 1. Yes 2. No
		13. What is the highest level completed ? 1. Level passed ... 2. If above SLC, main area of study ...
		[For person with educational attainment below SLC and aged below 26 years] 14. Whether currently attending any school or not ? 1. Yes 2. No
2001	6 years and above	8. Can ... read and write ? 1. Read only → 10 2. Read and write 3. Illiterate → 10
		9. What is the level of education completed (passed) by ? ... 1. Level passed ... 2. Field of study for level above SLC ...
		[Only for person aged less than 25 years who have not passed class 10] 10. Is ... currently attending any school ? 1. Yes 2. No
2011	5 years and above	13. Can ... read and write? 1. Can read and write 2. Can read only 3. Cannot read and write
		14. Is ... currently attending any school/college? 1. Yes 2. No
		15. What is the level of education completed by? ... 1. Level completed ... 2. If above SLC, main field/subject of study ...

Source: Tunga Shiromani Bastola (2014), One Hundred Years of Census Taking, The Population Censuses of Nepal.

The reference population for the collection of the information on literacy was also changed in different census years. Questions on literacy were administered to all individuals aged 5 years and above in the census of 1952/54, whereas they were administered to all individuals aged 6 years and above in the subsequent five censuses (1961, 1971, 1981, 1991 and 2001). Again, literacy was measured for the population 5 years and above in the census of 2011.

The level of education in censuses was defined as the highest formal grade a person completed at the time of the census enumeration.

5.6 Literacy status

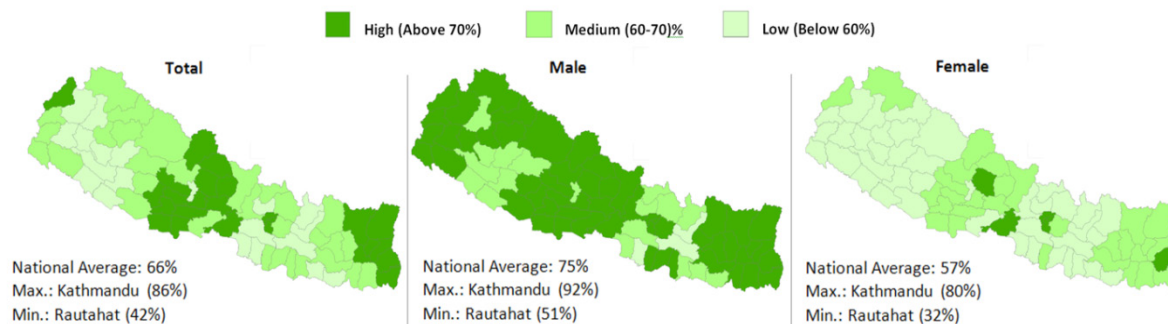
5.6.1 Literacy status of population 5 years of age and above in 2011

Table 5.5 shows the literacy status of the population 5 years and above in 2011 in different areas, disaggregated by sex. The overall literacy rate of the population 5 years of age and above was 66%. The population living in urban areas were more literate than that of rural areas. Literacy rates in urban areas were higher by 19 percentage points than those in rural areas. The literacy rate in rural areas was 82% compared to that of 63% in rural areas.

The literacy rate of the population, both in the mountains and Tarai was 61%. There were an eleven percentage points increase in the literacy rate in the Hills compared to the Mountains and Tarai (72% compared to 61%). Variation in the literacy rate among the Development Regions was 7%, indicating a minimum level of variation compared to other areas. The Central, Mid-Western and Far-Western Development regions had the same literacy rate at 64%. The Western Development Region was the most literate followed by the Eastern Development Region, (71% and 67% respectively). Among the eco-development regions, literacy rates ranged from 52% in the central Tarai to 76% in the central Hill, indicating that the Central Development Region had the highest variation in literacy rates in 2011 compared to other Development Regions.

Kathmandu had the highest literacy rate at 86%, whereas Rautahat had the lowest at 42%. The male literacy rate exceeded that of females by 18 percentage points, the rates were 75% for males and 57% for females respectively (Map 5.1). The gender gaps were most pronounced in the Far-Western Development region and in the Mountain areas. Out of 75 districts, 37 districts had a literacy rate below the national average of 66%.

Map 5.1. Population 5 years and above by literacy range for districts and sex, 2011



There were wide differences in literacy rates among age groups (see Table 5.6). With the exception of the age group 5-9 years, literacy declined with increasing age. For example, the literacy rate in the age group 10-14 years was around four and half times more than the literacy rate in the age group 65 years and above (92% compared to 21%). The low level of literacy rate for the population of higher ages is attributable to a lack of access to primary education for these people in their younger ages. The widespread availability of primary education facilities during the last three decades is mainly responsible for higher literacy rates among the 10-14 years and 15-19 years age group population. Gender gaps in literacy were wider for increasing ages. For instance, the proportion of literates among 15-19 year old males and females were 92% and 86%, respectively, whereas the corresponding percentages for 65 years and above were 36% and 6% respectively.

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Literacy status among different caste/ethnic groups shows a huge variation in literacy rates ranging from 20% in Dom to 87% in Kayastha (Annex Table A5.1). The top 10 castes/ethnic groups in terms of high literacy rates were: Kayastha, Marwadi, Dev, Brahmin-Hill, Brahmin-Tarai, Thakali, Newar, Rajput, Loharung and Bantaba. Similarly, the 10 castes/ethnic groups with the lowest literacy rate were: Khatwe, Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi, Nuniya, Dhunia, Kori, Natuwa, Dolpo, Bin, Musahar and Dom. Among 130 castes/ethnic groups (including other categories), 83 castes/ethnic groups had a literacy rate below the national average of 66%. Gender gaps in literacy rate were also notable. The highest disparity in gender gaps in literacy rates was observed in Rajdhob (30%) whereas the lowest rate was in Marwadi (8%). For details, see Annex A5.1.

Table 5.5: Literacy rate of population 5 years of age and above by region, Nepal 2011

Area	Literacy rate (%)			Illiterate population (number)		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Nepal	75.2	57.4	66.0	2859643	5267561	8127204
Urban-rural residence						
Urban	89.1	75.3	82.3	233465	510209	743674
Rural	72.0	53.9	62.5	2626178	4757352	7383530
Ecological zone						
Mountain	71.7	50.1	60.5	215412	408222	623634
Hill	81.5	64.2	72.4	907920	1948061	2855981
Tarai	70.4	52.4	61.2	1736311	2911278	4647589
Development region						
Eastern	76.0	59.1	67.2	602573	1127628	1730201
Central	72.7	55.3	64.0	1197626	1960487	3158113
Western	80.0	63.4	71.0	412550	882726	1295276
Mid-Western	73.6	55.7	64.3	395446	725591	1121037
Far-Western	76.4	52.0	63.5	251448	571129	822577
Eco-development region						
Eastern Mountain	77.0	61.1	68.6	38619	72266	110885
Eastern Hill	79.8	64.3	71.6	137987	275740	413727
Eastern Tarai	74.4	56.6	65.2	425967	779622	1205589
Central Mountain	69.3	52.2	60.3	69125	119200	188325
Central Hill	84.2	68.4	76.3	323730	648404	972134
Central Tarai	61.9	42.7	52.4	804771	1192883	1997654
Western Mountain	78.0	58.5	69.1	2232	3568	5800
Western Hill	83.6	67.6	74.7	185698	462509	648207
Western Tarai	75.5	57.4	66.2	224620	416649	641269
Mid-Western Mountain	66.9	41.0	54.0	55213	96940	152153
Mid-Western Hill	74.6	56.0	64.7	176335	344831	521166
Mid-Western Tarai	74.3	58.9	66.3	163898	283820	447718
Far-Western Mountain	73.6	44.8	58.5	50223	116248	166471
Far-Western Hill	75.4	46.3	59.6	84170	216577	300747
Far-western Tarai	78.1	58.6	67.9	117055	238304	355359

Table 5.6: Literacy rate of population 5 years of age and above by age group, Nepal 2011

Age group	Literacy rate (%)			Illiterate population (number)		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
5-9	73.0	71.6	72.3	440812	445675	886487
10-14	93.2	90.3	91.8	119150	165378	284528
15-19	91.8	85.9	88.8	118621	209864	328485
20-24	87.3	73.8	79.7	132888	344597	477485
25-29	82.3	62.3	71.2	162023	437283	599306
30-34	78.3	51.8	63.6	167481	464218	631699
35-39	72.1	41.6	55.7	206336	504213	710549
40-44	67.6	32.2	49.1	213912	491324	705236
45-49	61.3	24.5	42.5	222368	450982	673350
50-54	55.7	19.5	37.7	223822	401626	625448
55-59	52.1	14.9	33.7	197632	344211	541843
60-64	43.8	9.6	26.2	206950	350521	557471
65+	35.6	6.0	20.8	447648	657669	1105317
5 years and above	75.2	57.4	66.0	2859643	5267561	8127204
6 years and above	76.0	57.8	66.6	2680348	5094405	7774753
15 years and above	71.7	48.8	59.6	2299681	4656508	6956189
15-24 years	89.9	80.2	84.8	251509	554461	805970

5.6.2 Intercensal changes in literacy level of population 6 years of age and above

Table 5.7 and Figure 5.1 present data on the literacy rate by sex in various census years. There has been a considerable increase in literacy rates of the entire population aged 6 years and above from 14% in 1971 to 67% in 2011. Both males and females have also advanced their level of education attainment over the years. The percentage of male literates increased around 3 fold from 24% in 1971 to 76% in 2011 and that of females increased by more than 14 fold from 4% in 1971 to 58% in 2011. Although there has been a significant growth in female literacy over the years, females are still lagging behind males in terms of their literacy status by 2011 by 18 percentage points. However, gaps in literacy rates have been narrowing during the period 2001-2011 compared to previous census decades. The intercensal average increase in literacy rates per annum was highest during 1981-91 (1.63% for total males and females and 2.05% for males) whereas, the corresponding figure for females in 1991-2001 was 1.78%.

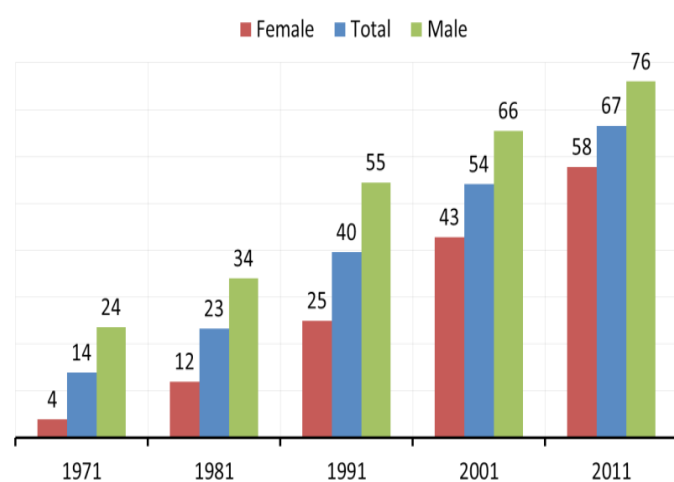
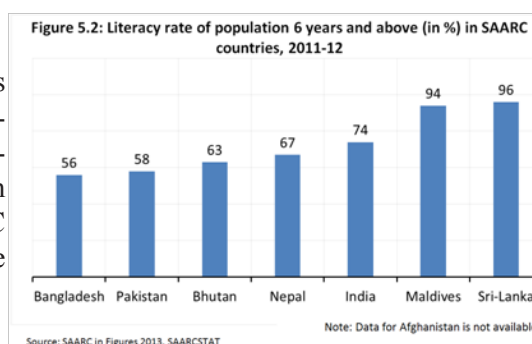
Figure 5.1: Literacy rate of population 6 years and above (in %), 1971-2011

Table 5.7: Intercensal change in literacy rate of population 6 years and above, Nepal 1971-2011

Sex	Literacy rate of population 6 years and above					Intercensal average increase in literacy rate per annum				
	1971	1981	1991	2001	2011	1971-1981	1981-1991	1991-2001	2001-2011	1971-2011
Male	23.6	34.0	54.5	65.5	76.0	1.04	2.05	1.10	1.05	1.31
Female	3.9	12.0	25.0	42.8	57.8	0.81	1.30	1.78	1.50	1.35
Total	13.9	23.3	39.6	54.1	66.6	0.94	1.63	1.45	1.25	1.32

Among the SAARC countries, very high literacy rates were observed in Sri Lanka (96%) followed by the Maldives at 94%. Literacy data was not available for Afghanistan. Excluding Afghanistan, Nepal stood in 4th position in the literacy rank among the rest of the seven SAARC countries. Bangladesh and Pakistan had a literacy rate below 60% . (see Figure 5.2)



5.6.3 Literacy rate by age and sex

Table 5.8 presents data on the literacy rate by age and sex in the census years 1991-2011. There were wide differences in literacy rates among the age groups. With the exception of the age group 6-9 years, literacy declined with each successive five year age group (Figure 5.3). In all censuses, the literacy rate was highest in the 10-14 year age group followed by the 15-19 year age group for both males and females. After the age group 10-14, the literacy rate tends to decline with advancing age. An improvement in the level of literacy is marked in almost every age group over the years, particularly in the younger age groups. Gender gaps in literacy, previously wider for increasing ages, have been narrowing for younger ages over the years. For example, in the age group 10-14, the gender gap in literacy rates was only 3% in 2011, compared to 27% in 1991 and 10% in 2001.

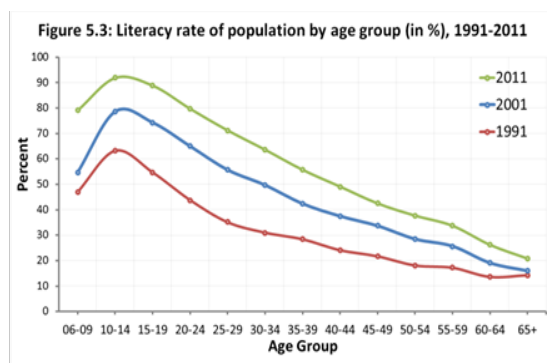


Table 5.8: Literacy rate by age group and sex, Nepal 1991-2011

Age group	1991			2001			2011		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
06-09	55.7	38.0	47.0	58.0	51.4	54.7	79.8	78.2	79.0
10-14	76.0	49.3	63.2	83.7	73.3	78.6	93.2	90.3	91.8
15-19	71.5	38.6	54.7	82.5	66.2	74.3	91.8	85.9	88.8
20-24	64.3	26.3	43.8	78.2	53.4	65.0	87.3	73.8	79.7
25-29	54.7	17.6	35.1	71.4	41.4	55.7	82.3	62.3	71.2

Age group	1991			2001			2011		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
30-34	49.6	13.9	31.0	67.7	32.6	49.7	78.3	51.8	63.6
35-39	45.3	11.2	28.4	60.3	24.7	42.4	72.1	41.6	55.7
40-44	41.2	7.9	24.1	55.7	19.5	37.5	67.6	32.2	49.1
45-49	36.5	6.3	21.7	51.3	15.4	33.7	61.3	24.5	42.5
50-54	30.9	4.7	18.1	45.1	11.1	28.5	55.7	19.5	37.7
55-59	28.5	4.2	17.2	41.1	8.3	25.7	52.1	14.9	33.7
60-64	24.0	3.1	13.6	32.4	5.6	19.1	43.8	9.6	26.2
65+	24.5	3.5	14.3	27.5	4.2	16.0	35.6	6.0	20.8

5.6.4 Literacy rate by rural and urban areas

Table 5.9 presents data on the literacy rate by sex in rural and urban areas. As expected, the literacy rates among both men and women were higher in urban areas than in rural areas in each census year. The urban-rural difference in the level of literacy has reduced for both males and females over the years (Figure 5.4). The urban-rural difference in the level of literacy declined in males from 26 percentage points in 1991 to 16 percentage points in 2011, while for females it declined from 33 percentage points in 1991 to 21 percentage points in 2011. The difference in literacy rates between urban areas and rural areas was more pronounced in 1991 compared to 2001 and 2011. Although the gap between urban and rural literacy rates slightly decreased in 2011, the rate of the urban literate still exceeded that of the rural literate by 19 percentage points.

Figure 5.4: Urban-rural differences in literacy rate of population 6 years and above (in %), 1991-2011



Table 5.9: Literacy rate of population 6 years and above by urban-rural residence, Nepal 1991-2011

Area	1991			2001			2011		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Urban	78.0	54.8	66.9	81.2	61.9	71.9	89.4	75.3	82.5
Rural	51.9	22.0	36.8	62.6	39.6	51.0	73.0	53.9	63.1
Total	54.5	25.0	39.6	65.5	42.8	54.1	76.0	57.8	66.6

5.6.5 Literacy rate by ecological belts

Table 5.10 presents data on the literacy rate by sex for ecological belts. Data shows that the population residing in Hill areas had the highest literacy rate compared to that of the Mountain and Tarai areas in all census years. Hill had a literacy rate above the national average, whereas the literacy rate in the Mountain and Tarai areas was below the national average. Growth in the literacy rate during 1991-2001 was highest in Tarai (41%) followed by Hill (33%) and Mountain (31%). Contrary to this, Mountain had a higher literacy growth than the Tarai during 2001-2011. Literacy growth was 41% in Mountain followed by Hill at 24% and the Tarai at 20%. Gender gaps in literacy rates were higher in Mountain than in Hill and Tarai areas in each of the census years. However, the gaps have been narrowing over the years. For example, the gender gap in literacy rate in Mountain area was 34 percentage points in 1991, which dropped to 27 percentage points in 2001 and to 22 percentage points in 2011.

Table 5.10: Literacy rate of population 6 years and above by ecological belt, Nepal 1991-2011

Ecological belt	1991			2001			2011		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Mountain	50.2	16.5	33.2	56.9	30.4	43.5	72.9	50.6	61.3
Hill	60.2	28.5	43.9	70.6	47.3	58.6	82.3	64.5	72.9
Tarai	49.8	22.7	36.5	62.1	40.1	51.3	71.2	52.7	61.7
Total	54.5	25.0	39.6	65.5	42.8	54.1	76.0	57.8	66.6

5.6.6 Literacy rate by development regions

Table 5.11 presents data on the literacy rate by sex for development regions. Though the Eastern Development Region had the highest literacy rate for both males and females in 1991, it was replaced by the Western Development Region in 2001 and 2011. The literacy level varied among Development Regions in different census years. In 1991 and 2001, low literacy levels were observed in Mid and Far-Western Development Regions. The Central Development Region, which was in third position in terms of literacy rates in 1991 and 2001, went down to last position in 2011. The variation in literacy levels among Development regions over the years has narrowed. For instance, the variation in literacy levels in Development Regions in 1991 was 13 percentage points, this dropped to 11 percentage points in 2001 and to 7 percentage points in 2011. Gender gaps in literacy rates have been decreasing over the years in all Development Regions. The Far-Western Development region had the highest level of gender gaps in literacy rates in all previous three censuses. The gender gap was 39 percentage points in 1991, 32 percentage points in 2001 and 25 percentage points in 2011. Gender gaps were minimum in the Central Development Region in both 1991 and 2001 and were also nominal in the Western Development Region in 2011.

Table 5.11: Literacy rate of population 6 years and above by development region, Nepal 1991-2011

Regions	1991			2001			2011		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
EDR	59.3	29.2	44.3	66.5	45.0	55.7	76.8	59.3	67.6
CDR	52.0	24.6	38.6	63.7	41.6	52.9	73.4	55.5	64.4
WDR	58.5	28.9	44.0	70.4	49.3	59.3	80.7	63.7	71.5
MWDR	47.6	16.3	31.8	61.1	37.7	49.4	74.8	56.2	65.0
FWDR	52.0	13.3	32.2	64.7	33.2	48.7	77.9	52.5	64.5
Total	54.5	25.0	39.6	65.5	42.8	54.1	76.0	57.8	66.6

5.6.7 Literacy rate by eco-development regions

Table 5.12 presents data on the literacy rate by sex for Eco-Development Regions. Central Hill had the highest literacy rate among the regions for all censuses from 1991 to 2011. The lowest literacy rates were observed in Mid-Western Mountain in 1991 and 2001, and in the central Tarai in 2011. Variations in literacy rates within the eco-development regions are still high. They were 26 percentage points in 1991, 33 percentage points in 2001 and 24 percentage points in 2011. Gender gaps in literacy rates have been decreasing over the years in all eco-development regions. The Mountain and Hills of the Far-Western Region had the highest level of gender gaps in literacy levels in all censuses from 1991 to 2011 at 43 percentage points in 1991, 38 percentage points in 2001 and 29 percentage points in 2011.

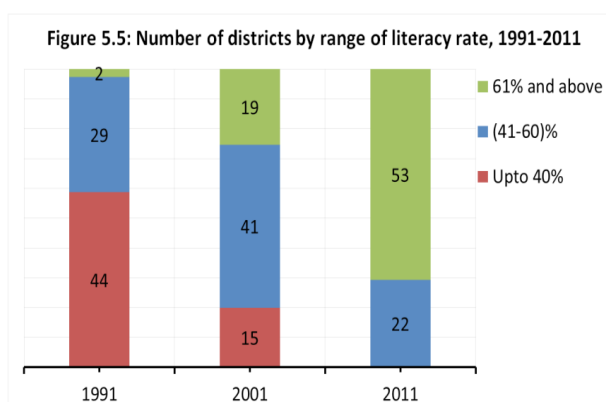
Table 5.12: Literacy rate of population 6 years and above by eco-development region, Nepal 1991-2011

Regions	1991			2001			2011		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Eastern Mountain	62.0	29.0	45.1	61.5	41.7	51.4	77.0	61.1	68.6
Eastern Hill	61.4	28.5	44.6	67.8	46.4	56.9	79.8	64.3	71.6
Eastern Tarai	57.9	29.7	44.0	66.5	44.7	55.7	74.4	56.6	65.2
Central Mountain	46.5	15.7	31.1	55.1	32.4	43.7	69.3	52.2	60.3
Central Hill	63.0	33.6	48.4	74.7	52.7	63.9	84.2	68.4	76.3
Central Tarai	43.0	17.8	30.8	54.6	32.2	43.8	61.9	42.7	52.4
Western Mountain	59.2	33.5	47.0	63.5	45.8	55.4	78.0	58.5	69.1
Western Hill	63.6	34.7	48.0	73.0	52.4	61.8	83.6	67.6	74.7
Western Tarai	49.9	23.0	36.6	66.7	44.0	55.4	75.5	57.4	66.2
Mid-western Mountain	36.9	6.4	22.0	46.2	14.7	31.2	66.9	41.0	54.0
Mid-western Hill	49.4	14.6	31.6	60.5	34.5	47.3	74.6	56.0	64.7
Mid-western Tarai	48.4	21.2	35.0	64.0	44.2	54.1	74.3	58.9	66.3
Far-western Mountain	53.1	10.5	31.2	59.1	21.3	39.7	73.6	44.8	58.5
Far-western Hill	53.3	10.1	30.6	64.1	26.6	44.6	75.4	46.3	59.6
Far-western Tarai	50.4	18.2	34.4	67.3	43.4	55.5	78.1	58.6	67.9
Total	54.5	25.0	39.6	65.5	42.8	54.1	76.0	57.8	66.6

5.6.8 Literacy rate by districts

Table 5.13 presents data on the literacy rate of the population 6 years and above by districts in different census years. Literacy levels have substantially improved in all districts over the years. In all three census years, the literacy rate was highest in Kathmandu district.

It increased from 70% in 1991 to 77% in 2001 and 86% in 2011. Humla had the lowest literacy rate in 1991 and 2001 (20% and 27%, respectively) but in 2011 the lowest literacy rate was observed in Rautahat at 42%. Gender gaps in literacy rates have been decreasing over the years in all districts. However, the magnitude of gender gaps is still high. For example, in 2011 gender gaps in the literacy levels among districts ranged from 12 percentage points to 35 percentage points. Bajhang had the highest gender gap, 35 percentage points in 2011 (male literacy, 75.2%, female literacy, 41.7%).



Out of 75 districts, 44 districts in 1991 had a literacy rate below 41%. The corresponding figure in 2001 was 15 districts and in 2011 there were no districts with a literacy rate below 41% (see Table 5.14 and Figure 5.5).

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Table 5.13: Literacy rate of population 6 years and above by districts, Nepal 1991-2011

District	1991			2001			2011		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Taplejung	62.4	30.6	46.1	62.9	42.8	52.6	80.3	64.7	72.1
Panchathar	61.7	26.9	43.9	65.7	45.6	55.4	81.4	66.3	73.4
Ilam	65.9	39.0	52.5	74.4	58.6	66.5	84.7	72.3	78.3
Jhapa	67.8	44.5	56.3	75.6	58.8	67.1	82.8	68.7	75.3
Morang	62.2	35.2	48.9	67.1	46.8	57.0	79.3	63.3	70.9
Sunsari	74.0	44.2	58.9	70.9	50.3	60.6	77.6	60.7	68.9
Dhankuta	66.3	33.5	49.6	74.5	54.5	64.3	83.1	67.6	74.8
Terhathum	74.9	37.6	55.7	71.3	48.2	59.3	84.4	67.4	75.2
Sankhuwasabha	65.4	32.6	48.6	63.7	45.1	54.2	78.6	62.8	70.2
Bhojpur	58.9	26.3	41.9	66.1	44.4	54.8	79.4	61.9	70.1
Solukhumbu	56.8	21.5	38.9	56.7	35.5	45.9	74.6	56.3	65.1
Okhaldhunga	56.2	23.1	39.1	63.6	36.3	49.3	75.3	56.4	65.1
Khotang	58.4	23.6	40.3	62.3	38.8	50.2	78.8	61.7	69.7
Udayapur	55.2	21.5	38.2	64.8	42.5	53.6	78.1	61.9	69.5
Saptari	51.4	17.8	34.8	63.2	35.5	49.6	67.8	42.6	54.9
Siraha	43.5	13.3	28.8	53.6	27.1	40.7	62.9	39.4	50.7
Dhanusa	43.1	16.1	30.1	60.1	36.3	48.7	61.4	40.4	50.9
Mahotari	37.3	13.9	26.0	45.9	22.4	34.7	57.5	36.7	47.0
Sarlahi	38.0	13.5	26.2	46.9	25.4	36.5	56.6	36.8	46.8
Sindhuli	48.6	17.7	33.1	62.6	38.5	50.5	70.9	52.6	61.3
Ramechhap	49.3	12.9	30.4	53.8	26.6	39.4	73.4	53.7	62.7
Dolakha	53.1	17.7	34.9	64.0	38.8	51.1	74.2	54.0	63.3
Sindhupalchoke	44.1	15.0	29.7	51.8	29.5	40.6	68.5	52.0	59.9
Kavre	56.2	23.7	39.6	75.7	52.8	64.0	80.2	61.0	70.1
Lalitpur	76.5	48.0	62.4	81.0	60.4	70.9	90.3	74.7	82.7
Bhaktapur	74.8	42.7	58.8	81.1	59.6	70.6	90.7	72.6	81.7
Kathmandu	82.2	57.0	70.1	86.5	66.6	77.2	92.4	79.8	86.3
Nuwakot	45.4	18.0	31.6	62.4	40.7	51.4	68.5	52.6	60.2
Rasuwa	33.8	11.3	23.0	42.8	24.8	34.3	61.3	46.6	53.9
Dhading	46.2	18.5	32.2	53.9	34.0	43.7	71.8	55.9	63.3
Makwanpur	52.1	24.7	38.6	72.6	53.9	63.4	76.3	61.1	68.5
Rautahat	34.7	11.9	23.7	42.9	21.7	32.7	51.8	32.3	42.3
Bara	41.7	13.7	28.2	55.2	29.1	42.7	63.7	40.8	52.5
Parsa	46.2	17.9	32.5	55.5	28.2	42.6	67.8	44.1	56.5
Chitawan	65.7	40.9	53.1	79.3	63.0	71.1	84.3	70.8	77.3
Gorkha	57.4	31.0	43.8	64.4	45.7	54.3	75.8	59.7	66.8
Lamjung	62.0	34.0	47.1	69.0	46.3	56.9	81.1	63.4	71.3
Tanahu	66.5	36.2	50.4	72.6	53.0	62.0	84.3	68.1	75.2
Syangja	66.9	38.4	51.3	77.9	57.7	66.7	86.7	69.7	77.0

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District	1991			2001			2011		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Kaski	71.0	44.5	57.2	83.2	61.8	72.1	90.5	75.4	82.6
Manang	54.9	30.1	43.1	67.3	52.7	60.4	83.2	64.2	75.0
Mustang	60.8	34.8	48.5	61.1	41.1	52.1	75.9	55.9	66.5
Myagdi	55.0	26.1	39.6	67.9	45.9	56.0	82.0	64.8	72.5
Parbat	68.5	38.1	51.9	68.2	47.7	57.0	84.3	66.6	74.3
Baglung	57.3	27.5	41.1	73.1	52.3	61.7	81.7	65.8	72.6
Gulmi	64.6	32.7	46.8	70.1	48.1	57.8	82.8	66.4	73.2
Palpa	63.9	34.9	48.2	76.2	57.8	66.2	85.8	69.9	76.8
Nawalparasi	53.3	25.2	39.2	66.0	40.9	53.3	80.5	62.9	71.1
Rupandehi	53.4	26.2	40.0	76.2	55.9	66.2	80.1	61.2	70.4
Kapilbastu	41.1	15.5	28.8	53.3	29.5	41.8	66.0	45.4	55.7
Arghakhanchi	59.5	29.7	43.3	67.2	46.9	56.1	83.0	66.3	73.4
Pyuthan	51.4	17.0	32.7	62.4	34.0	46.9	79.8	59.2	68.0
Rolpa	46.6	10.2	27.7	53.1	23.1	37.5	73.1	51.1	61.0
Rukum	46.8	11.3	28.8	51.0	29.0	40.3	72.3	54.4	62.8
Salyan	47.5	12.5	29.8	60.2	36.2	48.5	75.5	56.0	65.3
Dang	55.8	24.4	39.9	69.3	46.9	58.0	79.6	63.0	70.8
Banke	46.4	21.8	34.6	66.0	49.2	57.8	70.9	55.4	63.1
Bardiya	41.6	16.8	29.4	55.5	35.9	45.7	74.3	58.2	65.9
Surkhet	60.2	25.5	42.6	73.9	51.7	62.7	83.3	65.6	74.0
Dailekh	48.3	11.3	29.8	64.7	32.3	48.0	74.5	53.6	63.6
Jajarkot	38.0	9.0	23.6	49.4	29.1	39.5	67.7	49.7	58.7
Dolpa	37.5	8.4	23.3	49.6	19.8	35.0	68.9	40.7	54.7
Jumla	41.5	8.5	25.4	47.0	16.8	32.5	69.6	41.3	55.6
Kalikot	33.6	5.1	19.6	54.2	17.8	38.5	69.6	46.5	58.0
Mugu	37.9	5.2	22.0	45.4	9.3	28.0	66.7	37.3	52.2
Humla	33.7	4.6	19.6	41.3	11.8	27.1	63.5	33.4	48.7
Bajura	43.4	7.7	25.2	51.2	17.3	34.1	70.8	44.1	57.0
Bajhang	50.1	7.0	27.6	57.6	15.2	35.5	75.2	40.7	56.8
Achham	45.3	5.5	23.9	54.1	16.0	33.8	72.7	43.6	56.9
Doti	48.7	9.9	28.6	61.2	26.0	43.7	75.7	43.0	57.7
Kailali	45.3	15.1	30.3	64.0	41.0	52.6	77.2	57.5	67.0
Kanchanpur	58.5	23.1	41.0	72.8	47.2	60.1	82.2	61.3	71.2
Dadeldhura	62.3	13.0	36.6	72.2	33.3	51.9	81.6	53.6	66.5
Baitadi	60.0	13.5	35.7	71.5	33.8	51.9	81.0	49.9	64.2
Darchula	65.4	18.0	41.4	67.4	32.5	49.5	81.1	53.6	66.5
Total	54.5	25.0	39.6	65.5	42.8	54.1	76.0	57.8	66.6

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Table 5.14: Number of districts by range of literacy rate of population 6 years and above, Nepal 1991-2011

Literacy rate range (percent)	Number of districts		
	1991	2001	2011
10-20	2	0	0
21-30	21	2	0
31-40	21	13	0
41-50	20	17	4
51-60	9	24	18
61-70	1	14	27
71+	1	5	26
Total	75	75	75

Table 5.15: Rank of districts according to literacy status of population 6 years and above in different census years

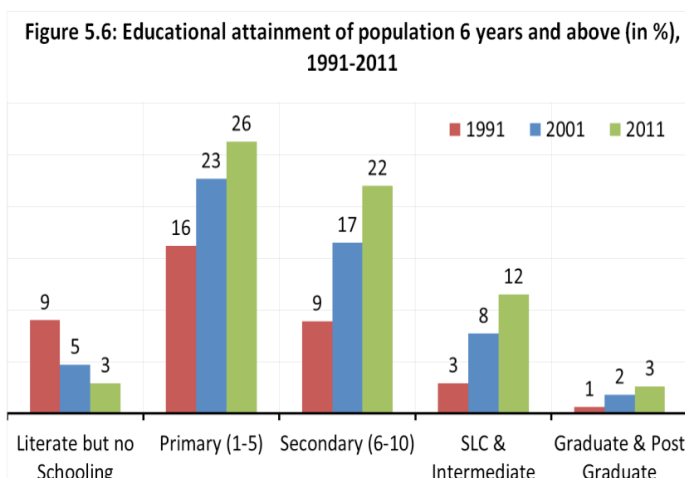
District	District rank in		
	1991	2001	2011
Kathmandu	1	1	1
Lalitpur	2	4	2
Kaski	5	2	3
Bhaktapur	4	5	4
Ilam	9	8	5
Chitawan	8	3	6
Syangja	11	7	7
Palpa	17	9	8
Jhapa	6	6	9
Tanahu	12	15	10
Terhathum	7	20	11
Manang	24	18	12
Dhankuta	13	11	13
Parbat	10	24	14
Surkhet	25	14	15
Arghakhanchi	23	27	16
Panchathar	21	29	17
Gulmi	19	22	18
Baglung	28	16	19
Myagdi	34	28	20
Taplejung	20	35	21
Lamjung	18	26	22
Kanchanpur	29	19	23
Nawalparasi	35	34	24
Morang	14	25	25
Dang	32	21	26
Rupandehi	31	10	27
Sankhuwasabha	15	32	28
Kavre	33	12	29
Bhojpur	26	30	30
Khotang	30	43	31
Udayapur	39	33	32
Sunsari	3	17	33
Makwanpur	38	13	34
Pyuthan	46	50	35
Kailali	51	36	36
Gorkha	22	31	37
Mustang	16	37	38
Dadeldhura	40	38	39
Darchula	27	45	40
Bardiya	56	52	41
Salyan	53	48	42
Okhaldhunga	36	46	43
Solukhumbu	37	51	44
Baitadi	41	39	45
Dailekh	54	49	46
Dolakha	42	41	47
Dhading	48	53	48
Banke	44	23	49
Rukum	59	60	50
Ramechhap	50	62	51
Sindhuli	45	42	52
Rolpa	62	64	53
Nuwakot	49	40	54

District	District rank in		
	1991	2001	2011
Sindhupalchoke	55	59	55
Jajarkot	70	61	56
Kalikot	74	63	57
Doti	60	54	58
Bajura	67	70	59
Achham	68	71	60
Bajhang	63	66	61
Parsa	47	56	62
Kapilbastu	57	57	63
Jumla	66	73	64
Saptari	43	44	65

District	District rank in		
	1991	2001	2011
Dolpa	71	67	66
Rasuwa	72	69	67
Bara	61	55	68
Mugu	73	74	69
Dhanusa	52	47	70
Siraha	58	58	71
Humla	75	75	72
Mahotari	65	68	73
Sarlahi	64	65	74
Rautahat	69	72	75

5.7 Educational attainment

Table 5.16 presents data on the level of educational attainment of the population 6 years and above by sex during the census period 1991-2011. Data shows that there has been a considerable improvement in the educational attainment at all levels of education over the years. However, a large proportion of the Nepalese people only have a primary level of education, followed by a secondary level education. Among the population 6 years of age and above in 2011, 26% had a primary level education followed by 22% with a secondary level education and 12% with SLC & Intermediate education. Only 3% achieved an educational level equivalent to graduate or post graduate in 2011 (see Figure 5.6). Similar patterns of educational attainment have been found in both males and females over the years. During the last 20 years (1991-2011), the population with an educational level of SLC or Intermediate increased four-fold from 3% in 1991 to 12% in 2011. Gender gaps in levels of educational attainment have been decreasing over the years up to the secondary level of education, while for higher levels of education gender gaps have marginally increased.



Gender gaps were lower at younger than at older ages. For example, among those who had a primary level of educational attainment in 2011, there were no gender gaps in the age group 6-9 years, whereas it was 10 percentage points for ages 35 years and above (see Table 5.17). Similar patterns were found at higher levels of educational attainment. Gender gaps were more prevalent for ages 25 years and above. The improvement in educational attainment is more notable for younger age groups than higher age groups (see Table 5.17).

Table 5.16: Level of educational attainment of population 6 years and above, Nepal 1991-2011

Educational level	1991			2001			2011		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Literate but no schooling	12.1	6.0	9.0	5.5	3.9	4.7	2.7	3.0	2.9
Primary (1-5)	21.2	11.2	16.2	25.7	19.6	22.7	29.2	23.5	26.3
Secondary (6-10)	12.9	5.0	8.9	20.1	13.0	16.5	25.1	19.2	22.0
SLC & intermediate	4.5	1.3	2.9	10.3	5.1	7.7	13.7	9.4	11.5
Graduate & post graduate	1.1	0.2	0.6	3.0	0.7	1.8	3.8	1.6	2.6
Level not stated	2.5	1.1	1.8	0.8	0.5	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.3

Table 5.17: Percentage of population aged 6 years and above by level of education, age and sex, Nepal 1991-2011

Age/Sex	1991					2001					2011											
	6-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-34	35+	Total	6-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-34	35+	Total	6-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-34	35+	Total	
Literate but no schooling																						
Total	12.9	7.0	7.1	7.9	8.7	9.5	9.0	3.6	1.4	2.5	3.9	5.3	7.7	4.7	0.3	0.3	0.6	1.7	3.3	5.7	2.9	
Male	14.8	7.3	7.3	9.6	12.2	15.6	12.1	3.9	1.2	1.9	3.1	5.0	10.8	5.5	0.3	0.2	0.4	1.0	2.0	6.3	2.7	
Female	10.9	6.6	6.8	6.4	5.4	3.2	6.0	3.3	1.5	3.0	4.6	5.7	4.4	3.9	0.3	0.3	0.7	2.2	4.4	5.2	3.0	
Primary (1-5)																						
Total	30.2	44.2	15.1	9.4	7.1	3.5	16.2	50.8	57.4	16.2	11.8	10.2	6.8	22.7	71.6	58.3	13.4	14.1	15.5	11.6	26.3	
Male	36.3	53.6	19.4	13.6	11.4	5.8	21.2	53.7	61.1	17.2	13.5	12.6	10.1	25.7	71.6	59.6	13.4	14.5	17.2	16.7	29.2	
Female	23.8	34.1	11.0	5.7	3.2	1.1	11.2	47.7	53.6	15.1	10.3	8.0	3.4	19.6	71.6	57.0	13.3	13.7	14.2	6.9	23.5	
Secondary (6-10)																						
Total	0.0	10.3	27.6	15.4	8.5	3.2	8.9	0.0	19.5	44.1	25.1	17.5	7.7	16.5	0.2	32.7	52.6	25.6	24.4	11.2	22.0	
Male	0.0	13.3	38.3	23.9	14.0	5.3	12.9	0.0	21.0	49.8	30.0	23.5	11.8	20.1	0.2	32.8	54.3	27.3	29.5	16.7	25.1	
Female	0.0	7.1	17.4	8.3	3.5	1.0	5.0	0.0	17.8	38.5	20.8	12.0	3.4	13.0	0.2	32.5	50.9	24.2	20.4	5.9	19.2	
SLC & intermediate																						
Total	0.0	0.0	3.5	8.9	5.7	1.8	2.9	0.0	0.0	11.0	21.0	13.8	5.5	7.7	0.0	0.1	21.5	32.7	17.6	7.3	11.5	
Male	0.0	0.0	4.9	14.2	9.6	3.1	4.5	0.0	0.0	13.1	27.2	19.0	8.9	10.3	0.0	0.1	22.9	37.5	22.1	11.1	13.7	
Female	0.0	0.0	2.3	4.4	2.2	0.5	1.3	0.0	0.0	9.0	15.6	8.9	2.1	5.1	0.0	0.1	20.2	28.8	14.0	3.7	9.4	
Graduate & Post Graduate																						
Total	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.8	1.6	0.9	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.5	4.8	2.5	1.8	0.0	0.0	0.4	5.3	6.2	3.0	2.6	
Male	0.0	0.0	0.1	1.3	2.7	1.5	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.6	7.9	4.3	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	6.4	9.2	5.0	3.8	
Female	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.5	1.9	0.6	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.4	4.4	3.9	1.1	1.6	
Level not stated																						
Total	3.4	1.4	1.1	1.2	1.5	1.9	1.8	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.2	0.7	0.7	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	
Male	4.0	1.6	1.2	1.5	2.2	3.3	2.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.9	1.6	0.9	0.8	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	
Female	2.8	1.2	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.5	1.1	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	

5.7.1 Educational attainment: rural-urban differences

Tables 5.18 to 5.20 show the proportion of males and females aged 6 years and above who attained specific educational levels by urban-rural areas. Data shows a considerable improvement in the educational attainment in both urban and rural areas over the years. For example, in rural areas, the proportion of those who had completed secondary level education increased from 8% in 1991 to 16% in 2001 and to 21% in 2011. The corresponding increment in urban area was from 18% in 1991 to 22% in 2001 and 25% in 2011. This trend persists at almost all levels of educational attainment.

The attainment of a particular educational level in each specific age-group was higher in urban areas than in rural areas. For example, the proportion of those aged 10-14 years who attained secondary level education was 31% in rural areas and 45% in urban areas in 2011. This trend persists in all specific age groups at each level of educational attainment. As expected, urban areas have a higher proportion of the literate population with an educational attainment of secondary level or higher compared to rural areas in all census years.

Male-female differences in regard to educational attainment between urban-rural areas were more pronounced in older than in younger age groups and in higher levels of educational attainment than lower levels. For example, in rural areas, the proportion of males (17.5%) completing primary level education exceeded that of females (6.3%) by 11 percentage points in the age groups 35 years and above in 2011. The corresponding sex imbalance in urban areas dropped to only 3 percentage points. This trend persists in almost every level of educational attainment.

Table 5.18: Level of educational attainment of population 6 years and above by urban and rural areas and sex, Nepal 1991-2011

Urban/Rural areas and level of education	1991			2001			2011		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Urban									
Literate but no schooling	12.6	9.8	11.3	5.0	6.0	5.5	2.3	3.3	2.8
Primary (1-5)	20.4	17.0	18.7	22.4	20.1	21.3	21.8	19.9	20.9
Secondary (6-10)	20.7	15.0	18.0	24.4	19.9	22.2	26.7	23.6	25.2
SLC & Intermediate	14.6	8.4	11.6	19.6	12.3	16.1	25.6	21.1	23.4
Graduate & Post Graduate	6.3	2.1	4.3	8.8	2.9	5.9	11.2	5.9	8.6
Level not stated	3.0	2.0	2.5	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.4	0.3	0.3
Rural									
Literate but no schooling	12.0	5.6	8.7	5.6	3.6	4.6	2.8	2.9	2.9
Primary (1-5)	21.3	10.6	15.9	26.3	19.5	22.9	30.9	24.2	27.4
Secondary (6-10)	12.0	4.0	7.9	19.4	11.8	15.6	24.7	18.3	21.4
SLC & Intermediate	3.4	0.6	2.0	8.6	3.9	6.2	11.0	7.1	8.9
Graduate & Post Graduate	0.5	0.0	0.3	2.0	0.3	1.1	2.1	0.7	1.4
Level not stated	2.5	1.0	1.7	0.8	0.5	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.3

Table 5.19: Percentage of population aged 6 years and above by level of education, age and sex, Urban-Nepal 1991-2011

Level of education / Sex	1991						2001						2011									
	6-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-34	35+	Total	6-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-34	35+	Total	6-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-34	35+	Total	
Literate but no schooling																						
Total	18.0	6.9	7.7	8.9	10.7	13.8	11.3	9.1	2.0	5.3	4.3	5.7	6.6	5.5	0.3	0.2	0.5	1.1	2.5	6.1	2.8	
Male	19.3	6.9	7.7	9.1	11.5	17.3	12.6	7.5	1.6	2.9	3.5	4.6	7.7	5.0	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.8	1.6	5.4	2.3	
Female	16.6	6.8	7.7	8.6	9.9	9.9	9.8	10.8	2.3	8.1	5.0	6.8	5.4	6.0	0.3	0.2	0.6	1.4	3.3	6.8	3.3	
Primary (1-5)																						
Total	50.5	51.2	11.6	7.8	6.9	5.2	18.7	64.7	56.7	11.0	8.4	8.4	7.6	21.3	77.4	50.9	7.8	8.2	10.9	11.3	20.9	
Male	53.0	54.5	12.7	8.3	7.8	6.6	20.4	67.9	58.5	9.9	8.2	8.4	9.5	22.4	76.7	52.2	8.2	8.1	10.5	12.8	21.8	
Female	47.9	47.5	10.4	7.2	5.9	3.6	17.0	61.2	54.9	12.2	8.6	8.4	5.6	20.1	78.3	49.4	7.4	8.3	11.1	9.9	19.9	
Secondary (6-10)																						
Total	0.0	23.5	44.0	23.8	16.5	9.1	18.0	0.0	29.9	45.5	27.8	21.1	13.1	22.2	0.2	44.8	45.5	20.6	26.5	17.5	25.2	
Male	0.0	24.8	48.0	27.3	19.9	12.2	20.7	0.0	30.8	48.9	27.1	23.4	17.5	24.4	0.2	43.7	45.7	20.4	27.4	21.5	26.7	
Female	0.0	22.1	39.6	20.1	12.8	5.6	15.0	0.0	28.8	41.6	28.5	18.7	8.4	19.9	0.2	45.9	45.2	20.8	25.5	13.5	23.6	
SLC & Intermediate																						
Total	0.0	0.1	14.1	27.1	19.3	9.1	11.6	0.0	0.0	24.6	34.3	24.8	11.7	16.1	0.0	0.3	40.3	49.7	29.5	17.8	23.4	
Male	0.0	0.1	15.9	32.9	24.0	13.2	14.6	0.0	0.0	28.6	41.2	29.0	16.7	19.6	0.0	0.3	40.5	52.4	31.4	22.8	25.6	
Female	0.0	0.1	12.1	21.2	14.2	4.6	8.4	0.0	0.0	20.2	27.6	20.4	6.5	12.3	0	0.3	40.1	47.1	27.8	12.7	21.1	
Graduate & Post Graduate																						
Total	0.0	0.0	0.3	4.3	9.2	6.8	4.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.6	13.2	8.6	5.9	0.0	0.0	0.9	12.4	16.3	10.7	8.6	
Male	0.0	0.0	0.3	5.3	13.0	10.7	6.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.3	18.9	14.0	8.8	0.0	0.0	0.8	12.7	20.6	16.4	11.2	
Female	0.0	0.0	0.3	3.2	5.2	2.4	2.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.9	7.1	2.9	2.9	0.0	0.0	1.0	12.0	12.2	4.9	5.9	
Level not stated																						
Total	4.6	1.4	1.3	1.6	2.1	3.4	2.5	0.8	0.3	0.7	0.6	1.0	1.4	0.9	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.3	
Male	4.9	1.5	1.3	1.7	2.5	4.5	3.0	0.8	0.3	0.5	0.6	1.3	1.7	1.0	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	
Female	4.3	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.8	2.0	2.0	0.8	0.4	1.0	0.7	0.8	1.0	0.8	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.3	

Table 5.20: Percentage of population aged 6 years and above by level of education, age and sex, Rural-Nepal 1991-2011

Level of education / Sex	1991						2001						2011									
	6-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-34	35+	Total	6-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-34	35+	Total	6-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-34	35+	Total	
Literate but no schooling																						
Total	12.4	7.0	7.0	7.4	8.4	9.1	8.7	2.9	1.3	1.9	3.8	5.3	7.8	4.6	0.3	0.3	0.6	1.8	3.6	5.6	2.9	
Male	14.4	7.3	7.3	9.6	12.3	15.5	12.0	3.4	1.2	1.7	3.0	5.0	11.3	5.6	0.3	0.2	0.4	1.1	2.1	6.5	2.8	
Female	10.4	6.6	6.7	6.1	4.9	2.6	5.6	2.4	1.4	2.1	4.6	5.5	4.3	3.6	0.3	0.3	0.8	2.4	4.7	4.9	2.9	
Primary (1-5)																						
Total	28.4	43.6	15.5	9.6	7.1	3.3	15.9	48.9	57.5	17.2	12.5	10.6	6.7	22.9	70.6	59.6	14.6	15.7	16.8	11.7	27.4	
Male	34.9	53.5	20.2	14.4	11.9	5.67	21.3	51.8	61.5	18.8	14.7	13.6	10.2	26.3	70.7	60.9	14.6	16.7	19.2	17.5	30.9	
Female	21.7	32.9	11.1	5.5	2.9	0.9	10.6	45.9	53.4	15.7	10.6	7.9	3.0	19.5	70.5	58.3	14.5	15.0	14.9	6.3	24.2	
Secondary (6-10)																						
Total	0.0	9.0	25.7	14.3	7.5	2.6	7.9	0.0	17.8	43.9	24.6	16.8	6.8	15.6	0.1	30.6	54.1	27.0	23.9	9.8	21.4	
Male	0.0	12.1	37.1	23.3	13.2	4.6	12.0	0.0	19.5	50.0	30.7	23.5	10.9	19.4	0.1	30.9	56.3	29.5	30.1	15.6	24.7	
Female	0.0	5.7	14.9	6.9	2.4	0.6	4.0	0.0	16.1	38.0	19.3	10.7	2.6	11.8	0.2	30.4	52.1	25.0	19.1	4.4	18.3	
SLC & Intermediate																						
Total	0.0	0.0	2.3	6.4	4.1	1.2	2.0	0.0	0.0	8.3	18.2	11.5	4.6	6.2	0.0	0.1	17.5	27.8	14.3	5.1	8.9	
Male	0.0	0.0	3.5	11.4	7.7	2.1	3.4	0.0	0.0	9.7	24.0	16.8	7.7	8.6	0.0	0.1	18.8	32.6	19.2	8.5	11.0	
Female	0.0	0.0	1.2	2.4	0.9	0.2	0.6	0.0	0.0	7.0	13.2	6.7	1.4	3.9	0.0	0.1	16.2	24.3	10.6	2.0	7.1	
Graduate & Post Graduate																						
Total	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.6	3.0	1.5	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.3	3.3	3.5	1.4	1.4	
Male	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	1.3	0.6	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.5	5.4	2.7	2.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	4.3	5.7	2.5	2.1	
Female	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.9	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.2	2.5	1.8	0.3	0.7	
Level not stated																						
Total	3.3	1.4	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.8	1.7	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.2	0.7	0.6	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	
Male	3.9	1.6	1.2	1.5	2.1	3.2	2.5	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.9	1.7	0.8	0.8	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	
Female	2.7	1.1	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.4	1.0	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	

5.8 School attendance

The status of school attendance for the population aged 6-25 years who have not completed the 10th grade is presented in Table 5.21. Overall, 69% of the reference population were attending school. Urban areas had a higher attendance rate compared to rural areas (74% and 68% respectively). There have been substantial improvements in the school attendance rate over the years.

The rate has increased by more than 2 fold during 1991-2011 (31% in 1991 to 69% in 2011) (see Figure 5.7). This pattern is the same in both urban and rural areas as well as for males and females. The attendance rate was higher in younger than in older ages. For example, 87% of children aged 6-9 years and 91% of young persons aged 10-14 years of the reference population were attending school in 2011, whereas the rate decreased to 65% for 15-19 years, 10% for 20-24 years and was only 4% for the 25 year old population. Urban-rural areas also followed a similar pattern. Gender gaps in

school attendance have been decreasing over the years. For example, gender gaps in school attendance rates were 18 percentage points in 1991, dropping to 10 percentage points in 2001 and 8 percentage points in 2011.

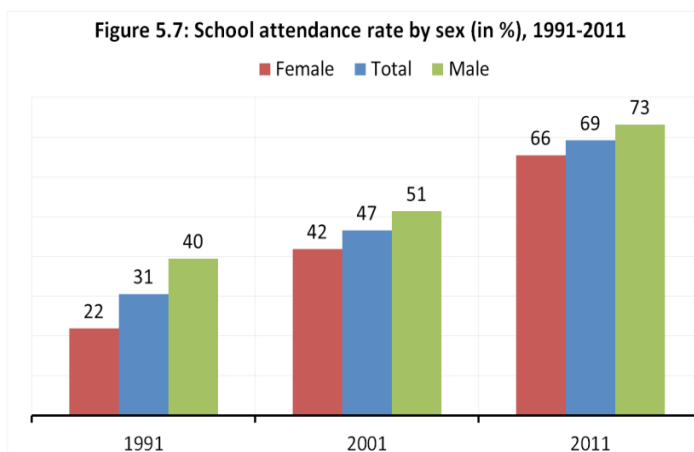


Table 5.21: Currently school attending population 6-25 years (in percentage) who have not completed the 10th grade, Nepal 1991-2011

Area / Age group	1991			2001			2011		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Nepal	39.5	21.9	30.6	51.4	41.9	46.6	73.2	65.5	69.2
06-09	38.1	25.5	31.9	55.8	49.3	52.6	87.7	85.9	86.8
10-14	67.7	42.2	55.5	79.1	68.6	74.0	92.0	89.5	90.8
15-19	38.4	16.9	27.4	49.1	37.7	43.4	67.8	62.1	64.8
20-24	6.7	2.2	4.3	10.6	8.1	9.3	11.9	8.2	9.7
25	2.0	0.7	1.3	9.8	8.2	8.9	5.0	3.0	3.8
Urban	43.8	36.4	40.2	55.7	52.2	54.0	76.2	72.5	74.4
06-09	52.0	45.8	48.5	74.7	70.4	72.6	94.9	94.3	94.6
10-14	78.9	69.8	74.6	89.9	83.3	86.7	95.1	94.9	95.0
15-19	42.6	33.0	38.0	49.3	43.6	46.6	70.0	69.4	69.7
20-24	7.1	4.4	5.8	11.9	10.9	11.4	9.9	8.4	9.1
25	2.5	1.6	2.0	22.3	21.5	21.9	4.0	3.4	3.6
Rural	39.0	20.4	29.6	50.4	40.1	42.2	72.7	64.4	68.4
06-09	36.9	23.7	30.4	53.3	46.7	50.0	86.5	84.6	85.6
10-14	66.6	39.5	53.6	77.5	66.4	72.1	91.4	88.6	90.0
15-19	37.8	15.2	26.2	49.1	36.8	42.8	67.4	61.1	64.1
20-24	6.6	1.9	4.0	10.1	7.0	8.4	12.3	8.2	9.8
25	1.9	0.6	1.2	7.3	5.7	6.5	5.2	3.0	3.9

5.9 Conclusions and recommendation

- The analysis of census data has indicated a remarkable improvement in the literacy level, educational attainment and/or school attendance rate for both males and females over the years.
- Gender differences in regard to both literacy and/or educational attainment between urban-rural areas were more pronounced in older than in younger age groups and at higher levels of educational attainment than in lower levels.
- High literacy rates in the age group 10-14 years (92%) indicates an improvement in access to education and a decrease in gender gaps over the years.
- Data has indicated a greater variation in literacy rates among the districts. Kathmandu continued to remain top while Rautahat was lowest in terms of literacy ranking.
- Districts such as Mustang, Gorkha, Darchula, Saptari, Parsa and Dhanusa did not appear to be fairing much better.
- Further studies may be needed to understand the reasons behind the overwhelming gender disparities in literacy rates in the Far-Western Development region and in Mountain areas.
- Efforts also need to be concentrated in the Mountain and Tarai areas, with a particular focus on rural areas, that continue to lag behind urban areas both in terms of literacy and educational attainment.
- Gender gaps in the literacy rate have declined over the years across districts. Female literacy was below 40% in six districts in 2011, namely Siraha, Sarlahi, Mahottari, Mugu, Humla and Rautahat. Bajhang continued to have the highest gender gap with a 35 percentage points difference between males and females in 2011. This data indicates the need for further improvements in female literacy rates in these districts.
- Further studies may be desirable to identify the required measures for improving the gender composition of literacy and/or educational attainment in rural and urban areas.
- Furthermore, the focus of any studies should go beyond quantifying who has access to basic education, but identify what needs to be done to provide equitable and quality education for all, so that Nepal does not get left behind in creating a marketplace with skilled labour force; a vehicle for social mobility, and an environment for economic growth with equity.

LITERACY AND EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF NEPALESE POPULATION

Annex 5.1: Literacy rate of population 5 years of age and above by caste/ethnic group, Nepal 2011

Rank	Caste/Ethnicity	Male	Female	Total	Rank	Caste/Ethnicity	Male	Female	Total
1	Kayastha	92.2	82.2	87.3	35	Mewaha Bala	76.5	61.1	68.4
2	Marwadi	90.8	82.9	87.1	36	Meche	78.3	59.7	68.3
3	Dev	90.9	77.2	84.6	37	Rajbansi	78.3	56.7	67.2
4	Brahmin-Hill	90.6	74.1	81.9	38	Bangali	75.6	55.5	66.8
5	Brahmin-Tarai	89.0	72.7	81.1	39	Yamphu	75.6	58.7	66.8
6	Thakali	89.1	73.1	80.5	40	Kulung	73.5	60.3	66.7
7	Newar	88.0	72.8	80.1	41	Sudhi	77.5	55.4	66.6
8	Rajput	86.8	72.1	80.0	42	Haluwai	76.7	55.9	66.6
9	Loharung	87.8	71.7	79.5	43	Jirel	76.9	57.0	66.4
10	Bantaba	84.9	72.3	78.2	44	Yakkha	74.5	59.1	66.3
11	Chamling	84.7	70.7	77.1	45	Sherpa	75.2	57.5	66.0
12	Dura	87.7	68.5	77.0	46	Janaja Others	75.7	56.0	65.6
13	Samgpang	82.9	69.9	75.9	47	Sunuwar	73.3	58.5	65.6
14	Lepcha	80.5	70.9	75.7	48	Khawas	77.0	54.2	65.1
15	Foreigner	81.3	67.0	75.1	49	Nachhiring	73.0	57.0	64.9
16	Limbu	82.3	68.2	74.7	50	Tharu	74.0	55.3	64.5
17	Gurung	83.3	67.1	74.4	51	Ghale	72.6	56.0	63.5
18	Rai	81.4	68.1	74.4	52	Gangai	75.0	52.1	63.4
19	Thulung	80.7	68.1	74.3	53	Brahmu/Baramo	70.7	57.3	63.3
20	Thakuri	84.1	64.4	73.7	54	Kumal	71.6	55.6	63.1
21	Bahing	83.4	64.7	73.4	55	Kusunda	71.8	55.6	63.1
22	Aathpariya	79.8	67.5	73.0	56	Badi	72.1	55.0	63.0
23	Chhantyal/Chhantel	83.0	64.8	72.8	57	Tajpuriya	74.5	51.7	62.7
24	Chhetree	82.7	62.7	72.2	58	Tamang	71.0	54.9	62.7
25	Kathbaniyan	81.5	60.9	71.7	59	Undefined Others	70.5	55.0	62.6
26	Punjabi/Shikh	81.0	60.7	71.3	60	Damai/Dholi	70.9	55.5	62.6
27	Magar	80.0	63.6	71.1	61	Hyolmo	70.4	54.5	62.1
28	Darai	77.7	65.4	71.1	62	Kami	70.7	54.7	62.0
29	Khaling	78.4	64.0	70.5	63	Teli	73.6	48.8	61.7
30	Sanyasi/Dashnami	80.1	61.8	70.4	64	Walung	69.8	53.3	61.7
31	Kalwar	80.0	58.3	69.7	65	Bote	67.8	54.9	61.1
32	Dhimal	78.6	62.0	69.6	66	Sarki	69.3	53.7	60.8
33	Gaine	77.0	61.2	68.7	67	Hayu	70.4	51.6	60.4
34	Gharti/Bhujel	75.8	62.3	68.6	68	Sonar	70.1	48.6	59.6

Population Monograph of Nepal 2014

Rank	Caste/Ethnicity	Male	Female	Total
69	Byasi/Sanka	71.8	47.5	59.4
70	Rajdhob	73.7	44.0	59.1
71	Kisan	63.7	53.9	58.5
72	Danuwar	68.8	48.9	58.3
73	Majhi	65.7	51.1	58.2
74	Topkegola	66.4	50.6	58.0
75	Bhote	67.3	49.0	57.6
76	Thami	64.7	50.5	57.4
77	Koiri/Kushwaha	68.6	44.8	57.1
78	Munda	70.4	45.6	56.8
79	Barace	69.5	43.5	56.8
80	Koche	67.0	46.3	56.8
81	Kamar	67.2	45.3	56.4
82	Dalit Others	68.3	45.5	56.3
83	Badhaee	68.0	42.5	55.7
84	Hajam/Thakur	67.2	42.8	55.4
85	Rajbhar	66.5	43.3	55.1
86	Raji	61.7	47.5	54.3
87	Kanu	66.1	40.9	54.2
88	Tarai Others	65.6	41.6	54.1
89	Lhomi	64.7	44.4	53.6
90	Lohar	65.4	40.9	53.3
91	Pahari	60.2	46.3	53.1
92	Amat	65.6	40.1	52.9
93	Yadav	64.2	38.7	51.9
94	Kalar	59.3	44.3	51.4
95	Pattharkatta/Kush-wadiya	59.0	43.2	51.1
96	Kurmi	62.5	37.1	50.3
97	Gaderi/Bhedhar	61.7	38.3	50.2
98	Kewat	61.6	38.3	49.9
99	Mali	60.7	38.2	49.7
100	Jhangad/Dhagar	57.8	41.9	49.6
101	Dhanuk	61.1	36.5	48.9
102	Kahar	60.5	35.8	48.4
103	Satar/Santhal	56.1	40.8	48.3
104	Chepang/Praja	54.5	41.8	48.2
105	Dhandi	60.2	35.2	47.9
106	Kumhar	59.1	35.6	47.7
107	Lhopa	59.2	34.4	46.6
108	Sarbaria	57.4	34.7	46.2
109	Nurang	57.8	37.9	45.6
110	Bantar/Sardar	53.8	35.0	44.2
111	Lodh	56.8	30.6	43.9
112	Musalman	53.1	34.1	43.7
113	Dhobi	54.3	31.5	43.2
114	Raute	47.3	37.7	42.7
115	Dhankar/Kharikar	49.1	32.6	40.9
116	Chidimar	47.4	34.2	40.9
117	Tatma/Tatwa	49.9	28.4	39.1
118	Halkhor	45.7	29.3	37.7
119	Mallaha	47.9	26.5	37.4
120	Chamar/Harijan/Ram	46.2	27.8	37.1
121	Khatwe	46.7	25.5	35.8
122	Dusadh/Pasawan/Pasi	44.0	26.6	35.5
123	Nuniya	45.4	24.5	35.3
124	Dhunia	44.9	24.2	34.4
125	Kori	43.5	24.0	34.2
126	Natuwa	40.6	23.1	32.0
127	Dolpo	38.5	19.0	28.4
128	Bin	36.0	19.0	27.6
129	Musahar	27.0	16.7	21.9
130	Dom	26.5	14.2	20.4
	Total	75.2	57.4	66.0

Annex 5.2: Literacy rate of population by broad age group, sex and residence, Nepal 1991-2011

Area /age group	1991			2001			2011		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Nepal									
6+	54.5	25.0	39.6	65.5	42.8	54.1	76.0	57.8	66.6
15+	49.2	17.4	33.0	62.7	34.9	48.6	71.7	48.8	59.6
15-24	68.2	32.7	49.6	80.6	60.1	70.1	89.9	80.2	84.8
Urban									
6+	78.0	54.8	66.9	81.2	61.9	71.9	89.4	75.3	82.5
15+	76.0	47.8	62.5	80.0	55.8	68.3	87.9	70.6	79.3
15-24	85.8	66.9	76.6	90.0	79.1	84.7	95.5	92.3	93.9
Rural									
6+	51.9	22.0	36.8	62.6	39.6	51.0	73.0	54.2	63.1
15+	46.0	14.2	29.7	59.4	31.2	45.0	67.6	44.1	55.0
15-24	67.2	31.1	48.2	78.6	56.5	76.0	88.4	77.5	82.5

Annex 5.3: Adult and youth literacy rate of population by region, sex, Nepal 2011

Region	Adult literacy rate (15+)			Youth literacy rate (15-24)		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Development region						
Eastern	72.4	50.7	60.8	90.8	82.7	86.4
Central	69.7	47.7	58.6	86.5	76.2	81.3
Western	76.5	55.6	64.9	93.4	87.3	90.0
Mid-western	68.8	44.5	55.8	91.0	78.6	84.2
Far-western	73.4	40.2	55.3	93.7	77.0	84.5
Ecological belt						
Mountain	66.9	37.7	51.5	91.1	74.0	82.0
Hill	78.9	56.4	66.8	95.2	88.9	91.8
Tarai	66.2	43.3	54.3	85.0	72.7	78.6
Eco-development zones						
Eastern Mountain	74.0	52.5	62.5	94.1	90.0	91.9
Eastern Hill	76.5	56.0	65.4	95.7	92.6	94.0
Eastern Terai	70.5	48.2	58.7	88.3	77.2	82.4
Central Mountain	62.2	40.0	50.3	92.0	83.5	87.4
Central Hill	82.2	62.2	72.1	95.1	90.5	92.8
Central Terai	57.1	32.7	44.9	75.9	57.9	67.1
Western Mountain	75.5	51.0	64.5	93.9	88.0	91.1
Western Hill	80.2	60.2	68.6	96.9	94.5	95.5
Western Terai	72.1	48.7	59.8	89.3	77.0	82.8
Mid-Western Mountain	61.3	24.4	43.0	85.5	52.5	68.5
Mid-Western Hill	70.0	44.1	55.9	93.2	80.4	86.0
Mid-Western Terai	69.4	49.2	58.7	90.0	82.3	85.8
Far-Western Mountain	70.7	30.3	48.9	92.2	64.6	77.3
Far-Western Hill	73.4	33.2	50.8	93.4	70.0	80.2
Far-Western Terai	74.2	48.3	60.4	94.3	85.2	89.4

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CHAPTER 6

CHANGING GENDER STATUS: ACHIEVEMENTS AND CHALLENGES

*Kushum Shakya, PhD**

Abstract

Gender equality is a key component of human development, but Nepal still has gender gap in overall sector. This paper identifies the changing gender status in Nepal and its achievements and challenges based on Censuses data and others. The paper shows trend and pattern analysis of data from census 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011. The changing status of gender is analyzed demographically, socially and economically by sex. In 2011, female population exceeds male population, as a result, sex ratio is low in Nepal. Additionally, in 2011, Nepal has achieved MMR of 281 per 100,000 live births, and life expectancy for woman has increased to 69.6 years. In terms of education, female literacy rate is still lower than male's literacy rate. Higher the level of education, lower the participation by females. In 2011, only less than 50 percent female graduated than male. Female activity rate is also low in 2011 than in 2001. Therefore, economic empowerment is still challenging because only 20.5 percent women have assets in 2011 as compared to 17.1 percent in 2001, thereby indicating a slow improvement. In 2011, there is a rise in female-headed household due to the increasing male migration. In addition, women's economic activity is still low in non-agriculture than in agriculture sector possibly due to lack of education and the tradition of working in agriculture. Similarly, self-employment or unpaid family labor is very high for women (64 percent of female in total), which indicates that women have very less chance to get paid jobs. Thus, it is challenging to gain economic empowerment for Nepalese women. However, the increasing female international migration (12.4 %) in 2011 may contribute more in terms of remittance in Nepal. Although the gender gap between males and females in many development arenas have improved compared to previous censuses, the change is not significant, which is challenging for the country's development. To remove the existing gap between male and female, allocation and implementation of the gender responsive budget (GRB) must be increased in demographic, socio-economic and political sectors.

6.1 Introduction and conceptual framework

At birth there are natural physical and biological differences between males and females. However, social, cultural, economical and environmental factors define differences between gender statuses. Therefore, gender is a major issue for the development of a country. The population census, which is the most comprehensive information on a country's population conducted in decennial censuses, is a major source of data for gender status analysis. The census also helps to evaluate the impact of government/non-government policies, plans and activities on

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socio-economic sectors of the country. The changing gender status of the country needs to be identified in order to develop plans, programmes and policies to eliminate the gender gap. Thus, with a shift in development objectives and strategies that focus on people's lives and options, poverty alleviation and equitable development, the collection and supply of meaningful census data, that is amenable to dis-aggregated analysis for various groups of the population, has acquired specific importance (Acharya, M, 2003). The following section shows the inclusion of gender issues in different plans for different periods in Nepal.

6.1.1 Gender issues in different plan period

Both males and females have equal roles in the development of a country. In the case of Nepal, the female population is increasing census by census compared to the male population. Thus, it is imperative to increase women's proportional representation and participation in the country's development and to create gender equality from a socio-economic perspective. This section includes the concept of social inclusion by gender in development plans.

The First Five Year Plan (1956-1961) emphasised a welfare approach to women's issues. This approach focused on human welfare rather than the production sector, for example expenditure on education and health, and family planning. The Fifth Five Year Plan (1975-1980) did not have any specific objectives related to women and development. Despite the UN conference on women in Mexico and the declaration by the United Nations of a Decade for Women in 1975, the inclusion of women in Nepal's development plans was limited to family planning and mother-child welfare. The Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-1985) included for the first time a separate chapter on "Women Development" emphasising enhancing their efficiency. In the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-1990), the chapter on "Women Development" emphasised increasing participation of women in development by enhancing their efficiency and productivity. From women's perspective, this period was marked by the recognition of women's role in the economy. In 1981, "the Women Development Programme" under the umbrella of ADB/N's Small Farmer Development Project (SFDP) was launched followed by the launch of "Production Credit for Rural Women" (PCRW) by the Ministry of Panchayat and Local Development in 1982. This formed the foundation for women's empowerment and gave legitimacy to their voice at the grass root level. The Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-1997) came after the political changes of 1990, and focused mainly on poverty reduction. Its emphasis was to accelerate growth rate to achieve this goal. The Eighth Plan spelt out the need to mainstream women in development in its chapter on "Women Development".

The Ninth Five Year Plan (1997-2002) continued to emphasise all these objectives and strategies. But, the Human Development Report of 1990, focused on human development for growth and not growth for human development. For the first time, however, strategies to move towards gender equality in terms of gender mainstreaming, the elimination of gender inequity in all laws and the empowerment of women through affirmative actions were outlined. Yet, the integration of gender in sector programmes remained very selective with a focus on agriculture, education and health. Women's Community Based Organisations (CBOs) and the integration of women in to mixed CBOs were promoted in agriculture and forestry. The number of female micro-credit groups expanded rapidly due to the establishment of female focused micro-credit institutions both in government and in the private sector. Specifically, the Ninth Five Year Plan (1997-2002) switched from Women in Development (WID) to a Gender and Development (GAD) perspective for the advancement of women. It adopted the strategy of gender mainstreaming, eliminating gender inequality and the promotion of the empowerment of women as its major policy (CBS, 2003).

The Local Self Governance Act 1999 reserved 20 percent of posts in Ward level elections for females, which gave another boost to women's political empowerment. For the first time, women fought in elections in nearly 40,000 wards, representing all participating political parties. This strengthened women's voice in development and in politics and served as a learning platform for further political activities.

The Tenth Five Year Plan/PRSP (2002-2007) also targeted women's development, but the Tenth Plan, as in the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), focused mainly on the overriding goal of poverty reduction. The goal was to reduce the population below the poverty line from 3 percent, at the beginning of the Plan period, to 30 percent by its end, along with achieving other human development targets related to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). These objectives were to be achieved through an optimum utilisation of local resources with mutual participation of government, local agencies, NGOs, the private sector and civil society. A network of institutions was established within various arms of the government to support gender mainstreaming.

The Three Year Interim Plan-TYIP (2007-2010) was formed after the unprecedented peace movement, Jana Andolan II. TYIP identified "social inclusion" as the key pillar of development and aimed to eliminate social exclusion. This transformation changed the way goals and objectives of economic development were perceived in the country. With mobilised groups increasingly making demands for social justice, it became clear to policy makers that development without equity is simply not sustainable. This has led to changes in the policy approach to development, which now includes gender mainstreaming and inclusion as a strategy to accelerate growth and to reduce poverty. The process of formulating the TYIP (2007-2010) reflected this change (Acharya, M. 2008).

The TYIP aimed to engender a macro economic development framework to make it inclusive not only of women but also of different marginalised groups. It recognised gender as a cross cutting issue, and proposed to mainstream gender in all sectors. It initiated the measurement of women's total work and contributions to the economy, which made women's work visible. Under the TYIP, gender equality and women's empowerment were a prime focus.

According to Acharya M. (2003), gender mainstreaming was further expanded by clearly defined policies, targets and programmes in all sectors at national and regional levels and more scientific and realistic calculations of the GDP statistics that included women's contribution, along with the development of more effective coordination and monitoring instruments and mechanisms. With a transformation from WID\WAD to a gender approach in development, data requirements have also expanded. Sex dis-aggregated data is meaningful for gender analysis of males and females (CBS, 2003:217). However, improvements were needed in both census used definitions and data collection methodologies in the above context. The population censuses of 2001 and 2011 are especially important in this aspect because specific efforts were made to improve the definitions of economic/non-economic activities, as per the International Labour Organization standards, in order to define the household heads more precisely and to incorporate new questions relevant for women and children, such as their living arrangements, asset ownership, engagement in household level enterprises, causes of migration and other issues.

Data interpretation and their presentation for plans, policies and programmes are not sufficient to change the gender status without a gender responsive budget. Therefore, the following section outlines the trends of gender responsive budgets in Nepal.

6.1.2 Trends of Gender Responsive Budgeting (GRB)

Gender Responsive Budget Committee (GRBC) was established in the Ministry of Finance in 2005/06. Subsequently, Nepal introduced gender responsive budgeting in the fiscal year 2007/08 through its pronouncement in the Budget Statement. This was preceded by a series of gender budget audits of several sectors and intensive preparation within the Ministry of Finance (MoF) with assistance from then UNIFEM, now UN Women. After this a new system of budget classification was introduced, which applied throughout the government, beginning with thirteen ministries. From the fiscal year 2007/08, GRB was incorporated in the computer software of Budget Management Information System (BMIS) and Line Ministry's Budgetary System (LMBS).

Three categories have been formed for gender budgeting: directly responsive, indirectly responsive and neutral budget for gender. According to Ministry of Finance, directly responsive represents more than 50 percent of the allocation directly benefiting women, whereas indirectly responsive and neutral represents 20-50 percent and less than 20 percent, respectively. In 2007/08, only 11 percent of total budget was allocated for directly gender responsive programmes/projects. Three percentage point in budget has been added in following years, 2008/09 and 2009/2010, for direct responsive budget. The total budget for the Fiscal Year 2009/10 amounts to about 286 billion rupees, out of which 49 billion rupees, approximately 17.3 percent, has been allocated for programs directly benefiting women. After 2009/10, the allocation of gender budget for direct responsive budget increased by only one percent in 2010/11 and 2011/12. It is encouraging to see an increase in budget allocation for directly gender responsive programmes/projects in 2012/13, which was 21.51 percent (87 billion rupees), and slightly increase in percentage point to 21.75 and 21.93 in 2013/14 and 2014/15 respectively, but in terms of absolute budget it was 112.51 billion and 135.57 billion respectively. It seems challenging to raise proportional trend in budget allocation.

Table 6.1: Review of gender responsive budget allocations from 2007/08 to 2014/15.

Fiscal year	Directly responsive		Indirectly responsive		Neutral		Total	
	Amount (billion Rs.)	%	Amount (billion Rs.)	%	Amount (billion Rs.)	%	Amount (billion Rs.)	%
2007/08	19.09	11.30	56.03	33	93.87	56	168.99	100
2008/09	32.91	13.94	83.58	35	119.53	46	236.02	100
2009/10	49.46	17.30	104.16	36	132.32	46	285.93	100
2010/11	60.61	17.94	122.65	36	154.64	46	337.90	100
2011/12	73.33	19.05	176.21	46	135.35	35	384.90	100
2012/13	87.07	21.51	178.73	44	139.11	34	294.91	100
2013/14	112.50	21.75	227.30	44	227.30	34	567.10	100
2014/15	135.57	21.93	278.38	45	204.15	33	618.10	100

Source: <http://www.mof.gov.np/en/gender-responsive-budget-76.html>, Ministry of Finance, 2014

The trend of indirectly responsive budget allocation is similar to the direct responsive budget. For example, 11 percent has been increased from 2007/08 (33%) to 2014/15 (45%). The increment in indirectly responsive budget also impacts women not directly; however, there is a significant increase between 2007/08 and 2014/15 in terms of both in percent and in absolute figure, which is almost five fold in eight years (56 billion to 278 billion rupees).

Table 6.1 shows the proportion of budget was more than 50 percent in neutral budget in 2007/08, and still one-third budget falls in the neutral budget by 2014/15. Therefore, women are given less importance in budget allocation than others. These figures provide valuable data for policy development and indicate that more efforts are need to track gender responsive budgets in future. And, it can be concluded that the gender budgeting is increasing but not sufficiently, which makes it challenging for the country to meet the Millennium Development Goals by 2015.

With the introduction and conceptual framework of gender issues in different plans and gender responsive budgets in Nepal, the objective of this chapter is to identify the achievements of changing gender status in Nepal as well as the challenges.

6.2 Sources of data, used terminology and tools

The sources of data used in this chapter are the censuses of 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011, the National Living Standards Survey, the Ministry of Finance and others. Data by gender was analysed from the censuses of 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011. This data interpretation shows a changing gender status, illustrated by the percentage of male and female population, the female proportion of the total population, and male-female differences in demographic, social and economic issues. Terminology for interpretation of data in demographic, socio and economics sectors is similar to the CBS (2003).

6.3 Changing gender status in Nepal

The changing gender status can be seen from various characteristics such as demographic, socio-economic and others.

6.3.1 Demographic status

The preliminary results of the Population and Housing Census of 2011, similar to the results of the Population Census of 2001, revealed that there were more females than males in Nepal (CBS, 2012). Therefore, this chapter presents the interpretation on the make-up of the population by sex in more detail. Here, the demographic characteristic deals with the composition of males and females in several ways, for example; sex ratio/masculinity proportion, birth registration (which is one of the vital sources of demography), fertility, mortality, migration (absentee population) and the ageing population. The details of population size, fertility, mortality, migration and ageing population are outlined in other chapters.

6.3.1.1 Sex ratio/masculinity ratio

In demographic analysis, age and sex are major components. The sex ratio is interpreted as the number of males per 100 females. The sex ratio is an important indicator of women's status in society, which also impacts on the development of a country. Masculinity proportion refers to the number of males in the total population. Both indicators, sex ratio and masculinity proportion, measure the number of males and females. These indicators may be affected by differential rates of male/female immigration and out migration.

If a society discriminated against the female population for various reasons, such as a preference for a male child, there will be more males surviving than females at a particular moment in time. In reality, the number of females should be higher than males because females have a greater chance of survival at birth. However, in Nepal, the birth and survival chances of a female child are low as indicated by the high sex ratio, in 2011, and in past censuses, for females aged 0-4, 5-9 and 10-14 (see Table 6.2).

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According to gender interpretation, the high sex ratio in young age groups is most likely due to the preference for a son in Nepalese society. In the age group 0-4, the high sex ratio indicates that a male child is still preferred over a female child in Nepal, which has been the trend since 1981 as shown in Table 6.2. Although “sex selective abortion” is illegal in Nepal, sex selective abortions of female fetus are still carried out that may have resulted in the high sex ratio.

Table 6.2: Age specific sex ratio, 1981- 2011

Age group	Sex ratio			
	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**
0-4	105.9	102.6	102.7	104.9
5-9	104.1	103.9	103.5	104.2
10-14	116.7	108.3	105.9	103.2
15-19	110.0	96.0	98.6	96.9
20-24	91.2	85.1	88.5	79.5
25-29	96.4	89.3	90.8	78.9
30-34	92.3	91.8	95.1	79.9
35-39	107.1	101.0	98.8	85.7
40-44	100.2	94.7	98.5	91.0
45-49	113.9	104.0	103.5	96.2
50-54	115.2	105.6	105.2	101.3
55-59	119.3	115.8	112.4	101.9
60-64	109.0	99.7	101.4	94.9
65-69	115.8	110.1	102.6	100.4
70-74	112.9	105.0	107.2	102.1
75+	108.4	97.4	96.2	95.7
Sex ratio (M/F*100)	105.0	99.5	99.8	94.2
Masculinity proportion (M/T)*100	51.22	49.87	49.95	48.48

Source: *CBS (2003). Table 18.2: 220. **CBS (2012). National Report. Volume I. Table 16:66

In the 5-9 age group, there is only a slight improvement in the sex ratio for females. This indicates sex discrimination in this age group of girls. If there are equal survival chances, the sex ratio should equalise by the age of 12. However, there were still approximately 103 boys to 100 girls in the 10-14 age group in 2011. The trend, however, is improving when compared to previous census years. The expansion of health facilities seems to have been substantial in improving girls’ survival chances, more so during the eighties than the nineties.

According to Acharya M. (CBS, 2003), a significant decline in the Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR) from 850 to 539 had a clear impact on changing the sex ratio in favour of women in 1991. However, this improvement is not visible during the nineties when the sex ratio slightly increased. In 2011, the number of men per 100 women is lower in the 15-44 age group of the population than previous censuses. It shows that the sex ratio in the eighties and nineties was changing in favour of women, an indication of women’s improving access to services and survival chances (see Table 6.2). Since the 15-44 age group is the reproductive age for most women, it can be assumed that most women die due to high Maternal Mortality Rates, which means that the number of men per women should increase. But, the data indicates a decline in the male population, which is probably due to the absentee male population, death of young men during the armed conflict and women’s improved access to maternal health services.

The proportion of males of the population starts to increase from the 50-54 age group, which may be due to the return of migrants. However, the figures are not encouraging because the increase in sex ratio is only slight. The population aged 75 and above has a low sex ratio possibly due to high death rates for males compared to females, since life expectancy for males is lower than females in Nepal.

In total, the sex ratio of the Population Census of 2011 is lower than the previous censuses of 1981, 1991 and 2001. This decline is attributed to the increasing number of absentee male population, death of more men than women during the armed conflict, an expansion in health facilities and a longer life expectancy for females. Additionally, a missing male population can be observed from the masculinity proportion. The male population has been less than the female population since 1991, and the population census of 2011 also shows a lower masculinity proportion than in previous censuses.

Table 6.3 shows that there is a higher proportion of men in the Tarai areas in the censuses of 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011, although, the trend is declining. The higher proportion of males in the Tarai may be due to internal migration from the Mountain and Hills regions. The declining trend from the census of 1981 to 2011 is possibly due to international migration. All five Developmental Regions have a low sex ratio compared to previous censuses, which may also be due to international migration. As seen from Table 6.3, the Eastern and the three Western regions have a lower male population compared to the Central region, which has almost an equal number of males and females. This could mean that men have migrated from the four regions to the Central development region. However, the sex ratio in Central Development Region is also declining; again it may be due international migration.

Table 6.3: Sex ratios by ecological zones and development regions, 1981-2011

Age group	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**
Ecological regions				
Mountain	104.71	98.43	98.39	93.84
Hills	102.14	95.34	95.84	91.37
Tarai	108.33	103.85	103.77	96.66
Development regions				
Eastern	105.00	100.00	100.0	92.37
Central	107.00	104.00	105.00	100.55
Western	103.00	93.00	93.00	87.03
Mid-Western	103.00	99.00	99.00	92.73
Far-Western	105.00	96.00	98.00	91.25
Residence				
Rural	104.30	98.61	98.80	92.26
Urban	115.24	108.39	106.40	103.98
Nepal	105.02	99.47	99.80	94.16

Source: * CBS (2003). Table 18.3:221. ** CBS (2012). National Report Volume I. Table 16: 66-71

The urban-rural sex ratio shows that the number of male per hundred female is higher in urban areas mainly due to internal migration, rural to urban, of males. The urban sex ratio is higher in all censuses from 1981-2011, however this is declining, possibly due to an increase in international migration. In rural areas, the sex ratio is lower and has been declining over the years due to internal and international migration. The sex ratio indicates that the declining

trend in the numbers of the male population is largely due to the absentee population by age group, and regions.

6.3.1.2 Birth registration

Sex preferences and gender bias do not only exist during pregnancy in Nepal, but also immediately after birth during the process of birth registration. The vital registration system was established 30 years ago in Nepal and strengthened by the Birth, Death and Other Personal Events (Registration Act of 1976, Nepal Law Commission, 2006). Birth registration was compulsory for children aged 0-4. The Ministry of Health and Population (MoHP) (2012, NDHS-2011) found that more than two in five (42%) of children have their births registered. Upon birth registration, a child receives a birth certificate, but according to NDHS-2011, only 38 percent of children under the age of five have a birth certificate. This may be due to home births and families neglecting to obtain a birth certificate for girls. The birth registration for boys was 44 percent, whereas the birth registration for girls was 40 percent. This difference may appear insignificant, but it is an issue of gender bias. Furthermore, it is not only birth registrations, but even the collection of birth certificates that differs; for boys it was 38.5 percent and for girls 36.7 percent (MoHP, 2012). Although the Three-Year Development Plan (2010-2013) aims to register 90 percent of the births of children under the age of five by 2013, this target may be difficult to meet. Missing birth registrations may impact on facilities such as education, citizenship and other factors, which may lead to an incorrect interpretation of data and subsequent decision-making by policy makers.

6.3.1.3 Fertility

Marriage followed by giving birth is a social norm in Nepal. As mentioned above, Nepalese society favours sons. Elders are often seen blessing pregnant women so that they give birth to a son. Consequently, the fertility rate in Nepal (2.6) is higher than in most South Asian countries such as Bangladesh (2.2), Bhutan (2.4), India (2.5), the Maldives (2.1) and Sri Lanka (2.3) (HDR, 2003) (SAARC Secretariat, *SAARC in Figures*, 2013). However, the Total Fertility Rate (TFR) in Nepal is declining compared to previous reports (MoHP, 2011). Table 6.4 shows features of age specific and total fertility rates of urban and rural areas.

Table 6.4: Age specific and total fertility rates, by residence, (1991 - 2011).

Age group	Urban			Rural			Nepal
	1991*	2001*	2011**	1991*	2001*	2011**	2011**
15-19	0.085	0.075	0.027	0.089	0.079	0.043	0.054
20-24	0.212	0.201	0.092	0.267	0.243	0.146	0.172
25-29	0.181	0.146	0.128	0.257	0.212	0.179	0.138
30-34	0.106	0.079	0.061	0.204	0.148	0.105	0.075
35-39	0.058	0.037	0.020	0.149	0.126	0.049	0.041
40-44	0.026	0.018	0.005	0.076	0.050	0.018	0.019
45-49	0.011	0.007	0.001	0.028	0.015	0.002	0.006
ASFR	0.679	0.563	0.333	1.07	0.873	0.542	0.505
TFR	3.40	2.82	1.67	5.35	4.37	2.71	2.52

Source: *CBS (2003). Table 18.9:226, ** Calculation based on CBS (2012). District Report. Part VII. Table 31.

The TFR indicates the average number of children born to a woman of reproductive age (15-49 years). Nepal's TFR has been declining since 1971. However, the rate of fertility decline has accelerated during the nineties. In 1991, the TFR

was more than 3 per woman in urban areas and almost double in rural areas. In 2001, the TFR was estimated at less than 3 per woman in urban areas and about 5 per woman in rural areas. However, in 2011, the TFR has declined to less than two children, which is below fertility replacement levels, in urban areas, and 2.71 in rural area.

Significant factors can be attributed to the declining TFR in all age groups. There are significant differences between the TFR for rural and urban areas. This difference is attributed to a higher mean age at marriage, higher education levels, employment opportunities, increasing contraceptive prevalence rates and health facilities for women in urban areas. According to regions, Mountain has the highest TFR for all censuses. The lowest TFR is in the Hills and the Tarai, which may be due to better education, access to health care and employment opportunities. Moreover, Mid-Western and Far-Western regions have higher TFRs than any other development region. Overall, the TFR is declining in Nepal (see Table 6.5).

Table 6.5: TFR by ecological and development regions, (1991 - 2011).

Regions	Census		
	1991*	2001*	2011**
Ecological zones			
Mountain	5.93	4.57	3.76
Hills	5.33	3.77	2.43
Tarai	4.72	3.64	2.46
Development regions			
Eastern	5.00	3.68	2.56
Central	4.37	3.56	2.35
Western	5.13	3.60	2.45
Mid-western	5.96	4.31	3.17
Far-western	6.00	4.53	3.62
Nepal	5.16*	3.8*	2.52**

Source: *CBS (2003): Table 18.10:226. **Calculation based on CBS (2012). District Report. Part VII. Table 31.

6.3.1.4 Mortality

Vital statistics such as crude birth rates, maternal mortality rates, neonatal mortality, post-neonatal mortality and infant mortality rates have been declining slowly in Nepal (see Table 6.6). As a consequence, life expectancy is also increasing. Female life expectancy was lower in Nepal until the nineties, similar to Bangladesh and Bhutan (Shakya, K, 1994). In addition, maternal mortality, of which there is still a high incidence in Nepal, is gradually being addressed. As a result, life expectancy for females has been increasing due to increased access to social services such as schools, health services and especially maternal health services.

Table 6.6: Life expectancy and mortality rates, 1974/75, 1991 and 2011

Details	Unit	1974/75 ³	1991 ²	2011 ¹
Life Expectancy	Year			
Female		42.5	53.5	69.6
Male		46.0	55.0	67.3
Maternal Mortality	Number per 100,000 births	818	575	281
Neo-natal Mortality	Number of 1000 live births			
Male		-	63.4	37
Female			49.9	33
Post-neonatal Mortality	Number of 1000 live births			
Male		-	41.3	9
Female			41.1	10
Infant Mortality	Number per 1000 live births			
Male		141	104.7	54
Female		123	91.0	52
Child Mortality	Number per 1000 children between 1 & 5 years			
Male		125	47.8	9
Female		139	54.5	10
Crude Death Rate	Number per 1000 population			
Male		18.6	12.9	8.5
Female		20.4	13.6	5.9

Source: Population Monograph of Nepal. Tables 9,10,18 in Chapter 4 and p 110 for MMR. Cited from UNFPA, 1997

1. MoHP (2012). NDHS-2011, Table 8.3: 142.
2. MoHP (1993). NFFHS-1991, Table 10.4:139.
3. Niraula BB & Luitel Samira (1999), Gender Planning Network Nepal-First Phase Report, Kathmandu, APROSC, October. Table 2.2:10

Table 6.6 shows that while mortality rates were declining from 1974/75 to 2011, life expectancy was increasing. The neonatal, post-neonatal and infant rates were lower for girls. After a year, mainly due to Nepalese society's preference for a son, girls are probably neglected and do not have access to healthcare. As a result, from 1974/75 to 1991, the death rate for girls was higher than boys. In 2011, there is a slight improvement, but a small disparity still exists between boys and girls.

6.3.1.5 Migration (absentee population)

Migration is the third main component in a demographic analysis. Whenever fertility and mortality in population growth is considered, migration is also included because it plays a major role in socio-economy and demography. Therefore, the absence of a large chunk of productive and reproductive population, especially during and after the civil war, is the main cause for the low population growth rate. Nepalese youth were yet to get good employment opportunities and as a relief package after the war, many developed countries opened their doors to underdeveloped countries providing work visas, thereby paving the way for Nepalese to go abroad for employment. As a result, over 1.92 million people are recorded as absent in the 2011 census. Table 6.7 shows the absentee population by gender and it indicates that more males than females have migrated in all censuses, which may be the cause for reduced fertility rates and a missing economically active male population in Nepal. However, CBS (2008) has shown that when there was only 6 percent female migration, 11 percent of remittance was contributed to GDP (total remittance contributed was 23 percent). Now that female migration has almost doubled (12.4%), there must be a bigger contribution in GDP, which must be counted and transparent.

Table 6.7 shows that the absentee population of Nepal since 1952/54 was overwhelmingly male who accounted for 87.6 percent. Similarly in 2011, 87.6 percent of the absentee population is male and the remainder is female. The number of absentee female population also increased in 2011 compared to 2001. Of the total population, over 3 percent was absent between 1952/54 to 1991, however in 2011, this percentage almost doubled.

Table 6.7: Absentee population (gone abroad) over the years*

Absentees population	Census				
	1952/54*	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**
Male	173,919 (87.6)	328,448 (81.5)	548,002 (83.2)	679,469 (89.1)	1,684,029 (87.6)
Female	24,501 (12.4)	74,529 (18.5)	110,288 (16.8)	82,712 (10.9)	237,400 (12.4)
Total absentees population	198,120 (100.0)	402,977 (100.0)	658,290 (100.0)	762,181 (100.0)	1,921,494 (100.0)
% of absentees in total population	3.5	2.7	3.6	3.3	7.2

*Source: *The census of 1971 only has data on internal migrants and not on external absentee population. ** CBS (2012). National report Volume I. Table 11:38.*

Currently, there are a significant number of people going abroad for employment opportunities as well as for other reasons. The number of people going to study is increasing. For example, more than 20,000 students went abroad for study in 2008 (MoF, Economic Survey, 2009, 2013). Table 6.8 shows the destination of the absentee population, and the increasing trend of migration by census. According to the Population Census of 2001, more than 75 percent of migrants went to India, This is not surprising as Nepalese people can travel and migrate to India without going through any immigration process. It has also been found that more females than males migrate to India, which is probably due to the proximity of the destination. Less than 25 percent of migrants go to other countries such as Arab countries, European countries and others.

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India was the primary destination for both women and men in 2001. In 2011, while women still mainly migrate to India, more men are migrating to Arab countries. These migrations are due to lack of opportunities and job satisfaction in Nepal. Migration has increased by 40 percent for males and 34 percent for females in 2011 compared to 2001. The trend of an absentee female population is also increasing in Nepal, approximately 50 percent of the total absentee female population migrate to India followed by Arab and European countries (see Table 6.8). The proportion of females migrating to Europe is much higher than males, possibly due to education, employment or marriage.

Table 6.8: Distribution of migrant population by country of destination, 2001-2011.

Countries	Male	Female	Total
2001*			
India	76.6	82.9	77.3
Arab countries	16.0	2.5	14.5
Europe	2.7	5.7	3.0
Other countries	4.7	8.9	5.1
All countries	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of migrants	679,469	82,712	762,181
2011**			
India	35.9	49.0	37.6
Arab countries	39.9	20.5	37.6
Europe	2.5	8.7	3.3
Other countries	20.6	21.8	21.6
All countries	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of migrants	1,684,029	237,400	1,921,429

Source: * CBS (2003), Table 18.30:245. ** CBS (2012). District Report: Table 18.

Table 6.9 provides a brief overview of the characteristics of migrant people. Reasons for migration indicate that marriage is the primary reason for females (54%), whereas employment is the primary reason for males (72%). Twenty-two per cent of men migrate at the age of 20-24, whereas women are more likely to migrate at an earlier age, 15-19, primarily due to marriage. Overall, 74 percent of males migrate before the age of 30, while almost 84 percent of females migrate before the age of 25 (MoHP, 2012). Regarding age at marriage, over one-third of female migrants get married before the age of 20, whereas for most male migrants the age at marriage is between 20-24 years. Marriage is not the only reason for migration; more married females migrate than married males due to family reasons, which is the second non-economic reason for females. Family reasons may include accompanying their spouse or accompanying their children who move to urban areas for education or for employment.

Another reason for migration is education opportunities, 17 percent of males and 14 percent of females move abroad for further studies. The majority of migrants are from rural areas and from the Hill and Tarai regions. Nearly half of migrants are from the Central and Eastern Tarai and the Western Hill regions.

More males migrate compared to females. In addition, the majority of male migrants (85%) had left five years prior to the census of 2011, indicating that a high proportion of recent migration may be due to political instability. The remaining 15 percent of migrants migrated more than five years before the census. Twenty per cent of all male migrants relocated to India, the most popular destination. Females who migrated for work moved to countries other than India. Female migrants from the lowest wealth quintile moved to India, while those in the highest wealth quintile were more likely to migrate to other countries.

Table 6.9: Background characteristic of male and female migrants, Nepal 2011.

Background characteristics	Male	Female	Total
Age at first marriage			
<15	16.3	20.2	18.0
15-19	19.5	35.5	26.2
20-24	22.4	28.1	24.8
25-29	15.4	8.4	12.4
30-34	10.4	3.4	7.4
35-39	7.8	1.7	5.2
40-44	4.2	0.8	2.8
45-49	1.9	0.6	1.4
50+	2.1	1.2	1.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Reasons of migration			
Work	72.3	9.1	45.6
Study	17.2	14.0	15.8
Marriage	0.3	54.4	23.2
Family reasons	9.4	21.9	14.7
Security	0.1	0.1	0.1
Others	0.7	0.5	0.6
Don't know	0.1	0.1	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Residence			
Urban	9.2	10.2	9.6
Rural	90.8	89.8	90.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Ecological zone			
Mountain	7.4	7.1	7.3
Hills	42.8	44.9	43.7
Tarai	49.8	48.0	49.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Development regions			
Eastern	25.8	26.2	26.0
Central	29.8	31.0	30.3
Western	24.5	24.9	24.7
Mid-Western	9.8	9.5	9.7
Far-Western	10.0	8.5	9.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wealth quintile			
Lowest	18.1	17.0	17.6
Second	22.9	22.5	22.7
Middle	21.3	20.9	21.1

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Background characteristics	Male	Female	Total
Age at first marriage			
Fourth	20.3	20.4	20.4
Highest	17.3	19.2	18.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of men and women who migrated in the past 10 years	6,829	5,002	11,831

Source: MoHP (2012), NDHS, 2011.

Migration for employment is an important factor behind migration and is very common in Nepal. According to Acharya M (CBS, 2003), both historical and poverty reasons are responsible for international migration. Nepalese men have moved from their country for employment (see Table 6.9). This process started with the Gorkha recruitment that took place after the Treaty of Sugauli, which concluded after the 1814-1816 War with the British. Migration has expanded and diversified ever since. In recent years, a lack of well-paying employment opportunities in Nepal and the availability of more lucrative international labour markets have pushed youth to look for work overseas.

More than 85 percent and about 87 percent of male migrants have gone in search of employment in 2001 and in 2011, respectively (see Table 6.10). But, only 35 percent and about 45 percent female migrants, in 2001 and in 2011 respectively, have moved to another country for job opportunities. In 2011, both male and female migration increased for employment when compared to 2001. However, the increase for female is about half compared to males. Population Census-2011 has included business, private job, institutional job, study, conflict, dependent and others only as reasons for absentee population. It has not included agriculture and marriage like in 2001.

Table 6.10: Distribution of population-absent by reasons for absence by destination, 2001-2011.

Reasons of absence	Male			Female		
	All countries	India	Other	All countries	India	Other
2001*						
Employment, Of which	85.2	84.6	87.0	35.6	31.5	55.5
<i>Agriculture</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>1.3</i>	<i>0.0</i>	<i>1.4</i>	<i>1.7</i>	<i>0.0</i>
<i>Private job</i>	<i>70.8</i>	<i>70.4</i>	<i>72.1</i>	<i>30.2</i>	<i>26.9</i>	<i>46.1</i>
<i>Institutional job</i>	<i>13.4</i>	<i>12.9</i>	<i>15.0</i>	<i>4.0</i>	<i>2.9</i>	<i>9.4</i>
Business	1.6	1.9	0.7	1.1	1.1	1.2
Study	3.7	2.9	6.1	8.2	6.1	18.8
Marriage	0.3	0.4	0.2	14.4	15.9	7.2
Others	9.2	10.2	5.9	40.6	45.5	17.3
All Reasons	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Reasons of absence	Male			Female		
	All countries	India	Other	All countries	India	Other
2011**						
Employment,	86.8	85.7	76.8	44.8	32.2	33.1
Of which						
<i>Agriculture</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Private job</i>	75.5	75.3	67.8	39.6	28.9	27.8
<i>Institutional job</i>	10.8	9.4	13.1	10.0	2.2	4.5
Business	0.6	0.0	0.0	1.1	1.1	0.9
Study	4.6	3.6	12.3	7.4	7.4	50.9
Marriage	-	-	-	-	-	-
Others	4.6	6.8	3.5	35.0	54.1	12.2
All Reasons	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: *CBS (2003). Table 29:244. ** CBS (2012). District Report: Table 17

In 2011, both men and women's participation in private jobs is slightly higher than in 2001, but proportionately more men have access to institutional jobs than women, both in India and overseas. About one-third (30.2%) of migrated women in total was involved in private job in 2001, however it increase to about 40 percent in 2011. The private job may be work at home, or private institute. In addition, institutional job for female has increased in 2011 than in 2001. In both censuses, 2001 and 2011, women are more than men in the "study" category. Another interesting feature for women is that in both the censuses women in the "other" category, for reason of absence, is very high in "all countries", 40.6 percent in 2001 and 35.0 percent in 2011. Women in the "other" category for India alone is even higher, 45.5 percent in 2001 and 54.1 percent in 2011. It would be interesting to investigate what this "other" category entails other than reasons such as formal employment, business, study or marriage.

6.3.1.6 Ageing population

In Nepal, the older population accounts for about 7 percent of the total population and the majority (over 6 out of 10) of the older population are in their sixties. However, about one fifth of the older population is aged 75 and over. This pattern is the same for both men and women. The extent of ageing varies, albeit modestly, by gender, rural/urban residence and development regions. The proportion of older persons among men is 6.8 percent while for females it is 7.0 percent. Examination of age distribution of older persons shows a modest dominance of men over women in almost all age groups, except for the age group 75 years and over (see Table 6.2). The data indicates a continuation of more female than male mortalities throughout their respective life spans.

The age pattern by gender observed for the country as a whole is the same for each development region. The pattern is reversed in the oldest age groups, in which male mortality exceeds that of females. A similar pattern of imbalanced sex ratio, in which the dominance of older men over older women increases with each successively older age group, is observed in almost every development region (CBS, 2003). The aging population has been increasing in all censuses; this may be due to the socio-economic development of the country and declining fertility levels. In the ageing population, the dominance of older men to women from 1981 to 2001 may be due to maternal mortality and other different levels of mortality of women.

Table 6.11: Ageing population of Nepal, 1952/54 - 2011 (in per cent)

Censuses	Male	Female
1952/54	4.5	5.4
1961	4.8	5.6
1971	5.3	5.9
1981	5.9	5.5
1991	5.9	5.7
2001	6.4	6.3
2011*	6.8	7.1

Source: CBS, 2003, *Population Monograph of Nepal* *CBS, *Population Census Preliminary Report, 2011*

Table 6.11 shows that in 2011 there were older females than males. This may be due to improved life expectancy for females. The government has to consider the increasing trend of an older population when developing policies, as more priority and rights are required. The gender responsive budgeting also has to take into consideration the increasing proportion of females in the older population, and increase direct gender responsive budgets in the near future for programmes for these elderly female populations.

6.3.1.7 Women headed households

According to women activists, female-headed households are under-estimated in Nepal. Hence, specific attempts were made in the 2001 Population Census to explain the concept of household headship more precisely, as the person who usually manages the household affairs. However, the figures obtained on the distribution of heads of households by male or female show little difference to the 1991 pattern (see Table 6.12). According to Acharya M. (2003), about 15 percent of households have been reported to be headed by women in the country as a whole in 2001, compared to about 13 percent in 1991. However, this has increased to about 26 percent in 2011.

Table 6.12: Distribution of households by male/female headship, 2001-2011.

Regions	2001*		2011**	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Ecological regions				
Mountain	6.9	6.5	7.0	6.0
Hills	44.4	60.2	43.7	55.2
Tarai	48.7	33.2	49.3	38.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Development regions				
Eastern	24.3	21.7	23.0	21.7
Central	36.5	26.9	38.3	30.1
Western	18.6	32.4	17.2	26.6
Mid-western	11.6	10.8	12.8	12.8
Far-western	8.9	8.2	8.6	8.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Nepal (male +female =100)	85.1	14.9	74.3	25.7
Urban	83.0	17.0	71.9	28.1
Rural	85.5	14.5	74.8	25.2

Source: * CBS (2003). Table 28:247. ** CBS (2012). National Report I. Table 17.

This could be due to the increasing trend of the male absentee population in Nepal, rather than women's empowerment. Data was recorded on the basis of the absence of males/husbands at home during the census. Therefore, for women activists, it is difficult to identify the status of women as heads of households, and whether this leads to women empowerment or not.

It is also worth investigating whether woman as heads of households has existed for a long time or just in the absence of husbands/males at home during the census taking. A large proportion of female-headed households are concentrated in the Western and Central regions, among the five development regions, and in the Hill and Tarai areas, among the ecological regions, in 2011 and in 2001.

Table 6.13: Selected characteristics of the household heads, 2001-2011.

Characteristics	2001*		2011**	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Education status of the household head				
Illiterate	36.2	64.0	28.4	45.9
Literate	35.5	20.3	44.9	35.8
Primary	9.9	6.6	13.4	10.0
SLC	6.5	3.8	5.6	4.3
SLC and above	2.7	0.7	3.8	2.6
Graduate and above	9.2	4.5	3.8	1.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Age group				
<14	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2
15-19	1.0	1.5	1.0	1.9
20-59	82.2	77.8	78.2	81.4
60-69	11.1	13.2	13.6	10.5
70+	5.7	7.4	7.1	6.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: *CBS (2003) Table 18.33:246. ** CBS (2012). National Report. Volume I. Table 17.

More urban households were female-headed than rural in both censuses of 2001 and 2011. In Nepal, a cross classification of households by household headship and selected characteristics show some differences in education status, living arrangements, operational land holdings and dependency ratio of the male headed and female headed households in Tables 6.13 and 6.14.

In 2001, male-headed households were better off in terms of literacy and educational status. While 64 percent of the female-headed households were illiterate, only 36 percent of the male-headed household were illiterate. This scenario has improved in 2011; the illiteracy rate has declined in male-headed households by 28 percent and by 46 percent in female-headed households. However female-headed households were more illiterate than male-headed households. In total, the literacy rate is 45 percent and 36 percent for men and women heads of households, which has definitely improved since 2001. It should be noted that less than 5 percent of household heads have SLC and above education, which is true for both male and female heads of households. In 2001, while 9.2 percent of the men-headed household had graduate level and above education, only 4.5 percent of female-headed households had a similar level of education, which was less in proportion in 2011 (see Table 6.13). There is little difference

in the distribution of female or male- headed households in various age groups in both censuses. However, the majority of heads of households were between 20-59 years, while female head of households has increased in this age group since 2001. This could be due to an increase in the migration of the economically active male population in 2011.

Table 6.14 shows that *pakki* rented houses had more female-headed households heads than male-headed households in 2001 and 2011. This was an indication that most female-headed households received remittance; hence they were financially better off and could afford *pakki* homes. In terms of household amenities, female-headed households seem to have improved since 2001. However, both female and male-headed households have facilities including piped water, electricity, modern\flush toilets, radios, TVs, fridges and cars (CBS, 2003). This is opposite in terms of amenities in the high and low categories in 2011. Both male and female-headed households have more than fivefold amenity in the high categories in 2011 compared to 2001. Female-headed households have all facilities at home as shown in both censuses of 2001 and 2011. Further, it has also shown that about 75 percent of female-headed household have high amenity.

Table 6.14: Selected characteristics of the households by male\female headship, 2001-2011.

Characteristics	2001*		2011**	
	Male headed	Female headed	Male headed	Female headed
Average operational land (hectares)	0.78	0.5	-	-
House ownership				
Own pakki (cement, concrete and brick the walls & roofs)	28.6	34.1	45.3	47.8
Pakki (rented)	6.2	6.8	10.3	14.1
Own other (other than pakki own)	59.9	52.7	41.1	34.1
Other (rented other than pakki and other arrangements)	5.2	6.4	3.3	3.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Amenities				
High (with piped water, electricity, modern\ flush toilets, radio, TV, fridge & car or at least two categories of such facilities)	13.7	16.0	69.0	74.4
Low (having one of the above or inferior of the four facilities above or none of the above)	68.8	63.7	31.0	25.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Media exposure				
TV	5.7	5.1	25.1	25.8
Radio	36.5	34.3	35.8	33.7
TV and Radio	17.1	15.8	15.4	14.8
No TV/No Radio	40.6	44.9	23.6	25.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Characteristics	2001*		2011**	
	Male headed	Female headed	Male headed	Female headed
<i>Living arrangements</i>				
Head alone	2.5	13.1	2.9	10.0
Head and spouse	5.0	1.1	6.8	1.7
Head, spouse and children (includes adult and minor children)	77.1	13.4	82.9	29.9
Head and children	0.7	26.6	3.7	52.9
Others	14.7	45.7	3.8	5.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
School going children, ages 10-25	52.6	47.4	76.4	23.6
Below 15 and above 59 per 100 15-59 age persons in the household	107.0	139.0	158.0	176.0

Source: * CBS (2003). Table 18.34:249. ** CBS (2012). National Report Volume I. Table 9: 32.

There is only a slight difference in the pattern of media exposure between these two kinds of households. There is a fivefold increment in the presence of a TV in both female and male-headed households. The percentage of male and female-headed households having no TV and no radio has decreased in 2011 compared to 2001.

As shown by Acharya (2003), figures on living arrangements also shown that some women act as household heads even when her spouse is present in the household. About 77 percent of male-headed households but only 13 percent of female-headed household represented complete families, with spouse and children living together. However, this increased to 83 percent for male-headed households and about 30 percent in female-headed households in 2011. Male-headed households have more family members than female-headed households. The overwhelming majority of female-headed households live either with children or with others. As a result, female-headed households dominated over male-headed household in the working age group population of 15-59 years, this increased in 2011 compared to 2001. About 53 percent of children, who have not finished school, were currently going to school in male-headed households in 2001, but only about 47 percent of children in similar categories were going to school in female-headed households. School going children have increased in male-headed households to 76 percent in 2011 from 53 percent in 2001, but the proportion of school going children has decreased to almost half (from 47.4% to 23.6%) in female-headed households from 2001 to 2011. This is an issue of grave concern for female-headed households; and further analysis is needed to determine why such a small percentage of children are going to school.

6.3.2 Social status

Under social status, this chapter includes two major topics: marriage and education, which are directly linked with the changing gender status.

6.3.2.1 Marriage status

Marriage is almost universal for all men and women in Nepal. Married women or men are persons who have been married at least once in their lives, although their current marital status may not be “married”. For women, besides the social need to give birth to children, marriage is also seen as a primary means of livelihood in almost all communities (Acharya M. 2003, Acharya and Bennett, 1981; Gurung, 1999).

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A high proportion of the population is married in Nepal. In 2001, 94 percent of women and 81 percent of men were married before the age of thirty. In 2011, the proportions were slightly lower at 93 percent women and 79 percent of men in the same age group. The pattern of age at marriage, before thirty, has not changed significantly over ten years between 2001 and 2011. Regarding child marriage for girls, in 2001, nearly 2 percent of 10-14 years old and 33 percent of 15-19 years old were married, but this has declined in 2011, only 1.1 percent of 10-14 years old and 23.2 percent of 15-19 years old were married (see Table 6.15).

Table 6.15: Ever married population in per cent to total age cohort by age group, Nepal (1981- 2011).

Age group	Male				Female			
	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**
10-14	14.9	4.2	0.8	0.5	14.3	7.4	1.8	1.1
15-19	25.9	19.9	11.8	7.1	50.8	46.3	33.5	23.2
20-24	59.2	61.3	48.0	42.3	86.9	86.1	78.5	72.7
25-29	80.5	86.9	81.5	78.7	94.7	95.7	94.2	92.7
30-34	87.6	94.5	93.9	93.3	96.9	97.7	97.1	97.1
35-39	91.1	97.0	96.8	97.1	97.4	98.4	98.0	98.0
40-44	92.0	97.6	97.4	98.0	97.5	98.7	98.1	98.2
45-49	92.6	98.1	97.8	98.4	97.1	98.8	98.3	98.6
50-54	93.1	98.2	97.9	98.5	96.4	98.5	97.5	98.6
55-59	93.0	98.3	98.1	98.8	95.8	98.4	97.7	98.9
60-64	92.9	98.3	97.8	98.9	94.9	98.1	97.2	99.0
65+	91.6	98.0	97.5	98.9	92.9	97.5	96.7	99.9
Total	62.1	64.0	60.0	59.4	70.8	73.6	69.2	68.9

Source: *CBS (2003). Table 18.5:222. **CBS (2012). National Report. Volume I. Table 19.

The trend indicates that early marriage seems to be declining. The percentage of married girls in the 15-19 and 10-24 age groups has decreased considerably since 1981. However, there is a steep increase in girl's marriage after 20 years for all censuses, almost three-fourth got married by this age group. In total, about 69 percent of women and 59 percent of men got marriage in 2011. Volume I: Chapter 4/ Volume indicates gender imbalances in the married population in (see 4.2.2).

Table 6.16: Singulate mean age at marriage by urban/rural ecological zones and development regions, (1981-2011).

Age group	Male				Female			
	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**
Ecological aones								
Mountain	21.8	21.9	22.1	22.6	18.5	18.6	19.6	20.3
Hills	23.0	22.2	23.4	24.4	18.0	18.9	20.2	21.1
Tarai	19.7	20.6	22.5	23.5	15.8	17.0	18.9	20.1
Development regions								
Eastern	21.7	22.5	23.7	24.4	16.9	19.2	20.3	20.9
Central	20.5	21.3	23.1	24.4	16.8	17.7	19.5	20.9
Western	20.8	21.2	22.7	23.8	17.3	18.0	19.5	20.4
Mid-western	20.1	20.7	21.8	22.1	16.9	17.6	18.9	19.6
Far-western	19.5	20.4	21.8	22.8	15.7	16.9	18.5	20.1
Residence								
Urban	22.5	23.5	24.5	25.9	18.5	19.6	20.7	22.1
Rural	20.6	21.1	22.5	22.0	17.1	17.9	19.3	20.2
Nepal	20.7	21.4	22.9	23.8	17.2	18.1	19.5	20.6

Source: *CBS (2003). Table 18.6:223. ** CBS (2012). Calculated based on Population census-2011 data

The Singulate Mean Age at Marriage (SMAM) for both males and females has increased significantly in 2011 (see Table 6.16). Volume I: Chapter 4 details SMAM by age group and regions in Tables 4.6 and 4.7. The significant increase in SMAM in the nineties may be a result of factors such as increased literacy and education of women, a breakthrough in awareness raising activities by NGOs/INGOs, and government support in increasing the employment of women in non-agricultural sectors.

This increase in SMAM differs among the three ecological zones and five development regions. There is a small deviation by gender as females get married earlier than males. Furthermore, there is a substantial urban/rural and regional difference. Child marriage is popular and still practised in the Tarai. In regard to the Development Regions, the Mid-Western Region lags behind other regions by 1.3 years for females, and 2.3 years for males. All Ecological and Development Regions have seen at least a 4 to 5 year gain for females and a 3 to 4 year increase for males since 1981. Tarai, among the ecological zones, and the Eastern region and Far-Western region, among the Development Regions, have seen the most substantial increase in the mean age of marriage for women in 2011. The urban rural difference of about one year in females' mean age at marriage, however, has remained constant since 1981. This gap increased in 1991 compared to 1981, but it seems to have subsequently declined.

As for other variables on marital status, the proportion of widows, divorced and separated women, is declining. However, there are still widows as young as 19 years. Young widows, particularly, in the Indo-Aryan community, are subject to covert and overt violence and face both psychological (as forerunners of misfortune) and physical violence, often for their share of property (Acharya, M. 2003). In addition, Table 6.17 has shown that the proportion of widowhood of males and females was 1.6 percent and 4.6 percent in the ever-married category. In fact, female widowhood is much higher than male widowhood, which may be due to death of males during armed conflict.

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Table 6.17: Marital status of 10 years and above by gender (1981- 2011).

Age group	Male				Female			
	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**
Never married	35.1	35.6	39.2	40.6	23.3	25.7	30.3	31.13
Ever married	64.9	64.4	60.6	59.4	76.7	74.3	69.2	68.87
Currently married	62.1	60.5	58.5	52.7	70.8	65.7	65.4	61.82
Divorced/separated	0.4	0.5	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.1	0.35
Widow	2.4	3.0	1.3	1.6	5.5	7.2	3.7	4.61
Not stated	0.0	0.4	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.3	0.00
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: * CBS (2003). Table 18.7:224. **CBS (2012). National Reports. Volume I. Table 18:124.

As shown in Table 6.17, early marriage is still an ongoing tradition for girls in Nepal in the ever-married population. However, only 31 percent of females and 41 percent of males were never married in 2011. With an increase in SMAM, nearly all women face problems of widowhood and single life in all communities due to a decline in their sexual attraction and the presence of children at a younger age.

The Population Census of 2001 expanded the scope of questions to capture the real pattern of marriage. This was continued in 2011 (see Table 6.18). As mentioned earlier, the type of marriage and the extent of remarriage among men and women in 2001 and 2011 are important in that it illustrates the reality of women's everyday life in Nepal. Both males and females living with more than one spouse are increasing in Mid-Western and Far-Western regions. The Hindu ideology of sexual purity of women prohibits remarriage for women. Until 2001 the Census authorities had assumed that there would be few cases of female remarriage in the country. However, in 2011, questions for women about multiple marriages have been added.

Table 6.18: Selected indicators on kind of marriage, Nepal 2001-2011 (percentage of ever married population aged 10 years and above)

Zones/ variables	Living with more than one spouse		Remarriage		Polygynous marriage	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
2001*						
Ecological zones						
Mountain	6.6	0.36	5.9	4.3	46,836	-
Hills	6.8	0.03	5.4	3.7	289,215	-
Tarai	4.4	-	3.0	1.6	223,198	-
Development regions						
Eastern	6.0	0.06	4.0	2.3	138,988	-
Central	4.7	0.01	3.0	1.6	176,348	-
Western	7.1	0.06	4.8	3.1	134,978	-
Mid-western	5.5	0.04	7.3	5.8	64,600	-
Far-western	4.8	0.03	4.4	3.0	44,334	-
Residence						
Urban	4.4	0.01	2.4	1.1	65,592	-
Rural	5.7	0.04	4.5	2.9	493,656	-
Nepal	5.5	0.04	4.2	2.7	559,250	-

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Zones/ variables	Living with more than one spouse		Remarriage		Polygynous marriage	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
2011**						
Ecological zones						
Mountain	4.9	1.2	6.6	4.0	38672	11474
Hills	4.7	3.1	5.3	3.1	232472	61520
Tarai	3.3	0.6	3.0	1.3	202468	48596
Development region						
Eastern	3.9	1.6	4.1	0.8	106942	25826
Central	2.5	1.1	3.6	0.7	162926	35348
Western	4.7	2.5	4.6	0.8	95126	24672
Mid-western	8.5	5.7	4.3	1.3	65272	25804
Far-western	5.1	2.5	4.2	0.7	43346	9940
Residence						
Urban	3.1	0.5	1.8	0.7	66150	12484
Rural	4.2	0.9	4.7	2.5	407462	109106
Nepal	4.0	0.8	4.2	2.2	473612	121590

Source: *CBS (2003). Table 18.8:224. ** CBS (2012). National Report. Vol.I. Table 18.

Nepal, being a multi-ethnic country, does not prohibit widow remarriage. Even within the Hindu communities, this ideology has been adopted to fit to their own culture (e.g. Newars, Maithili non-Brahmin/Chhetrias). On the contrary, the poorer communities do not care about the ideology or the law. Alcohol and polygamy related violence in the domestic arena is reported across all communities and throughout Nepal (Acharya, M. 2003). Therefore, it was important to collect this information to represent the realities of women's everyday life more accurately in Mid-Western and Far-Western regions, detailing the numbers of women who have to live with more than one spouse in 2011.

Although polygamy is prohibited in Nepal, such marriages have been recorded. The 2001 Census showed that at least 559,250 women are living in polygynous marriages. The number could be more, because this number has been estimated by multiplying the number of men in polygynous marriages by only two. If these men have more than two wives, the number could be higher. The number of women living with more than one man is 0.36 percent of the total married women in the Mountains and 0.03 percent in the Hills. This practice is prevalent only in one small community of Tibetan origin, where a woman is bound for a polyandrous marriage with all brothers of the same family. The proportion of women remarried is highest in the Mountains and lowest in the Tarai, reflecting the greater cultural restrictions for women in the Tarai areas. In the Development Regions, Mid-Western has the highest remarriage percentage for both women and men, probably reflecting the concentration of Gurungs and Magars in this region, who attach no stigma to the idea of remarriage of women. The Population Census of 2011 shows a 1:4 ratio, which means that while one female has two husbands, and about four males have at least two wives each (see Table 6.18).

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6.3.2.2 Education status

Literacy levels have increased significantly in Nepal, particularly during the last two decades. Male literacy among the 6 years and above age group reached about 76 percent in 2011, compared to 65.1 percent in 2001, approximately 55 percent in 1991 and 34 percent in 1981 (CBS, 2003). Similarly, female literacy rates among the same age group have also increased from 12.0 percent in 1981, 25 percent in 1991, to 42.5 percent in 2001, and 57.8 percent in 2011 (CBS, 2003). However, the male/female disparity still exists, although in literacy and education they are decreasing slowly. The enrolment of girl's at school has not attended the parity of males even at primary level. Compared to 1991, the difference in male/female literacy levels has declined only for the 30-34 age group (see Table 6.19).

In 2011, the male/female literacy rate difference was less in young ages than adults of the literate population. However, the gap in adult ages indicates that dropout rates for females were high. In addition, Volume II: Chapter 5 indicates that the female literacy rate is lower than males (see Tables 5.1 and 5.9).

Tablet 6.19: Per cent literate population 6 years and over by age group, (1991- 2011).

Age group	1991*			2001*			2011**		
	Male	Female	Male/female difference	Male	Female	Male/female difference	Male	Female	Male/female difference
6-9	55.7	38.0	17.7	57.9	51.3	6.6	79.8	78.2	1.6
10-14	76.0	49.3	26.7	83.7	73.3	10.4	93.2	90.3	2.9
15-19	71.5	38.6	32.9	82.5	66.1	16.4	91.8	85.9	5.9
20-24	64.3	26.3	38.0	78.2	53.4	24.8	87.3	73.8	13.5
25-29	54.7	17.6	37.1	70.8	41.1	29.7	82.3	62.3	20.0
30-34	49.6	13.9	35.7	66.9	32.2	34.7	78.3	51.8	26.5
35-39	45.3	11.2	34.1	59.6	24.4	35.2	72.1	41.6	30.5
40-44	41.2	7.9	33.3	55.0	19.2	35.8	67.6	32.2	35.4
45-49	36.5	6.3	30.2	50.7	15.2	35.4	61.3	24.5	36.8
50-54	30.9	4.7	26.2	44.7	10.9	33.8	55.7	19.5	36.2
55-59	28.5	4.2	24.3	40.6	8.2	32.4	52.1	14.9	37.2
60-64	24.0	3.1	20.9	31.9	5.5	26.4	43.8	9.6	34.2
65+	24.5	3.5	21.0	27.0	4.1	22.9	35.6	6.0	29.6
Total	54.5	25.0	29.5	65.1	42.5	22.6	76.0	57.8	18.2

Source: * CBS (2003). Table 18.11:227. **CBS (2012). District Report. Table 17.

The number of women with SLC and higher degrees was only 43 compared to 100 male students, with such qualifications, in 2001. However it increased to 67.6 to 100 male students by 2011. Similarly, the number of women with graduate and higher degrees was less than 23 to 100 male student with such degrees in 2001, however this almost doubled to 46 in 2011 (see Table 6.20).

Table 6.20: Selected educational indicators, (1981- 2011).

Female in total school enrolment (%)	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**
Primary	-	37.2	44.1	46.5
Secondary	-	31.5	41.5	44.7
Higher Secondary	-	28.7	40.6	37.7
Female per cent among full time students	27.2	34.7	43.1	45.1
SLC and above (females\100 male) (number)	21.0	28.2	43.2	67.6
Graduates and above (females \ 100 male) (number)	18.4	22.5	22.9	45.6

Sources: * CBS (2003). Table 18.12: 228. ** CBS (2012). National Report I. Table 26.

The variation between male/female literacy rates declined in 2011 compared to 2001. Still, only 50 percent of females are literate in various regions, and only urban areas have more than 75 percent literacy rates for females. In rural areas, it was about 22 percentage points less. Most regions have an unequal distribution of literate females (see Table 6.21).

Table 6.21: Male/female literacy rate of 6 years and over by ecological & development regions, (1981-2011).

Regions/year	Male				Female			
	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**
Ecological region								
Mountain	27.6	50.2	56.6	72.9	7.8	16.5	30.1	50.6
Hills	36.9	60.2	70.3	82.3	12.9	28.5	47.0	64.5
Tarai	32.1	49.8	61.7	71.2	11.9	22.7	39.9	52.7
Development regions								
Eastern	39.5	59.3	66.2	76.8	14.5	29.2	44.7	59.3
Central	32.3	51.6	63.4	73.4	12.5	24.6	41.4	55.5
Western	38.3	58.5	70.1	80.7	13.2	28.9	49.0	63.7
Mid-western	25.2	47.6	60.7	74.8	7.3	16.3	37.4	56.2
Far-western	26.8	52.0	64.1	77.9	7.6	13.3	32.8	52.5
Residence								
Urban	61.1	80.0	80.9	89.4	38.2	51.2	61.6	75.3
Rural	32.0	54.2	62.2	73.0	10.3	20.4	59.3	53.9
Nepal	34.0	54.2	65.1	76.0	12.0	24.7	42.5	57.8

Source: * CBS (2003) Table 18.13:228. ** CBS (2012). District Report. Table 16.

The difference in male/female literacy rates is higher in rural areas and mountains, while Tarai zones have fewer differences in literacy rates in 2011 (see Table 6.21). Development regions like Far-Western has a much larger range of differences in male/female literacy rate levels than other development regions. The female literacy rate (55.5%) in Central region is lower than Mid-Western, Eastern and Western regions. Research should be undertaken to determine why literacy rates are low in Central region, even though Kathmandu valley lies within this region.

Table 6.22: Male\female difference in literacy rate by ecological & development regions, (1981-2011).

Regions	Census			
	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**
Ecological zones				
Mountain	19.8	33.7	26.5	22.3
Hills	24.0	31.7	23.3	17.8
Tarai	20.2	27.1	21.8	18.5
Development regions				
Eastern	25.0	30.1	21.5	17.5
Central	19.8	27.4	22.0	17.9
Western	25.1	29.6	21.0	17.0
Mid-western	17.9	31.3	23.3	18.6
Far-western	19.2	38.7	31.3	25.4
Residence				
Urban	22.9	23.2	19.3	14.1
Rural	21.7	29.9	22.9	19.1
Nepal	22.0	29.5	22.6	18.2

Source: * CBS (2003). Table: 18.14:229. ** Calculation based on Table 6.21

Table 6.22 presents the differences between male and female literacy rates. As the literacy rate for both males and females increases, the gap narrows between males and females. For example, urban areas have the highest female and male literacy rates at 75.3 percent and 89.4 percent respectively in 2011. The difference in male and female literacy rates is also the lowest it has been at 14.1 percentage points in all regions. Far-Western region has the highest difference (25.4), with female literacy rates of 52.5 percent and male literacy rates of 77.9 percent. Therefore, the government has to maintain the balance between male and female literacy rates.

6.2.3 Living arrangements, economic activity and school attendance by gender

The abolition of child-labour has not been achieved completely in Nepal; however, it is more controlled in 2011 than in 2001. Correspondingly, there has been an increase in school attendance of girls and boys. Table 6.23 shows data on school going children between the ages of 10-16 by living arrangements. Overall in this age group, 80 percent of boys and 68 percent of girls went to school in 2001, while, about 90 percent of boys and 88 percent of girls went to school in 2011, indicating an improvement in the last ten years. A greater work burden on girls and their living environments could be a reason behind the difference in boys and girls going to school. Table 6.23 shows that among children who live with employers, boys go to school more than girls.

In 2001, the male-female difference in the school-going proportion of children in various living arrangements other than employers and other relatives, seems to hover around 9 to 11 percentage points, however in 2011 the difference between boys and girls is less than 10 percentage points. The reduction is not because a higher proportion of girls are going to school but because a lower proportion of boys are going to school. The highest proportion of girls and boys attend school when they are living with their biological mother, followed by households with biological parents living together with children.

Table 6.23: Per cent male/female below 16 years by living arrangement, economic activity and school attendance, 2001-2011.

Living arrangements	Any activity =100			Total age cohorts 10 - 16 =100
	For 10-16 age cohort			
	Economic activity	Other than economic work	Total working	School attendance rate
2001*				
Male	11.8	2.1	13.9	80.0
Biological Parents	10.2	2.1	12.3	80.6
Biological Mother	14.5	1.6	16.1	82.7
Biological Father	21.4	3.2	24.6	71.9
Biological Father and Step Mother	21.6	2.4	24.0	72.8
Biological Mother and Step Father	24.2	3.1	27.3	69.5
Other Relatives	21.1	2.5	23.6	64.7
Employer	39.7	4.4	44.1	61.7
Others	20.5	2.4	22.9	76.7
Female	14.9	10.4	25.3	68.4
Biological Parents	12.9	9.7	22.6	72.4
Biological Mother	17.4	8.7	26.1	75.4
Biological Father	26.7	16.6	43.3	60.9
Biological Father and Step Mother	27.2	16.9	44.1	62.0
Biological Mother and Step Father	28.5	18.0	46.5	59.6
Other Relatives	24.4	16.5	40.9	64.7
Employer	40.1	19.0	59.1	55.8
Others	24.5	15.8	40.3	65.7
2011**				
Male	4.6	2.7	7.4	89.9
Biological Parents	4.4	2.7	7.1	80.0
Biological Mother	4.1	2.2	6.3	92.5
Biological Father	8.6	3.2	11.8	87.1
Biological Father and Step Mother	6.6	3.8	10.4	88.2
Biological Mother and Step Father	12.8	9.8	22.5	78.9
Other Relatives	5.4	2.3	7.7	90.8
Employer	52.8	0.9	53.7	52.2
Others	5.3	2.0	7.2	90.8
Female	3.8	2.5	6.3	87.8
Biological Parents	3.6	2.5	6.0	87.5
Biological Mother	6.5	1.9	5.7	90.6
Biological Father	6.5	2.4	8.9	84.1
Biological Father and Step Mother	6.1	2.1	8.2	88.4
Biological Mother and Step Father	10.6	3.6	14.1	79.8
Other Relatives	3.8	2.0	5.8	90.3
Employer	26.8	2.0	28.8	68.1
Others	5.3	2.0	7.3	88.3

Source: * CBS (2003). Table 18.15:230. ** CBS (2012). District Report. Table 66.

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Table 6. 24: Female per 100 male by educational status by five year age groups, 2001-2011.

Age Group	Literate	Primary (1 - 5)	SLC & equivalent	SLC & above	Graduate & above
2001*					
6-9	85.9	86.0	0	0	0
10-14	82.6	82.9	0	0	0
15-19	81.3	89.1	71.6	70.1	0
20-24	77.1	85.8	74.0	62.9	47.2
25-29	63.9	74.9	66.9	49.6	30.3
30-34	50.6	60.5	48.4	36.0	21.8
35-39	41.4	47.2	34.0	26.5	17.1
40-44	35.5	36.8	27.2	21.1	14.3
45-49	29.0	29.5	22.3	17.9	12.1
50-54	23.3	23.6	15.4	13.8	11.5
55-59	17.9	19.5	11.2	9.9	8.9
60-64	17.0	18.4	10.6	9.8	8.0
65+	14.8	17.1	7.6	7.7	5.5
Total	65.8	76.8	55.5	43.6	22.9
2011**					
6-9	94.4	96.4	0.0	0.0	0.0
10-14	93.9	92.8	97.4	0.0	0.0
15-19	96.5	102.9	90.3	91.8	0.0
20-24	106.4	118.5	102.7	91.1	0.0
25-29	95.9	109.5	90.7	84.7	12.2
30-34	82.9	98.1	73.9	63.3	97.5
35-39	67.3	78.6	57.6	48.5	90.6
40-44	52.4	60.3	40.6	33.2	52.0
45-49	41.5	42.4	28.4	26.3	49.4
50-54	34.5	31.3	22.9	22.3	39.6
55-59	28.2	24.5	19.4	20.2	33.7
60-64	23.1	19.0	16.3	17.5	37.1
65+	17.0	9.2	13.8	14.3	11.8
Total	82.0	86.7	75.5	71.3	44.8

Source: CBS (2003). Table 18.16:231. ** CBS (2012). District Report. Table 17.

Table 6.24 represents the literacy rate of females per 100 males, analysed by age-specific data. The female literacy rate was low at the higher levels of education. In addition, Table 6.24 shows that the male/female difference increases directly in relation to the level of educational and age. However, the male/female difference is decreasing in total. Eighty-two females per 100 males were literate in 2011, while it was approximately 66 in 2001, and at the education level of graduated and above, it has almost doubled by about 45 females per 100 males in 2011, compared to 23 in 2001. The higher the level of education attained, the greater the male and female difference in literacy rates. The significant differences between male and females by higher level of education and age may be due to dropout rates and marriage by females (Volume II: Chapter 5).

Female enrolment until SLC level at ages 20-24 has been encouraged, indicated by the fact that there were more females than males enrolled up until SLC. This does not mean that males do not study at all, but it could be assumed that most male students move abroad for employment or study, most likely at the ages of 15-19, 20-24 and 25-29 years. However, the proportion of females enrolled in education was less after SLC and above graduate level. This indicates that dropout rates for females are higher than males, due to various reasons, at higher levels of education; most importantly the marriage of young women tends to end their educational pursuits.

Table 6.25: Female per 100 male by educational status, by urban/rural and development regions 2001-2011.

Regions\Status	Primary	SLC	SLC & Above	Graduate & Above
2001*				
Development regions				
Eastern	74.6	56.6	43.8	19.5
Central	74.0	53.8	43.8	26.5
Western	87.2	67.6	50.6	20.4
Mid-western	69.9	49.1	39.4	19.3
Far-western	63.6	37.0	28.6	12.6
Residence				
Urban	84.5	69.6	53.3	21.3
Rural	75.7	50.8	39.1	19.4
Nepal	76.8	55.5	43.6	22.9
2011**				
Development regions				
Eastern	87.9	84.6	70.1	36.3
Central	82.1	69.4	72.6	42.6
Western	94.1	88.2	82.8	45.6
Mid-western	88.2	67.2	61.3	33.9
Far-western	85.3	57.9	53.4	28.2
Residence				
Urban	88.4	81.7	77.9	50.9
Rural	86.7	72.8	66.8	37.3
Nepal	86.9	75.5	71.3	44.8

Source: * CBS (2003). Table 18.17:239. ** CBS (2012). District Report. Table 17.

Table 6.25 shows the urban\rural and regional differences in gender disparity in education is also significant. For example, in 2001, there were 51 women with SLC certificates to each 100 men with a similar qualification in rural areas; this number was 70 females per 100 males in urban areas. About 73 women per 100 males in rural areas and about 82 females per 100 men in urban areas had SLC certificates in 2011. Thus, the male/female difference increases correspondingly to the level of education by region and residence and by urban/rural areas. The gender disparities are much greater at all levels of education in the Mid-Western and Far-Western parts of the country (see Table 6.25). However, the male/female difference was narrower in 2011 than in 2001.

6.3.3 Economic status

As in the socio-demographic sector, gender disparity can be observed in the economic sector as well. It has been proved that Nepalese women work more than men. Women's participation in the formally defined labour force increased substantially between 1981 and 2011. As a result, the proportion of women in all occupations has increased to some extent, although a greater concentration of female labourers can be still observed in the agricultural sector. A positive trend in the empowerment of women is reflected by the increasing proportion of females in professionals and also in administration and management. The following section includes the economic activity rate, the distribution of labour force by industry and occupation, employment status, wages in agricultural and non-agriculture sector by gender, women's property and workload and the drudgery of women.

Table 6.26 shows the increasing economic activity rates (refined activity rate) for men and women in rural and urban areas, ecological and development regions in censuses 1991, 2001 and 2011 (see Chapter 9/Volume III for details). Like in previous censuses, more rural men and women are economically active than urban men and women in 2011. The economic activity rate is much lower in urban areas than rural for women. In addition, the urban-rural differences are much higher for women, however it is declining. For example, the differences in females' economic activity rate were 27.8 percentage points in 1991, 20.3 percentage points in 2001, and 18.9 percentage points in 2011. This difference may be due to more females receiving higher education in urban areas or more females migrating abroad for different reasons. However, the differences for male economic activity rate were 10.4 percentage points in 1991, 7.3 percentage point in 2001 and 5.5 percentage point in 2011. There is not much deviation possibly due to increasing economically active male migration from rural to urban areas. In fact, the economic activity rate were also low at ecological and development regions for both men and women in 2011 than in 2001.

6.3.3.1 Economic activity rate by sex

Table 6.26 has shown increased economic activity rates (refined activity rate) for men and women in rural and urban areas, ecological and development regions in censuses 1991, 2001 and 2011 (see Chapter 9/Volume III for details). Like in previous censuses, more rural men and women are economically active than urban men and women in 2011. The economic activity rate is much lower in urban areas than rural for women. In addition, the urban-rural differences are much higher for women, however it is declining. For example, the differences in females' economic activity rate were 27.8 percentage points in 1991, 20.3 percentage points in 2001, and 18.9 percentage points in 2011. This difference may be due to more females receiving higher education in urban areas or more females migrating abroad for different reasons. However, the differences for male economic activity rate were 10.4 percentage points in 1991, 7.3 percentage point in 2001 and 5.5 percentage point in 2011. There is not much deviation possibly due to increasing economically active male migration from rural to urban areas. In fact, the

Table 6.26: Economic activity rates by ecological and development regions, (1991- 2011).

Region/Status	Male			Female		
	1991*	2001*	2011**	1991*	2001*	2011**
Ecological						
Mountain	74.9	79.9	68.0	74.1	78.9	67.0
Hills	67.5	70.2	61.6	58.4	61.8	53.5
Tarai	68.9	71.9	62.5	27.5	45.6	38.0
Development regions						
Eastern	68.1	72.4	65.1	42.6	55.0	49.2
Central	69.3	71.5	62.5	36.8	46.8	37.9
Western	64.2	68.6	60.6	51.8	59.9	51.5
Mid-western	72.3	74.1	62.2	52.7	61.2	53.0
Far-western	70.8	73.6	59.9	60.8	69.6	55.7
Residence						
Urban	59.4	65.5	58.0	20.3	38.0	31.1
Rural	69.8	72.8	63.5	48.1	58.3	50.0
Nepal	68.7	71.7	62.5	45.5	55.3	46.8

Source: * CBS (2003). Table 18.18:232. ** CBS (2012). District Report. Table 53.

Table 6.27: Age specific economic activity rate by sex 1981-2011.

Age group	1981*			1991*			2001*			2011**		
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female
10-14	56.9	61.3	51.9	22.9	18.1	28.0	28.8	27.3	30.4	8.1	8.4	7.8
15-19	60.7	69.2	51.3	49.1	49.2	49.0	48.9	49.7	48.1	26.8	28.8	24.8
20-24	66.1	86.3	47.6	66.0	80.0	54.1	68.7	76.9	61.5	56.0	62.8	50.8
25-29	68.7	93.4	44.9	72.0	92.3	53.9	78.2	91.9	65.7	72.8	87.0	62.3
30-34	68.2	95.3	43.3	73.6	95.2	53.8	81.8	96.6	67.8	78.0	94.0	65.7
35-39	70.8	95.8	44.1	75.3	95.9	54.5	83.3	97.4	69.3	81.2	96.0	68.7
40-44	70.4	96.0	44.1	74.3	95.5	54.1	83.4	97.1	69.9	82.6	96.2	70.3
45-49	72.3	96.4	44.7	73.8	94.7	52.1	83.3	96.8	69.4	82.5	96.0	69.5
50-54	71.2	94.3	44.9	70.4	91.7	48.0	80.8	94.5	66.4	81.1	94.2	67.8
55-59	69.9	92.2	43.3	66.6	88.2	41.5	77.5	91.4	62.0	77.3	91.3	63.0
60-64	62.5	83.3	39.9	45.7	66.2	25.4	67.2	62.5	52.3	67.3	82.6	52.9
65+	52.9	68.7	35.0	26.7	40.0	12.8	47.1	59.7	34.3	43.7	57.3	30.0
Nepal	65.1	83.2	46.2	56.6	68.2	45.2	63.4	71.7	55.3	54.2	62.5	46.8
Urban	54.9	74.9	31.5	40.8	59.4	20.3	52.2	65.5	38.0	44.4	58.0	31.1
Rural	65.9	83.8	47.2	58.8	69.8	48.1	65.4	72.8	58.3	56.3	63.5	50.0

Source: * CBS (2003). Table 18.18: 234. **CBS (2012). District Report. Table 53.

economic activity rate was also low at ecological and development regions for both men and women in 2011 than in 2001.

The economic activity rate is declining for both male and female since 1981. This decline in economic activity rates may be due to increasing trends in attaining higher education and increasing international migration. In 2011, females have achieved higher level of education (see Table 6.24 and Table 6.25). And, in addition, the shrinking labour force is due to migration of the economically active male and female population, which is a challenge to the Nepalese economy.

Acharya M. (2003) said that the trend observed internationally, a shift in the production process from household to markets, tends to reduce women's role in economic activities, and this is observed in Nepal. Several factors hinder women's participation in the organised labour market. This trend and pattern can be observed in Table 6.27 where, the economic activity rates were lower in all age groups for females than males in 2011.

Compared to 1991 and 2001, Table 6.27 shows decreased economic activity rates for all age groups, and very low activity rates for boys and girls aged 10-14 years, which may be due to the result of the abolition of child labour and more children of this age group continuing their schooling (see Table 6.23). In addition, in the age group of 10-14 years, girls' economic activity rate was 7.8 percent in 2011, which had declined from about 52 percent in 1981, 28 percent in 1991 and 30 percent in 2001.

According to Acharya M (CBS, 2003), the increase in economic activity rates for both men and women are influenced by three factors. The redefinition of economic and non-economic activities, a more rigorous and precise definition in the census questionnaire, and a change in the method of calculating economic activity to take into account multiple activities people perform for survival. However, a decline in women's economic activity until the age group 35-39 years in 2011, may be due to the increasing trend of school going children, and female migration.

The definition of economic activity, in Table 6.28, includes extended economic activities. According to Acharya M. (CBS, 2003), the category of extended economic activities was a new classification in the Census of 2001, which stated that "activities such as the production of goods consumed within the household, the collecting of wood for fuel and fetching water, have been included within the production of economic activities. These additional activities, included in the traditional type of economic activities, are termed as "extended" economic activity" (CBS, 2001:79).

The CBS (2003) also mentioned "that all producers of primary agricultural goods e.g. grains, fruits, vegetables, milk, meat etc., were considered economically active even by the 1968 Social National Account (SNA). But, in the case of Nepal, even time devoted to the production of primary goods for household consumption was not captured comprehensively in field interviews. However, Acharya M. (2003) attempted in the census of 2001 to address this deficiency by more rigorous definitions and clearer examples" (CBS, 2003: 233), which the census of 2011 has followed as well.

Table 6.28: Male/female proportion of workers, 2001-2011.

Age group	Male				Female			
	Usually performing		Home maker	Total Eco.	Usually performing		Home maker	Total Eco.
	Eco. activity	Ext. Eco.			Eco. activity	Ext. Eco.		
2001*								
10-14	8.6	1.3	2.2	12.1	9.8	3.0	9.6	22.4
15-19	35.4	1.5	1.7	38.6	28.9	5.3	20.1	54.3
20-24	70.0	1.4	1.4	72.8	44.2	7.0	34.6	85.8
25-29	88.1	1.3	1.2	90.6	48.9	7.4	39.1	95.4
30-34	93.8	1.2	1.0	96.0	51.5	7.3	38.0	96.8
35-39	94.8	1.2	0.9	96.9	53.1	7.4	36.7	97.2
40-44	94.7	1.2	0.9	96.8	53.7	7.4	35.8	96.9
45-49	94.4	1.2	0.9	96.5	52.9	7.6	35.8	96.3
50-54	91.8	1.4	1.1	94.3	49.9	7.7	35.1	92.7
55-59	88.2	1.6	1.5	91.3	45.1	7.4	35.5	88.0
60-64	77.3	1.9	2.3	81.5	35.9	6.6	30.5	73.0
65+	52.9	2.1	3.0	58.0	20.3	4.5	21.7	46.5
Nepal	63.5	1.4	1.6	66.5	37.7	6.1	28.6	72.4
Development regions								
Eastern	64.3	1.3	1.1	66.7	37.1	6.3	27.9	71.3
Central	64.9	1.2	1.8	67.9	31.0	5.2	36.9	73.1
Western	60.0	1.4	1.3	62.7	43.2	5.5	21.6	70.3
Mid-western	64.3	1.8	1.7	67.8	38.9	9.0	27.2	75.1
Far-western	61.8	2.0	2.0	65.8	50.5	7.4	17.1	75.0
2011**								
10-14	43.7	4.2	3.1	51.0	56.3	5.0	34.4	95.7
15-19	41.7	3.3	8.0	53.0	58.3	5.9	27.5	91.7
20-24	37.2	2.6	3.9	43.7	62.8	6.3	27.7	96.8
25-29	38.8	2.7	3.4	44.9	61.2	5.9	26.9	94.0
30-34	40.6	2.9	3.4	46.8	59.4	5.7	25.8	91.0
35-39	42.7	3.2	3.6	49.5	57.3	5.6	24.1	87.0
40-44	44.1	3.4	3.8	51.4	55.9	5.6	23.2	84.7
45-49	46.2	3.9	4.3	54.3	53.8	5.5	22.6	81.9
50-54	48.0	4.4	5.0	57.4	52.0	5.4	22.1	79.4
55-59	49.2	4.9	5.9	60.0	50.8	5.3	22.4	78.4
60-64	49.2	5.2	6.9	61.2	50.8	5.2	23.2	79.3
65+	54.3	6.2	9.9	70.3	45.7	4.5	23.2	73.4
Nepal	43.4	3.6	5.3	52.3	56.6	5.6	25.2	87.4
Development regions								
Eastern	44.8	3.5	4.0	52.3	55.2	4.9	21.1	81.2
Central	48.4	2.2	3.7	54.3	51.6	3.0	22.2	76.8
Western	42.1	3.2	4.5	49.8	57.9	6.2	22.1	86.2
Mid-western	45.3	3.6	5.2	54.0	54.7	5.7	20.2	80.6
Far-western	45.2	3.8	6.9	55.9	54.8	6.0	19.4	80.2

Source: * CBS (2003). Table 18.20: 236. ** CBS (2012). District Report. Table 49

Furthermore, “in the previous censuses, people were asked to declare their occupation and place of work only if they themselves performed activities that fell under the economic category. For example, if women or full time students declared themselves as housewives or students, then they were automatically excluded from the economically active category. In the 2001 Population Census, irrespective of the responses to the kind of work they did, all people above the age of 10 were asked to describe the kind of work they performed” (CBS, 2003: 234). This same process was applied in 2011.

Similar to the Population Census of 2001, the Population Census of 2011 also defined all those who performed any of the economic activities for at least one hour a day or looked for work in a similar period as economically active, irrespective of whether they had declared themselves as students, housewives, sick or old etc. Due to this, people who described themselves as full time students or housewives could also fall under the category of economically active, if they performed any one of the economic activities for at least one hour a day or more for any time during the reference year (CBS, 2003).

In the census of 1991, if people declared that they performed activities defined as economic at any time in the preceding year then they fell within the economically active category. But in the 1991 Census, the definition of economically active and not active did not allow a person to be a student/housewife and economically active at the same time. Those looking for work were not included as economically active either. In the census of 1981, a person had to have performed economic activities at least eight months prior to the census to fall under the category of economically active.

Due to the different definitions of economically active outlined above, there could be a large difference between the economic activity rates obtained in 1991 compared to the economic activity rates obtained in 2001 and 2011. This difference could be much higher for women than for men. However, there is a slight decline until the age group of 35-39 years for economically active females in 2011 (see Table 6.28). For a comparative analysis, further reprocessing of the 2011 census data is required.

According to the CBS (2003), the reform in all three areas, a) capturing extended economic activities mostly performed by women and children, which were not captured before, b) taking account of multiple economic activities, which is a better reflection of the reality of subsistence economies, and c) more rigorous and clearer definitions, are positive from a gender perspective because with these reforms, the statistics on economic and non-economic activity rates reflect a clearer reality of women’s status (see Tables 6.27 and 6.28).

Table 6.28 includes responses to the question on what a person did for most of the time during the year preceding the census. This tabulation is based on the principal of exclusivity; either a person is performing an economic activity or other activity most of the time. They are economically active if they are performing home-based agricultural or non-agricultural activities, waged work or seeking employment. Those people undertaking household chores or who were students were inactive. As discussed above in tables 6.27-6.28, all those who performed any of the economic activities for at least one hour a day in the reference year, were classified as economically active (CBS, 2003).

Asking people what they do most of the time leads to an underestimation of economic activity rates for all age groups of men and women. This underestimation appears to be much higher in the 10-19 female age group (about 20 percentage points) and women in general. In 2001, the difference in the number of economically active men was about 8 percentage points, while for women it was 17.6 percentage points. It is true that the age specific economic activity rates for men were higher than women in all age groups in 2011, which may be due to an underestimation of women’s economic activity again. For a realistic evaluation of women’s work in general, it is necessary to ask more detailed questions and to look at their total work and not only their perceived economic work.

Acharya M. (CBS, 2003) said that a substantial proportion of women are confined to household work because of social and reproductive reasons. Even if home-centred activities, such as household maintenance and child-care, do not fall within the production categories currently defined by the SNA, such activities nevertheless are necessary for human reproduction and no economy can survive without them. Therefore, a comparison of the working and non-working population is also useful for an analysis of livelihood patterns (Acharya M., CBS, 2003).

Table 6.28 shows a picture of the working population, irrespective of the type of work that they do. Any person engaged solely in home-based activities is also considered to be working. Work is defined as an activity that a second person can do for you, for example cooking, child-care, cleaning, washing and household maintenance. Only activities, which a second person cannot do for you, for example sleeping, watching TV, study etc. were excluded from the definition of work (CBS, 2003). Using this definition of work, more than 90 percent of men and women in the 25-54 age group are working, but the kind of work they do is different. Among most age-cohorts, larger proportions of females are working compared to males.

In the 10-24 age group, a larger proportion of females are working than males. While 22 percent of girls aged 10-14 were working, only 12 percent of boys in the same age group worked. In the 15-24 age cohort, a larger proportion of females were working than males, and more than half of them were engaged in economic activities. Among all age cohorts, a larger proportion of women perform economic plus extended economic activities, rather than those that are household related. In all Development Regions, a larger proportion of women than men work. The Central Development Region has the largest proportion of women performing only household activities (CBS, 2003).

6.3.3.2 Industrial and occupational distribution of the labour force by gender

Nepal's labour force is still concentrated in agriculture. In 2001, slightly more than 60 percent of economically active men and nearly 73 percent of economically active women were working in agriculture. However, in 2011 this declined, about 55 percent of men and 77 percent of women were categorised as economically active within the agriculture sector. This proportion was much lower in 2001 and 2011 than in 1991 for both men and women. It was lower once again for men but for women it has increased in 2011 compared to 2001. Female economic activity in the non-economic agriculture sector decreased in 2011 compared to 2001. The increase in agricultural employment has been slightly higher for women than men due to higher male migration rates. This indicates an increasing trend of the "feminisation of agriculture", it seems that women are required to work in the agriculture sector.

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Table 6.29: Distribution of economically active population by industry (1991-2011).

Industry	1991*			2001*			2011**		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Agriculture & Forestry	81.2	74.9	90.5	65.7	60.2	72.8	64.0	54.6	76.6
Non-agriculture Of which	17.8	23.8	8.9	34.1	39.5	27.0	36.0	45.5	23.4
Mining and Quarrying	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2
Manufacturing and recycling	2.0	2.6	1.2	8.8	8.1	9.7	5.6	7.2	3.6
Electricity, gas and Water supply	0.2	0.3	0.0	1.5	0.6	2.7	0.3	0.4	0.0
Construction	0.5	0.7	0.1	2.9	4.2	1.2	3.4	5.3	0.8
Trade and Services Of which	3.5	4.5	2.0	9.9	10.7	9.0	-	-	-
Wholesale and retail trade				8.7	9.3	8.0	7.0	8.5	5.2
Hotels and restaurants, Of which				1.2	1.4	1.0	1.4	1.5	1.2
Transport, storage & communications, of which	0.7	1.1	0.1	1.6	2.8	0.1	2.6	4.3	0.3
Finance & Business services Of which	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.8	1.2	0.3	0.7	0.9	0.5
Financial intermediation				0.5	0.7	0.2	-	-	-
Real state, renting and business				0.3	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0
Community, social & personal services Of which	10.3	13.6	5.3	8.3	11.7	3.9	2.7	3.5	1.6
Public administration and social security				3.0	4.7	0.8	1.5	2.2	0.5
Education				2.3	3.0	1.4	3.7	4.2	3.1
Health and social work				0.6	0.8	0.4	0.8	0.9	0.7
Other comm., social & personal service				0.7	1.1	0.2	1.8	2.3	1.2
Private households				1.1	1.1	1.0	3.1	2.6	3.8
Extra-territorial Organ & bodies				0.6	1.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Not Stated		2.2	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.2	2.4	3.1	1.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: * CBS (2003). Table 18.21:238. ** CBS (2012). National Report Vol. III. Table 14.

Men's engagement in the non-agricultural sector has increased by about 16 percentage points in 2001 compared to 1991, and there is only a 6 percentage point increase in 2011 compared to 2001. However, women's engagement in the non-agriculture sector has increased by about 18 percentage points in 2001 compared to 1991, but decreased by about 4 percentage points in 2011 compared to 2001 (see Table 6.29). However, women's participation in the agriculture sector has increased by 4 percentage points in 2011 compared to 2001.

The proportion of women working in the in agriculture sector has increased consistently since 1981, 1991, 2001 and again in 2011. Female participation in the non-agriculture sector increased in previous years, 14 percent in 1981, 20 percent in 1991 and 34 percent in 2001, but suddenly declined to 28 percent in 2011 (see Table 6.30).

Table 6.30: Female proportion (male + female =100) in labour force by industry (1981-2011).

Industry	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**
Agriculture and Forestry	36.4	45.0	48.1	51.5
Non- agriculture of which	14.3	20.2	34.3	28.0
Mining and Quarrying	26.7	20.6	35.6	27.7
Manufacturing and recycling	14.9	22.9	47.6	27.5
Electricity, gas and Water supply	4.9	6.4	77.6	7.3
Construction	5.9	10.9	17.8	10.4
Trade and Services, <i>Of which</i>	15.0	23.7	39.0	-
Wholesale and retail trade			39.6	31.2
Hotels and restaurants			34.5	37.7
Transport, storage & communications	4.6	3.9	3.6	3.6
Finance & Business services	10.2	13.4	14.2	31.3
Financial intermediation <i>Of which</i>			14.6	
Real state, renting and business			13.6	10.9
Community, social & personal services, <i>Of which</i>	14.5	21.0	20.5	19.2
Public administration and social security, of which			11.8	14.0
Education			26.0	36.9
Health and social work			29.4	39.7
Other comm., social & personal service			14.6	36.1
Private households			40.2	52.7
Extra-territorial Organ. & bodies			6.3	30.9
Total	34.6	40.4	43.4	43.0

Source: * CBS (2003). Table 18.22: 239. ** CBS (2012). National Report Vol. III. Table 14.

In the non-agriculture sector, the proportion of female workers has increased in education, and working at a private house (labour). The proportion of female workers decreased in manufacture, mining, construction and other industrial sectors. In 2001, the largest proportionate increases in the non-agricultural sector were in electricity, gas and water, manufacturing and trade and related services. The large increase in the pro-

portion of women in the electricity, gas and water supply sector from 6.4 percent to almost 78 percent was because in 2001, household level collectors of water and fuel were counted as extended economic activities of the economically active. To make it comparable to earlier censuses, some data reprocessing is required. Additionally, a study on the declining female participation in electricity, manufacturing, gas and water and trade sectors is also important. The 'not stated' response is higher in 2011 than previous censuses. This error may have been made by the enumerator or male and female respondents. That said, the proportion of women in the finance and business category has increased tremendously to 31.3 percent in 2011 (see Table 6.30).

The development of major export industries, such as carpets, garments, and woollen goods, has opened new avenues of formal employment for women. Tourism and hotels have increased women's engagement in trade and related services, like roadside tea stalls, village level guesthouses, pubs etc., which fall under the multiple economic activities as included in the definition of economic activities. Women in Nepal have always managed shops, but previously they would have declared themselves as housewives. However, the decline in the proportion of females in the non-agriculture is extremely apparent in the Population Census of 2011. The enumerator may have under-estimated these economic activities and a detailed study may be required to identify the non-economic activities of females.

Table 6.31: Female proportion in labour force by development regions and by major industry 2001-2011.

Regions	Agriculture & related	Non-agriculture		
		Total	Manufacturing	Other
2001*				
Development regions				
Eastern	46.2	36.4	46.1	33.3
Central	42.6	29.5	42.5	24.6
Western	54.5	38.4	50.7	34.2
Mid-western	47.9	39.9	56.4	34.0
Far-western	53.8	34.7	57.7	27.3
Residence				
Urban	5.8	19.4	15.9	21.3
Rural	94.2	80.6	84.1	78.7
Nepal	48.1	34.4	47.4	29.7
2011**				
Development regions				
Eastern	50.1	31.5	26.5	24.7
Central	35.9	35.9	18.8	50.1
Western	49.0	49.0	30.9	44.5
Mid-western	46.9	46.9	36.4	57.9
Far-western	50.2	50.2	32.5	53.9
Residence				
Urban	5.2	32.3	30.3	32.7
Rural	94.8	67.7	69.7	67.3
Nepal	51.5	28.0	27.5	28.1

Source: *CBS (2003). Table 18.23:239. ** CBS (2012). National Report Vol. III. Table 14.

Table 6.31 shows that in 2001, women constituted only 5.8 percent of the agricultural labour force in urban areas, while it was 94 percent in rural areas. This pattern was almost the same in 2011, which may be due to the fact that urban agriculture is more commercialised. In all development regions, women are concentrated in the agriculture and manufacturing sectors in 2001. In 2011, the female proportion has declined in the manufacture sector and increased in other sectors, a pattern that differs from 2001.

An attempt has been made in Tables 6.32 and 6.33 to match old and new classifications to a certain extent. But this exercise is still far from complete and the following discussions consider this. Table 6.32 shows the occupational distribution of the labour force, and the pattern of women's employment, which has changed slowly from census to census. In the 2001 occupational classifications, the agricultural labour force was divided in two categories – 1) skilled and semi-skilled and 2) elementary workers, however, this was removed in 2011.

Table 6.32: Distribution of economically active population by broad occupational groups (in per cent), 1991-2011.

Occupations	1991*			2001*			2011**		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Administrative Workers (Legislators, Senior Off. & Managers)	0.3	0.5	0.1	0.6	0.9	0.2	1.6	1.9	1.1
Technicians and Associate Professionals, <i>Of which</i>	1.8	2.5	0.7	4.2	5.9	1.9	5.7	7.0	4.1
Professionals				2.5	3.3	1.3	3.8	4.3	3.0
Technician & Associate Professionals, of which				1.7	2.6	0.6	2.0	2.6	1.1
Clerks or Office Assistants	1.1	1.6	0.3	2.0	3.1	0.6	1.2	1.5	0.8
Service, Shop and Market Sales Workers	9.2	11.7	5.5	7.9	10.5	4.5	7.8	9.4	5.6
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishery Workers, <i>Of which</i>	81.1	74.7	90.5	65.7	60.2	72.8	57.0	47.0	70.6
Skilled and Semi-Skilled				59.6	53.4	67.7	-	-	-
Elementary Occupations				6.1	6.8	5.1	-	-	-
Production Workers, <i>Of which</i>	4.2	5.8	2.0	19.5	19.3	19.8	21.0	26.3	13.8
Craft and Related Workers				9.3	9.1	9.5	7.6	10.5	3.6
Plant and Machine Operator & Assemblers				1.4	2.2	0.4	2.1	3.4	0.4
Elementary Occupations (other than agriculture)				8.8	8.0	9.9	9.4	10.1	8.4
Not Stated+ others for 1981 & 1991)	1.1	1.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.9	2.3	1.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: * CBS (2003). Table 18.24:241. ** CBS (2012). National Report Volume III. Table 13.

The distribution of occupation shows the position of people working in a particular industry of a country. Therefore, the occupational distribution is more relevant than the industrial distribution. However, one difficulty with this data is that the 2001 census used different definitions of occupational classifications, than earlier censuses.

From a gender perspective, the occupation of women working in agriculture sector is very high, only 2.2 percentage point reduction from 2001 to 2011. However, for men in agriculture, there was a 13.2 percentage point reduction from 2001 to 2011. Other occupations have lower proportions of women than men. Thus, this missing male labour force in agriculture indicates that there is missing labour force in Nepal, which may be due to movement of male labour to non-agriculture sector or abroad. This may be a challenge to the agriculture economy and to women's economic empowerment. Due to shortage of male labour, women may be restricted to work in the low paying agricultural sector, thereby hindering their economic progress. Other occupations have lower proportion of women than men. In non-agriculture sector, the proportions of women have increased than men in the technician and professional category, however it are still less than men (see Table 6.32). Women's occupation in non-agriculture sector is also increasing with small deviation, but, it is lower than men's occupation.

Most farmers' farm on their own or rented land, while casual waged workers are classified as elementary workers. In terms of proportionate distribution, the largest gains in the non-agricultural sector have been in the category of production workers, both for males and females. However, even among production workers, these gains are relatively concentrated among elementary workers. Smaller surveys also confirm that in the manufacturing sector, women are concentrated in low paying and low capital-intensive jobs (GDS\FES, 1997). It should be noted that manual workers and even street vendors have been included in the category of elementary workers, while in earlier censuses, they were included largely in the shopkeeper and trader category. Also, water collectors at the household level are included in the category of elementary workers. Therefore, for a proper evaluation of occupational progress of women, all the different variants need to be investigated in more detail, which involves reprocessing of data, even for the census of 2011.

Women, lower than 50 percent are a small proportion of the labour force in the administrative, technical and professional, and clerical worker categories. In 2001, females constituted about 14 percent of administrative workers, i.e., among senior officers, legislators and managers, and 19 percent among professionals and technicians, which included teachers, trained nurses, doctors, engineers, professors etc. However, in 2011, there was an increase by 30 percent in the proportion of females in the administrative workers category, about a 30 percent increase in the technician's category and about a 34 percent increase in the professional's category. The four percentage point increase in women's proportion in this group indicates a positive trend in 2001 compared to 1991. The proportion of women in this group has further increased by more than 10 percentage points in 2011 compared to 2001 (see Table 6.33). However, in 1991, this trend was declining compared to 1981. In the agriculture sector, the proportion of the female labour force has increased by about four percentage points in 2011, while trade and other sectors have declined.

Table 6.33: Female proportion in labour force by occupation (1981- 2011).

Industry	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**
Administrative Workers (Legislators, Senior Off. & Managers)	6.6	9.3	13.8	30.0
Technicians and Associate Professionals, <i>Of which</i>	16.6	15.1	19.0	29.9
Professionals	-	-	23.3	33.8
Technician & Associate Professionals	-	-	14.4	22.6
Clerks or Office Assistants	5.8	10.0	12.8	29.4
Service, Shop and Market Sales Workers	14.6	23.9	24.7	30.4
Agriculture, Forestry and Fishery Workers, <i>Of which</i>	36.4	45.1	48.1	52.4
Skilled and Semi-Skilled	-	-	49.3	-
Elementary Occupations	-	-	36.4	-
Production Workers, <i>Of which</i>	19.2	15.8	44.1	-
Craft and Related Workers	-	-	44.6	20.1
Plant and Machine Operator & Assemblers	-	-	13.0	7.1
Elementary Occupations (other than agriculture)	-	-	48.6	37.9
Not Stated+ others for	15.1	35.9	50.9	30.1
Total	34.6	40.4	43.2	42.3

Source: * CBS (2003). Table 18.25:242. **CBS (2012). National Report Volume III. Table 13.

It is important to note that among professionals, women constituted 23 percent in 2001, which was largely due to the inclusion of female community health volunteers in this category. Among clerical workers, women's proportion was 12 percent (CBS, 2003). Similarly, in 2011, professional women account for about 34 percent of this category, which may be due to the same reason as in 2001. Among clerical workers, women's proportion increased by 29 percent.

6.3.3.3 Employment status

In the economic sector, the status of employment is also one of the indicators to determine the economic status of women. As to the type of employment, an overwhelming majority of the economically active population, both male and female, is still self-employed (Table 6.34), including family labour, throughout the censuses.

In 2001, 62 percent of male and nearly 84 percent of female were self-employed and in family labour, whereas in 2011, this category constituted 57 percent of males and about 79 percent of females. This shows a low increase in the commercialisation of the labour market and low employment opportunities in the organised sector. As per these figures, waged employment opportunities have expanded much faster for both females and males during 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011. However, this might have been affected by the inclusion of extended economic activities, which included water and fuel collection, food processing, knitting and other economic activities undertaken at home or outside the home (CBS, 2011). The proportion of employees (waged workers) has remained almost constant for females since 1991, however, there was a four percentage point increase in 2011 compared to 2001. For males, it is almost the same. Women's proportion in waged labour was lowest compared to other categories of employment status. But, the female percentage in total is highest in the unpaid family labour category, which was approximately 64 percent in 2011 (see Table 6.34).

Table 6.34: Employment status, Nepal (1981--2011).

Employment status	Male				Female				% of Female in total
	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**	2011
Employer	0.9	0.7	3.9	2.59	0.4	0.4	3.7	1.56	31.22
Employee	11.8	27.8	33.7	35.73	3.8	12.0	12.8	16.53	25.90
Self employment	83.2	69.5	56.7	57.63	90.0	83.7	70.6	76.66	50.12
Unpaid family labour	1.7	1.5	5.7	0.8	4.0	3.5	12.9	1.97	63.87
Not Stated	2.4	0.4	-	3.20	1.8	0.5	-	3.29	43.73
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.00	43.04

Source: * CBS (2003). Table 18.26: 243. **CBS (2012). National Report Volume III. Table 15.

Looking at the proportion of waged and non-waged workers by major industry groups, women constituted a much lower proportion of waged-workers in the non-agricultural than agriculture sectors throughout the censuses (see Table 6.35). In 2001 and 2011, 33 percent and 34.5 percent of women, respectively, received agricultural wages. The proportion of women work without payment is high in both 2001 (50.0%) and 2011 (53.1%). Women paid in the non-agriculture sector improved in 2011, ie 17.7 percent in 2001 and 20.8 percent in 2011, however, the non-wage proportion is declined from 51 percent in 2001 to 32 percent in 2011. The overall, non-waged proportion of females is higher than males but there has been a negligible increase in the proportion of waged workers. It indicates the employment status of women is weak and poor.

Table 6.35: Female - proportion by wage/non-wage and by major occupation, Nepal (1981- 2011).

Occupation	Wage				Non-Wage (Self employment, Family labour + Employer)			
	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**	1981*	1991*	2001*	2011**
Agriculture	16.8	29.8	33.0	34.5	37.3	46.6	50.0	53.1
Non-Agriculture	14.5	18.9	17.7	20.8	18.0	25.0	50.6	32.1
Nepal	14.7	22.6	22.4	25.9	36.8	45.3	50.2	49.8

Source: * CBS (2003). Table 18.27:243. ** CBS (2012). National Report. Volume III. Table 15

In the Development Regions, the proportion of waged labour is higher for both men and women in the Central and Eastern Development Regions, since non-agricultural sectors including manufacturing, trade and services and construction activities are concentrated in these two regions. The proportion of waged labour declines progressively from the Centre to the Western Development Regions (see Table 6.36), indicating a decline in paid employment opportunities in the Western part of the country.

In 2011, there is a higher proportion of paid male and female workers in the Central Development Region, however the proportion of females is still lower than males. In the Far-Western development region, there are more unpaid female and male workers, however there was a 20 percentage point increase for females. Most non-waged workers are self-employed.

Table 6.36: Employment status by sex and development regions.

Employment status	Male					Female				
	EDR	CDR	WDR	MWDR	FWDR	EDR	CDR	WDR	MWDR	FWDR
2001										
Wage (employee)	32.8	42.1	29.0	25.8	22.8	15.0	18.5	9.6	8.1	6.0
Self employment	67.1	57.9	71.0	74.2	77.1	85.0	81.5	90.4	92.0	94.0
<i>Employer</i>	3.0	4.5	3.3	3.3	5.2	2.8	4.2	3.5	3.3	5.4
<i>Self employment</i>	57.5	49.9	60.3	63.6	65.2	67.8	65.4	73.7	73.2	79.7
<i>Family labour</i>	6.6	3.5	7.4	7.3	6.7	14.4	11.9	13.2	15.5	8.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
2011										
Wage (employee)	20.7	43.0	34.6	29.2	28.8	20.1	24.6	13.4	9.6	8.4
Self Employment	64.4	57.0	65.4	70.8	71.2	79.9	75.4	86.6	90.4	91.6
<i>Employer</i>	2.8	3.4	2.1	1.6	1.5	2.2	1.9	1.1	1.1	1.2
<i>Self employment</i>	60.4	52.8	62.5	68.5	69.2	74.4	71.6	83.9	87.5	89.3
<i>Family labour</i>	1.2	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.5	3.2	1.9	1.6	1.8	1.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	1,247,849	2,139,526	937,727	686,945	462,997	963,204	1,198,057	900,339	605,038	466,256

Source: CBS (2003). Table 18.28: 244. ** CBS (2012). National Report. Volume III. Table. 15.

Table 6.37: Average daily wages received by wage earners in agriculture and non-agriculture, 1995/96 - 2010/11.

Average daily wage received in agriculture and non-agriculture sectors	1995/96			2003/04			2010/11		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Wages in agriculture									
Cash (NRs.)	37.6	26.8	32.6	68.0	48.0	58.0	145.0	97.0	117.0
In Kind (NRs.)	20.7	17.5	19.3	32.0	29.0	30.0	68.0	63.0	65.0
Total (NRs.)	44.4	35.1	40.2	85.0	65.0	75.0	201.0	147.0	170.0
Wage in non-agriculture									
Cash (NRs.)	66.7	50.9	65.3	122.0	85.0	118.0	243.0	143.0	219.0
In Kind (NRs.)	27.0	29.7	27.2	42.0	40.0	42.0	92.0	86.0	91.0
Total (NRs.)	75.7	56.7	74.0	137.0	101.0	133.0	286.0	189.0	263.0

CBS, NLSS, 2010/11, Table 2.12:73

The CBS (2011) has recorded the average daily wage in both the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors by gender. Between 1995/96 and 2010/11, wages in both the agriculture and non-agriculture sectors have increased more than four fold. However, there was discrimination between males and females in both sectors, whether in cash or in kind. By sector, the average wage is lower for both males and females in the agriculture sector than the non-agriculture sector. In addition, males have a higher wage than females in both the agriculture and non-agriculture sectors in all three censuses (see Table 6.37).

6.3.3.4 Women's property

In Nepal, the tradition of sons inheriting parental property is still in practice. Very few daughters or women inherit property, and the number is negligible due to many reasons. The issue of women's property needs to be considered in the changing status of gender. The changing status of women is not represented by demographic and social factors alone, it has to consider in terms of economic empowerment as well. A significant amount of analysis has to be undertaken to show women's status from the household to national level. Women play a very important role in the economy of the country visibly and invisibly. Therefore the ideology of male domination, which pervades Nepalese culture, is changing slowly and hampering development in all sectors. Even though there are laws that entitle women to property rights, Nepalese women do not benefit from these laws in reality. For example, in all communities, land is passed from a father to his son and women lag behind. Therefore, the status of women's property, whether earned by women or received from parents, is an indicator of women's economic empowerment and their changing status.

According to the Population Census of 2001, about 11 percent of households reported that some land was legally owned by women. Only 5.5 percent of households had part of the house in a woman's name. Table 6.38 shows that 7.2 percent of households reported that females owned livestock. Females might have used micro-credit funding to invest in and claim ownership of these livestock. But, this data also indicates that women's access to institutional credit is still marginal. According to Acharya M. (CBS, 2003), an examination of more detailed data also concluded that women's access to credit is still marginal, both at the individual and household enterprise levels, irrespective of ecological regions, urban/rural areas and ethnicity/caste. Overall, only 0.8 percent of households had all three components, house, land and livestock in women's names (see Table 6.38). While these figures support the argument that women have equal access to property in the households, they do not have as much ownership as males (CBS, 2003).

Only 10.7 percent of women reported that they owned their house in 2011, although this has doubled since 2001. Also, in 2011, women in the Terai region and Eastern, Central and Western Development Regions reported almost a two-fold increase in houses in their names as compared to 2001. In fact, land as a property of women has decreased in 2011 than in 2001, which may be due to renewed definitions on land and property in 2011. According to this new definition, land and houses are not counted twice if a house is already built on the land, which was not the case in 2001. However, it is discouraging that Population Census-2011 has no separate information of livestock, which is not practical because Nepal has introduced micro-credit programs that allow disadvantaged women to invest in livestock. Thus, because of the micro-credit activities and women investing in livestock, these women can claim their ownership over those livestock, giving us an idea of women's economic empowerment. Also, in 2011, 79.5 percent women reported that they had no property as compared to 82.9 percent women in 2001. Women with no-property declined by 3.4 percentage point in 2011.

Table 6.38: Per cent of households with some female ownership in total number of households.

Regions	Land/house/livestock only or combined			House, land and livestock	None
	Some house	Some land	Some livestock		
2001*					
Ecological regions					
Mountain	4.5	9.2	11.8	1.2	80.9
Hills	5.5	9.9	7.2	0.8	83.6
Tarai	5.7	12.0	6.6	0.7	82.4
Development regions					
Eastern	6.7	15.1	9.3	1.2	78.0
Central	5.8	10.7	6.6	0.7	83.1
Western	5.9	11.0	6.5	0.8	83.3
Mid-western	4.1	7.6	5.4	0.5	87.4
Far-western	2.3	3.6	8.0	0.2	88.4
Nepal	5.5	10.8	7.2	0.8	82.9
2011**					
Ecological regions					
Mountain	5.5	5.6	-	-	88.4
Hills	9.9	8.0	-	-	81.4
Tarai	12.3	10.5	-	-	76.3
Development regions					
Eastern	12.6	12.7	-	-	73.9
Central	11.1	9.2	-	-	78.6
Western	12.3	8.8	-	-	78.2
Mid-western	7.8	6.1	-	-	85.6
Far-western	4.8	3.1	-	-	91.6
Nepal	10.7	9.0	-	-	79.5

Source: *CBS (2003). Table 18.31: 246. ** CBS (2012). National Report-2011, Vol I. Table 10:36

Acharya M. (CBS, 2003) also mentioned that since women's legal rights over property and inheritance have not changed to a great degree, there is no reason to believe that women's access to land and other economic resources has improved in the last 20-25 years. Therefore, arguments that are so often cited against full citizenship rights for mothers or inheritance rights for daughters need to be carefully considered. Unfortunately, resistance to any change in the inheritance system is strong. The recently promulgated amendments to the law on property rights of women did not substantially change their access to parental property, but do provide easier access to property for unmarried women.

6.3.3.5 Women's workload and drudgery

In Nepal, besides the gender gap in socio-economic activities as shown above, household chores and their characteristics are part of women's day to day life that dictate their workload and the effort that they have to put into this. In fact, Table 6.39 shows housing characteristics that directly or indirectly relate to women's activities at home. Over 40 percent of houses are built from mud. However, whether

a house is made from mud or cement, women still have to compulsorily clean the house because most men do not participate in household activities, especially in cleaning the house. Nepalese society thinks that household chores and related activities are a woman’s responsibility. In addition, if drinking water is not available at home, women have to collect it from outside the house, and, in most cases from long distances over difficult terrain. The Population Census of 2011 shows that about 48 percent of total households have tap water, which indicates that in the majority of households’ women, must collect water from tubes, wells, hand pumps, water spouts, rivers/rivulets and other sources.

Table 6.39: Women’s workload and drudgery as per household characteristics

Type of foundation of house	Type of outer wall	Roof of house	Sources of drinking water	Fuel used for cooking	Sources of light	Type of toilet used
Mud bonded (44.2)	Mud bonded brick Stone (41.4)	Thatch straw (19.0)	Tap/piped (47.8)	Wood/ fire-wood (64.0)	Electricity (67.3)	Without toilet (38.2)
Cement bonded (17.6)	Cement boded bricks (28.7)	Galvanized iron (28.3)	Tube well/hand pump (35.1)	Kerosene (1.0)	Kerosene (18.3)	Flush toilet (public sewerage) (8.3)
RCC with pillar (9.9)	Wood/planks (5.3)	Tile/slate (26.7)	Covered well/kuwa (2.4)	LP gas (21.0)	Bio gas (0.3)	Flush toilet (septic tank) (33.5)
Wooden pillar (24.9)	Bamboo (20.2)	RCC (22.5)	Uncovered well/kuwa (4.7)	Cow dung (10.4)	Solar (7.4)	Ordinary toilet (19.5)
Other (2.3)	Unbaked brick (1.1)	Wood/planks (0.8)	Spout water (5.7)	Bio gas (2.4)	Others (6.1)	-
-	Others (2.1)	Mud (1.1)	River stream (1.1)	Electricity (0.1)	-	-
-	-	Others (0.4)	Others (2.4)	Others (0.4)	-	-
100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: CBS (2012). National Report Volume I, Table 2-8:16-31

Table 6.14 has already shown details on the amenities of female-headed households. Similarly, Volume III: Chapter 8 also shows the gender disparity in sourcing drinking water and collecting fuel for cooking. Under household chores, collecting fuel is a major component and 64 percent of households use wood for cooking food at home (see Table 6.39). The issue is not only using wood to cook food, but the impact of collecting and carrying wood on women and children. Apart from the drudgery involved in collecting wood for fuel, cooking by wood has negative impacts on women’s health in terms of respiratory and eye problems. It has been found that women’s reproductive health problems in terms of a prolapsed uterus¹ is attributed to women’s toil in the collection of wood and water for household use, fodder for livestock and manure for agriculture. Furthermore, there is no data and information for additional chores such as washing clothes and daily cleaning activities, which are also a major part of household activities of Nepalese women.

6.4 Achievements, challenges and indicators of changing gender status

The major important indicators such as the Human Development Index (HDI), the Gender Development Index (GDI), Gender Empowerment Measures (GEM), the Gender Inequality Index (GII) and the Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI) have shown achievements of a change in gender status in Nepal. The

¹ There is no documentation of the exact number but estimated existing number is about 600,000.

combination of per capita income, life expectancy and adult educational attainment equal the HDI. As per the overall HDI, Nepal has made substantial progress, by 213 percentage points in three decades, 125 percentage points in two decades and 42 percentage points in the last decade. This gain was slightly more notable during the 1980s than during the 1990s and after 2000.

The Gender Development Index (GDI) uses the same variables as the HDI, but takes into consideration inequality in achievements between women and men. As shown in Table 6.40, inequality in achievements are as follows; women were behind by 104 percentage points than men in 1991, only 20 percentage points in 2001, and 59 percentage points in 2011 respectively. Female life expectancy is now higher than males, and achievements in the educational field have been greater for females, but there is still a gap between men and women. In addition, the level of income has a more pronounced gap for men and women. The values of the GDI range between 0 and 1. If the value of the GDI is 1, it indicates perfect gender equality, whereas if GDI is 0, it indicates perfect gender inequality.

The Gender Empowerment Measures (GEM) uses variables constructed explicitly to measure the relative empowerment of women. It is calculated using parliamentary representation, administrative, managerial, professional and technical positions, and male and female income. It is a combination of political and economic participation by gender. In Nepal, with the political change and concept of social inclusion, GEM has shown progress of 172 percentage points within one decade. It is impressive; however, this progress has to increase in the future.

UNDP (2013) has introduced one more indicator for gender measurement: the Gender Inequality Index (GII). The higher the GII value, the greater the discrimination by gender. The loss in human development of the country is due to the inequality between female and male achievements in three GII dimensions – reproductive health, empowerment, and economic activity. Reproductive health is measured by maternal mortality and adolescent fertility rates; empowerment is measured by the share of parliamentary seats held by each gender; and attainment of secondary and higher education by each gender; while economic activity is measured by the labour market participation rate for each gender. In fact, the GII replaced the previous Gender Related Development Index and Gender Empowerment Index. Nepal has a GII value of 0.485, and is ranked 102 out of 148 countries in the 2012 index. However, Nepal is ranked 157 according to the HDI value of 2012 (UNDP, 2013). Based on the 2012 data for 148 countries, the GII shows a large variation across countries, ranging from 0.045 (in the Netherlands) to 0.747 (in Yemen). Nepal is in 14th position globally in electing women leaders in the legislature parliament. The reason behind the drastic change in women's representation is due to the reservation of seats provided through the Interim Constitution of Nepal in 2007. However, Nepal has not yet given women opportunities in the decision making forum, therefore the participation of Nepalese women is still low in politics.

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Table 6.40: Overall Gender Equity Indexes and Other Indicators of gender status

Indicators	Unit	1981	1991	2001	2011 ¹	2013	Changes in score (2006-2013)
Gender equity indexes							
Human Development Index (HDI)	Index	0.328	0.416	0.499	0.541		
Gender Development Index (GDI)	Index	-	0.312	0.479	0.482		
Gender Empowerment Measures (GEM)	Index	-	-	0.391 ¹	0.563		
Gender Inequality Index (GII)	Index					0.485 ²	
Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI)	Index						0.0575 ³
Life expectancy at birth							
Male	Years	50.9	55.0	60.1	67.3		
Female		48.1	53.5	60.7	69.6		
Adult literacy (15 years+)							
Male	%	20.6	38.0	62.2	72.0 ⁴		
Female		9.2	13.0	34.6	45.0		
Economically active (10 years+)							
Male	%	83.7	68.2	71.7	62.5		
Female		46.2	45.2	55.3	46.8		
Per capita purchasing power parity ratio PPP							
Male	US \$			1734	1558		
Female				867	1095		
Women in civil services							
<i>Government administration</i>							
Special class	%	1.0			5.2		
First class		4.0			1.8		
Second class		1.0			3.5		
Third class					7.7		
Total	No.	54			790		
Involvement of women/year							
		1986/87⁵	1991/92⁵	2000⁵	2008⁶	2014⁶	
Women's participation in politics							
Parliament	%	5.7	3.8	6.4	33.2 (575)	30.0 (575)	
Number of women in cabinet		1.0	2.0	2.0	23.1 (26)		

Sources: CBS, 2003: 3, HDR, 1995, and 2003; Population Census Reports for 1991, 2001 and 2011 (Vol, II Table 25)

1. UNDP (2014). Nepal Human Development Report 2014. 2. UNDP (2013). Human Development Report-2013:156, 3. World Economic Forum (2013). 4. CBS (2011). NLSS-2010/11. 5. Acharya M (2004). 6. Nepal Election Commission.

The World Economic Forum (2013) also introduced the Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI). The value of the index ranges between 1 (equality) and 0 (inequality) between females and males. Nepal has obtained a GGGI as follows, 0.608 in 2010, 0.589 in 2011, 0.603 in 2012 and 0.605 in 2013. In fact, changes across censuses are not significant, which means that the gender gap has not been changed as required. Of the four dimensions of GGGI, the health and survival index is better (0.9612) than educational attainment (0.7462), economic participation and opportunity (0.5151), and political empowerment (0.1989) scores. Even political participation is not satisfactory in Nepal, and it is obvious that Nepal would score low in political empowerment. Overall, Nepal has changed its GGGI score by only 5.75 percent from 2006 to 2013 (see Table 6.40).

HDI and other indicators seem to have improved slowly, but more effective policies need to be formulated to address issues such as the gender gap and urban/rural and other regional disparities. All development and ecological regions are not prospering at an equal rate. In less developed development regions, gender disparities in these indicators is higher, but no vital statistics are available yet for further analysis, which are required to identify and to accelerate development in federalism. In fact, development of the country is possible if, and only if there is no discrimination between males and females in all sectors. To overcome all these challenges, this chapter concludes and recommends policies to bridge the gap between males and females.

6.5 Conclusion

This chapter concludes that the total number of females is more than males by number in Nepal, but males dominate in all socio-economic activities. Although the gap between males and females has improved compared to previous censuses, the change is not sufficient, which is challenging to the country's development. Some of the major issues such as the missing economically active men population, the decreasing economically active women population, the increasing female aged population, the declining involvement of women in non-agriculture sector, high drop-out rate for females at higher level education, early marriage for females and the male-female difference in literacy rate can create obstacles for economic and overall development.

6.6 Policy implications

- ✓ The gender responsive budget has to give priority to female population due to the poor status of women. Therefore, the increase in directly responsive budget allocation and tracking its expenditure are important steps further.
- ✓ The government has to consider the increasing trends of aged population in policy level with right-based approach. In addition, due to increasing female aged population, who may be uneducated and dependent, the government has to seriously consider and provide increased benefits to this group of population.
- ✓ The female-headed household must be formally continued as recorded by the Population Census-2011 to enhance women's empowerment.
- ✓ The government should have more strong policy against child/early marriage. Similarly, the government has to be strict about polygamy marriage because such marriages pose challenges for improving women's status.

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- ✓ The government has to strictly discourage child labor.
- ✓ Since the female dropout rate is very high at higher level of education, the government has to seriously control this and develop various attractive policies to favor women to achieve demographic, socio and economic characteristics, including participation in decision-making tasks. Additionally, the government has to develop policy to minimize the literacy rate variation in residence and regions.
- ✓ The government should control on equal wage level policy for both male and female in agricultural and non-agriculture sectors.
- ✓ The government should encourage young male people, who are likely to migrate, to take part in Nepal's agriculture sector.
- ✓ To economically empower women, credit facility and support in agriculture and non-agriculture sectors must be provided. Door-to-door campaign needs to be conducted to raise awareness and to provide such facilities.
- ✓ The government has to protect women's property by making strict tax rules because people might purchase property under a woman's name just to pay a lower price. Such data can represent a false picture of women empowerment.

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CHAPTER 7

ADOLESCENTS, YOUTH AND YOUNG POPULATION

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Anil Thapa**

Abstract

The national census of 2011 enumerated a total population of 8,765,475 young people (10-24 years) in the country. Of this number, 4,513,673 were females (51.5%) and 4,251,802 were males (48.5%) (CBS-2011). Adolescents (10-19 years) make up 24.2% of the total population of Nepal. Similarly youth (15-24) make up almost 20% of the total population of Nepal. Young people (10-24 years of age) make up almost one third (33%) of the total population. The distribution of young people across the country by region shows that a significant number of youth live in the Central Development Region, about 36% of the total population of young people, and about one tenth (10%) live in Far-Western Development Region. Similarly, the majority of young people (82%) live in rural areas and almost half of the young people of the country live in the Tarai. About 90% of adolescents can read and write. Ninety per cent of the population (10-14 years) are studying, which declines to 70% and 29% in the age groups 15-19 years and 20-24 years respectively. Employment is low, only 1%, 9% and 21% in the age groups 10-14 years, 15-19 years and 20-24 years respectively, are in a paid/salaried job. In the age group 10-14 years, only 3% of the population are economically active, which increases to 20% in the age group 15-19 years and almost 50 % in the age group 20-24 years.

7.1 Introduction

Nepal has recently completed hundred years of census taking with a successful operation of the census 2011, the 11th round in the history of census taking in Nepal. Initial four censuses, as mentioned in the report of the census 1952-54, were primarily “head counts” and so, vital information were not collected therein. Subsequent censuses have gradually improved by including more information in census questionnaires. The most recent national census of Nepal carried out in 2011 collected a considerable amount of information regarding various socio-cultural and economic aspects of the Nepalese population. Detailed information pertaining to specific groups and their characteristics are important from many perspectives such as planning, developing interventions, and economic opportunities etc. Adolescents, youth and young people are one of the most important “population sub-groups” to study in detail. They play a vital role in many aspects of the country as “family life” starts in this age group (15-24 years). Many of them start new professions, enter into economic activities and shift from pursuing educational

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attainment. Sociologically it can be seen as a “transition of population structure” as it is influenced by tradition, population function and structure of the “aged” population and will have an impact on future generations.

Adolescents, youth and young people are important age groups from various perspectives as they enter the economic as well as socio-cultural sectors. It is said that young people shape the future of a nation. World Health Organization (WHO) defines adolescence as a period of life between 10-19 years of age. Similarly, youth is defined as a period between 15-24 years and young people is defined as a term that covers both adolescence and youth (10-24 years) (WHO, 1992).

Adolescence is characterised by rapid growth, as major physical changes occur in the body during this period. In addition the differences between boys and girls are accentuated during this period. The International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) held in Cairo in 1994 noted that adolescence is a time of mental and psychological adjustment

Against this backdrop the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) has looked into various aspects of socio-cultural and economic dimensions of young people in more detail. Adolescents and youths are a special group that require attention from various developmental and interventional perspectives. In this context, further analysis of the census data has been undertaken, which is presented below. Only the data from the censuses are used. No comparison with any other surveys or study has been undertaken. Keeping the “concise” nature of specific questions asked during the census, further elaborations are limited to these questions and are explained in subsequent parts.

7.2 Analysis of adolescents, youth and young population

7.2.1 Place of residence

Adolescents (10-19 years of age) make up almost a quarter (24.2 %) of the total population of Nepal. Similarly youth (15- 24 years of age) make up almost one-fifth (19.97)% of the total population of Nepal. Young people (10-24 years of age) make up one third (33.1%) of the total population of Nepal. This is summarised in Table 7.1 below.

Table 7.1: Proportion of adolescents, youth and young people by place of residence against total population, Nepal, 2011

Area	Adolescents		Youth		Young	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Rural	5,379,072	24.48	4,248,791	19.34	7,216,597	32.85
Urban	1,028,332	22.73	1,041,260	23.02	1,548,878	34.24
Nepal	6,407,404	24.18	5,290,051	19.97	8,765,475	33.08

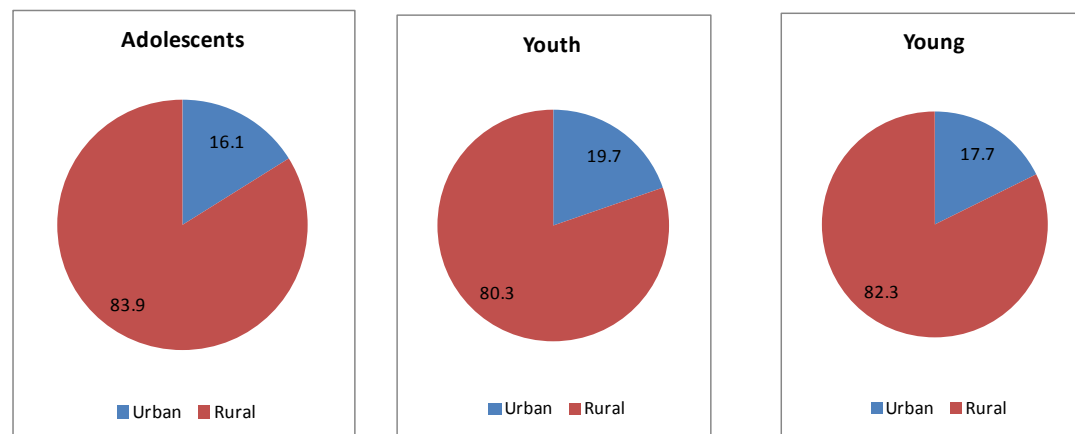
This table shows the percentage of adolescents, youth and young people by their place of residence (urban or rural). An average of 24% of the total population are adolescents. In rural areas, the percentage of adolescents is higher than in urban areas (24.5 % and 22.7% respectively). This is different for youth and young population where there is a higher percentage in urban areas.

Majority of adolescents, youth and young people reside in rural areas of Nepal (84%, 80% and 82% respectively). Less than one fifth live in urban areas. An overwhelming proportion of young people live in rural areas (82.3%).

Table 7.2: Frequency of type of residence of adolescents, youth and young people, Nepal, 2011

Place of residence	Adolescents		Youth		Young	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Urban Area	1028332	16.1	1041260	19.7	1548878	17.7
Rural Area	5379072	83.9	4248791	80.3	7216597	82.3
Total	6407404	100	5290051	100	8765475	100

Figure 7.1: Place of residence of AYP



Young people in Nepal live in urban and rural areas. Young people reflect the asymmetry of the total population of Nepal by residence (17% live in urban areas). Compared with the total population of Nepal residing in rural and urban areas, the AYP population sub-group does not depart very much from the national average. By analysing the distribution of adolescents, youth and young people by urban and rural residence by sex in more detail the following was found.

Table 7.3: Percentage distribution of adolescents, youth, and young by urban and rural residence and sex, Nepal 2011

Areas	Adolescents			Youth			Young		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Nepal	24.18	24.97	23.45	19.97	19.36	20.54	33.08	33.09	33.08
Rural	24.48	25.30	30.95	19.34	18.52	20.09	32.85	32.73	40.18
Urban	22.73	23.43	22.00	23.02	23.16	22.87	34.24	34.73	33.73

The proportion of males is mixed (both high and low) in every category of adolescents, youth and young people in both urban and rural areas. A sharp contrast is noted among adolescents and young people in rural areas where there is a difference of almost 5.6 percentage points and almost 8 percentage point, compared to urban areas where the difference is 1.5 percentage points and 1 percentage point.

The distribution of AYP by sex and ecological region was analysed further and is detailed in Table 7.4.

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Table 7.4: Percentage distribution of adolescents, youth, and young by ecological region and sex, Nepal, 2011

Areas	Adolescents			Youth			Young		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Nepal	24.18	24.97	23.45	19.97	19.36	20.54	33.08	33.09	33.08
Mountain	24.52	24.92	24.13	18.72	17.92	19.46	32.39	32.05	32.71
Hill	24.45	25.26	23.71	20.89	20.16	21.55	33.80	33.80	33.80
Tarai	23.91	24.72	23.12	19.35	18.88	19.80	32.57	32.64	32.49

In contrast to Table 7.4 above, there is less evidence of a sharp contrast among both sexes across the ecological region, except among rural adolescents. It indicates that there is a general phenomenon, but it is not specific.

Further analysis was undertaken and compared to see whether there is any change in the proportion of AYYYP living in urban areas over the last 50 years. Table 7.5 shows the changing trend.

Table 7.5: Trend in settling patterns in urban areas over the last 60 years

Category	Sex	1961	1971	1981	1991	2001	2011
Adolescents	Male	20.96	21.5	20.9	22.6	23.9	25.0
	Female	18.76	19.1	19.4	22.0	23.3	23.5
Youth	Male	16.69	17.4	17.3	17.4	18.8	19.4
	Female	17.22	17.5	18.1	19.2	20.1	20.5
Young People	Male	28.85	29.5	29.2	30.5	32.3	33.1
	Female	27.61	27.9	28.9	31.3	32.7	33.1

There has been an increasing ratio of adolescents, youth and young people in the total population structure of Nepal over the last 60 years. The proportion has increased in every category. It is most significant in young people (10-24 years). In 1961, males living in urban area made up 21% of the total population, while 19% of the total population were females. Over the last 5 decades, this proportion has increased by almost 4 percentage points. Similarly, male youth made up 17% of the total population in 1961, which has increased to 19.4% in 2011. The percentage of female youth has also increased from approximately 17% to 20.5% in 2011.

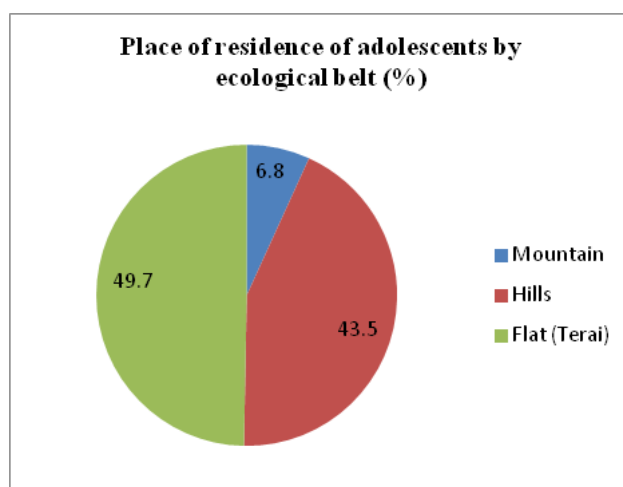
A visible change is seen among both male and female young people. Male and female young people made up 28.8% and 27.6% respectively of the total population in 1961, which has increased to 33.1% for both sexes in 2011. This change has been gradual over the last 50 years.

Table 7.6: Frequency of type of residence of adolescents, youths and young people by ecological region, Nepal, 2011

Ecological Region	Adolescents (10 - 19 yrs)		Youth (15 - 24 Yrs)	Young (10 - 24 Yrs)		
	Both Sex	%	Both Sex	%	Both Sex	%
Mountain	436817	6.8	333472	6.3	577135	6.6
Hill	2786180	43.5	2379672	45.0	3851062	43.9
Tarai	3184407	49.7	2576907	48.7	4337278	49.5
Total	6407404	100	5290051	100	8765475	100

Almost half of adolescents, youth and young people (AYYP) live in the southern belt (Tarai) of Nepal (49.7%, 48.7% and 49.5% respectively). Less than 7% live in the mountainous ecological belt and about 44% live in the hills ecological belt. Again there is a general comparability with the total population.

Figure 7.2 : Adolescents by ecological belt



By physiographic distribution, almost half of adolescents in Nepal live in the Tarai as shown in the graph above. Of the total population of adolescents, less than 7% live in the Mountainous region.

Table 7.7: Comparison of proportion of adolescents, youth and young people by ecological region against total population, Nepal, 2011

Ecological belt	Adolescents		Youth		Young	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Mountain	436817	24.52	333472	18.72	577135	32.39
Hill	2786180	24.45	2379672	20.89	3851062	33.80
Tarai	3184407	23.91	2576907	19.35	4337278	32.57

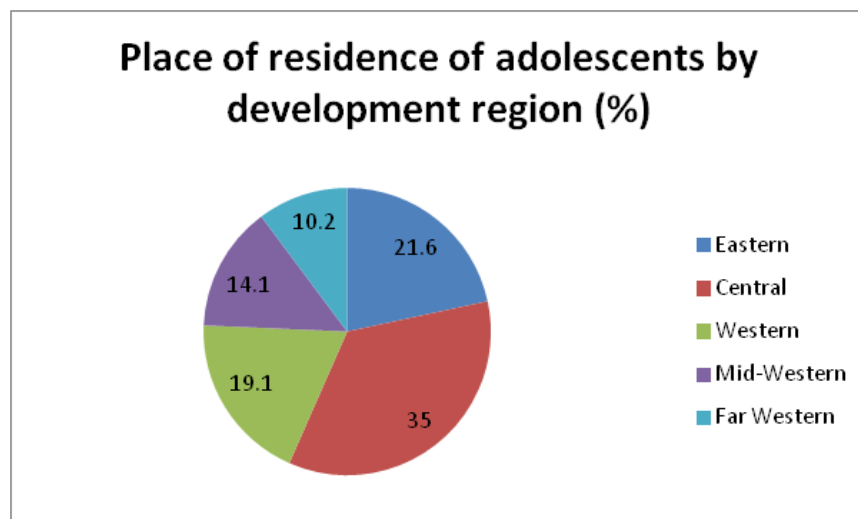
Compared with the total population structure of the three ecological belts of Nepal, the ratio of the population of adolescents, youths and young people (AYYP) does not vary significantly in their respective categories. The range for adolescents is: 23.9% to 24.52%, for youths: 18.72% to 20.89% and for young people: 32.39% to 33.80.

Table 7.8: Proportion of residence of adolescents, youths and young people by development region, Nepal, 2011

Development region	Adolescents (10 - 19 Yrs)		Youth (15 - 24 Yrs)		Young (10 - 24 Yrs)	
	Both Sex	%	Both Sex	%	Both Sex	%
Easter Dev. Region	1385137	21.6	1132696	21.4	1877279	21.4
Central Dev. Region	2243320	35.0	1941542	36.7	3149177	35.9
Western Dev. Region	1225777	19.1	996420	18.8	1652723	18.9
Mid-Western Dev. Region	901252	14.1	712774	13.5	1213674	13.8
Far-Western Dev. Region	651918	10.2	506619	9.6	872622	10.0
Total	6407404	100	5290051	100	8765475	100

More than one third of adolescents, youths and young people (AYYP) live in the central development region of Nepal (35%, 37.1% and 36% respectively). The Eastern development region has more than a 1/5th share, western development region has slightly less than a 1/5th share, while the Mid-western development region has almost a 1/8th share and the Far- West development Region a 10 % share.

Figure 7.3: Proportion of adolescents by development region



The place of residence of adolescents by development region is shown in the graph above.

More than one third (35%) of adolescents live in Central region followed by Eastern development region with more than one fifth (21.6%). They are followed by the Western development region with 19.1%, Mid-Western region with 14.1% and Far-Western Region with 10.2% of the adolescent population.

7.2.2 District having highest and lowest proportion of adolescents, youth and young people

The highest number of adolescents, youth and young people (AYYP) live in Kathmandu district, the capital of Nepal (367,853, 435,968 and 601,647 respectively) representing 5.7%, 8.2% and 6.9% of the total adolescents, youth and young people (AYYP) in the country. The lowest number (smallest in terms of population) of adolescents, youth and young people (AYYP) live in Manang district of Nepal (1,129, 1,203 and 1,761 respectively) less than 0.01% of the total population of adolescents, youth and young people in Nepal.

Further analysis was undertaken to see whether there is a similarity in the percentage of adolescents, youths and young people among the 75 districts. Table 7.9 lists the top five districts with the highest numbers of adolescents, youth and young people in Nepal.

Table 7.9: Five districts with highest ratio of adolescents, youth and young population, Nepal, 2011

Adolescents		Youth		Young	
District	Percentage	District	Percentage	District	Percentage
Ramechhap	27.40	Kathmandu	24.99	Kailali	35.91
Khotang	26.82	Bhaktapur	22.96	Kanchanpur	35.67
Salyan	26.78	Kaski	22.94	Bardiya	35.60
Sindhuli	26.67	Lalitpur	22.55	Salyan	35.51
Kanchanpur	26.40	Chitwan	22.05	Dang	34.91
National Average 24.18%		National Average 19.97%		National Average 33.08	
Districts with more than national Average: 48		Districts with more than national Average: 30		Districts with more than national Average: 35	

The national average of adolescent youth and young people of the total population is about 24%, 20% and 33%. Based on this figure, 48 districts have more than the national average of adolescents, 30 districts have more than the national average of youth and 35 districts have more than the national average of young people. The ratio of adolescents, youth and young people differs from the national average by 3.22 percentage points in Ramechhap, 5.02 percentage points in Kathmandu for youth and 3.83 percentage points in Kailali for young people. This diversity and fluctuation requires further analysis in future censuses.

7.2.3 Districts with the lowest percentage of adolescents, youth and young population in Nepal are as follows.

Table 7.10: Five districts with lowest percentage of adolescent, youth and young population, Nepal, 2011

Adolescent		Youth		Young	
District	Percentage	District	Percentage	District	Percentage
Mustang	16.72	Mahottari	16.36	Mustang	24.99
Manang	17.27	Mustang	16.45	Manang	26.93
Lalitpur	20.74	Rautahat	16.81	Humla	29.75
Kathmandu	21.09	Siraha	16.98	Mahottari	30.13
Bhaktapur	21.40	Bajura	17.04	Saptari	30.32
National average: 24.18		National average: 19.97		National average: 33.08	
Districts with less than national average: 27		Districts with less than national average: 45		Districts with less than national average: 40	

More than a third of districts (27) have fewer adolescents than the national average. Sixty per cent of districts (45) have less youth than the national average and more than half of the districts (40) have less young people than the national average. The difference compared to the national average is as high as 7.46 percentage points for adolescents (Mustang), 3.61 percentage points for youth (Mahottari) and 8.09 percentage points for Mustang.

7.2.4 Literacy status of adolescents, youth and young people

The literacy status of adolescents, youth and young people shows previous efforts in the area of education in the country. The following tables and graphs show the literacy status of adolescents, youth and young population as recorded by the national census of Nepal 2011.

Table 7.11: Absolute number of adolescents, youth and young by literacy status and sex, Nepal 2011.

	Can read and write		Can read only		Can't read and write		Not reported	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Adolescents (10 - 19 yrs)	2969091	2823015	32492	38941	205279	336301	959	1326
Youth (15 - 24 Yrs)	2234745	2246814	26904	36619	224605	517842	918	1604
Young (10 - 24 Yrs)	3879722	3791554	47411	60740	323248	659099	1421	2280

This table shows the number of adolescents, youths and young people of Nepal who are can read and write as recorded by the national census of 2011. There is a visible difference (to a figure of more than 100,000) between females who can read and write compared to their male counterparts. Nearly double the number of males can read and write compared to females.

More than 90% of adolescents can read and write, while 8% cannot read and write. Among youths, this ratio is slightly different: 85% and 14% respectively. Young people reflect roughly the average between the two age groups: 88% and 11% respectively. It can be seen from the table that there has been a visible increase in literacy rates in young people over the last decade. Due to various factors, including language and geographical location, policy makers need to ensure that there is equitable access to education.

Table 7.12: Literacy status of adolescents, youth and young people, Nepal, 2011

Literacy status	Adolescents (10-19 yrs)		Youth (15-24 yrs)		Young (10-24 yrs)	
	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
Can read & write	5792106	90.4	4481559	84.7	7671276	87.5
Can read only	71433	1.1	63523	1.2	108151	1.2
Can't read and write	541580	8.5	742447	14.0	982347	11.2
Not Reported	2285	0	2522	0	3701	0
Total	6407404	100	5290051	100	8765475	100

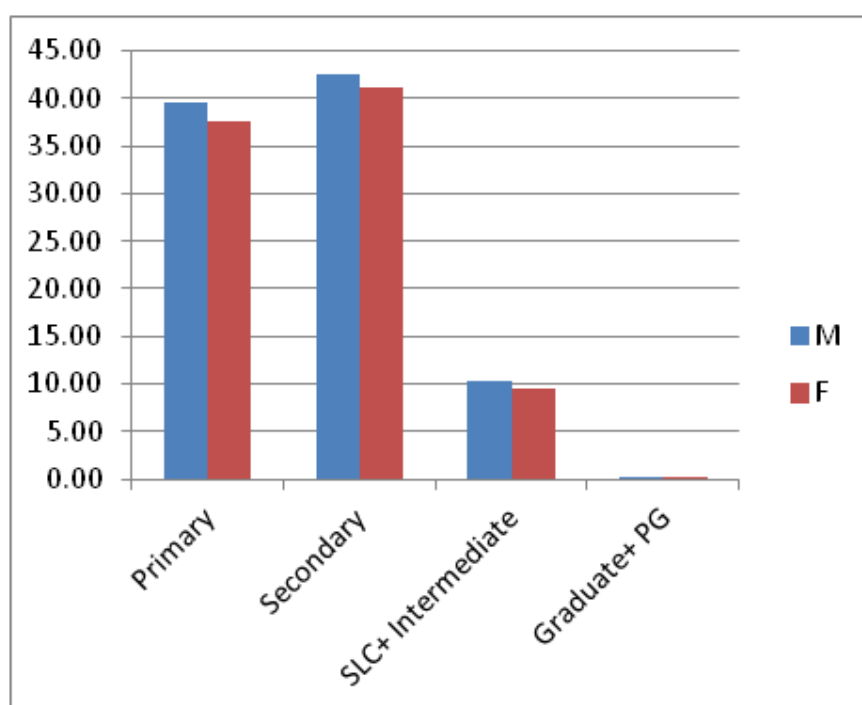
There is no substantial differences in level of education male and female adolescents. Nearly forty percent (40 %) of male adolescents and 38 percent of female have completed primary level of education. Similarly, 42 percent of male and 41 percent have completed secondary level respectively. The percentage of adolescents both male and female who have competed graduate level are very low, less than 1 percent. The table below shows the literacy rates for males and females.

Table 7.13: Number and percentage of adolescents having various levels of education

Level of education	Male		Female	
	No.	%	No.	%
Primary	1271010	39.62	1202783	37.59
Secondary	1362348	42.47	1315191	41.11
SLC+ Intermediate	333588	10.40	302625	9.46
Graduate + Post Graduate	8812	0.27	8474	0.26
Total	2975758	92.77	2829073	88.42

As seen from Table 7.13, literacy rates are almost 93% for adolescent boys compared to 88.4% of adolescent girls. The difference is 4.4% percentage points. In all categories of educational attainment, there are fewer girls than boys. However, it should be noted that in the graduate and post-graduate categories, the proportion is almost equal. The graph below further clarifies the fact.

Figure 7.4: Literacy status (in %)



A point to note in the table is that slightly more than 11% of adolescents have an education of SLC and above. More than 34% of youths have a formal education of SLC and higher whereas among the young population this percentage is 20% (Not shown in the table).

7.2.5 Marital status

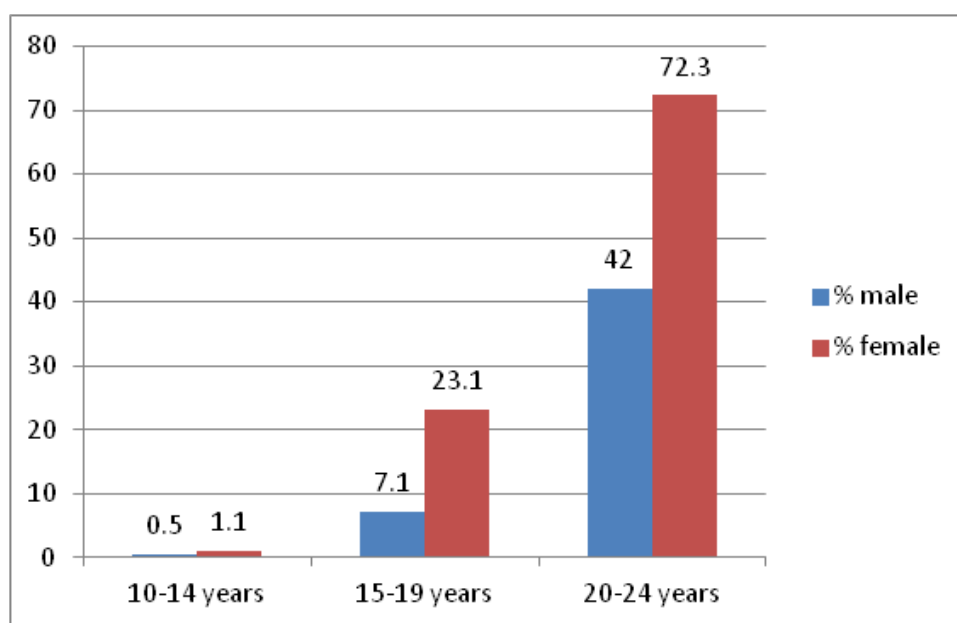
Nepal is a country with a tradition of high marriage rates. Marriage is considered almost universal in the Nepalese context. In the past, the tradition was marrying boys and girls off at an early age, so, it was rare to find any person who was not married after the age of 20 years. However, the law has restricted the marriage of children and legally allows marriage only after the age of 18 years for girls and 20 years for boys. From the data it is observed that these statutory provisions are gradually having an effect.

Table 7.14: Percentage of married young population in different age groups, 2011.

Age bracket	Male	Female
10-14 years	0.5	1.1
15-19 years	7.1	23.1
20-24 years	42	72.3

As seen from Table 7.14 above, child marriage is still a practice in Nepal. The percentage of persons marrying after 20 years is significant. As a cumulative figure, by the age of 24 almost 72% of males and 96% of females were married. The graph below shows the changes in married persons by different age groups.

Figure 7.5: Percentage of married young population in different age groups, 2011.



7.2.6 Engagement in activities

Adolescents and youth are age groups that explore career possibilities and set out their path for the future. The demand for higher levels of education and advanced skills puts pressure on adolescents to pursue higher education on one hand. While there is also pressure to enter the job market at the earliest possibility opportunity. The national census of Nepal 2011 looks into these aspects and the tables and graphs below detail the findings.

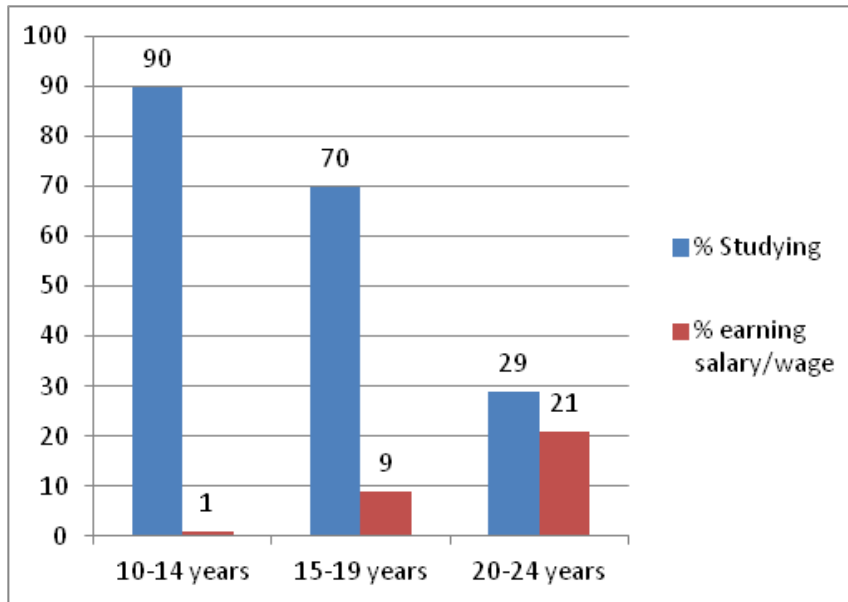
Table 7.15: Current status of engagement of young people by age bracket and major activities, Nepal 2011

Engaged in	10-14 years	15-19 years	20-24 years
	%	%	%
Study	90	70	29
Earning salary/wage	1	9	21
Seeking job	1	3	6

As seen in table 7.15 above, 90% of people in the age group 10-14 years are pursuing their studies. This ratio drops to 70% in the age group 15-19 years and sharply drops to 29% in the age group 20-24 years. In contrast,

although very gradually, engagement in work (depicted as earning a salary or wage) increases from 1% to 9% and 21% for the three age groups respectively. Similarly, 1%, 3% and 6% respectively are looking for job. The following figure illustrates the information given in the table.

Figure 7.6: Activities young people by major activities and age group, CBS, 2011



As seen in the graph above, there is a sharp decline in the ratio of study by the young population in different age groups. Earning a salary or wage increases very slowly compared to the decline in study. The percentage of those getting a salary/wage reaches a cumulative number of 31% by the age of 24 years. This means that by age 24 less than one third (31%) are earning a salary or wage. Another 29% are still studying. However 40% might be in search of employment, which is a significant number for this economically active population.

7. 2.7 Economic activity

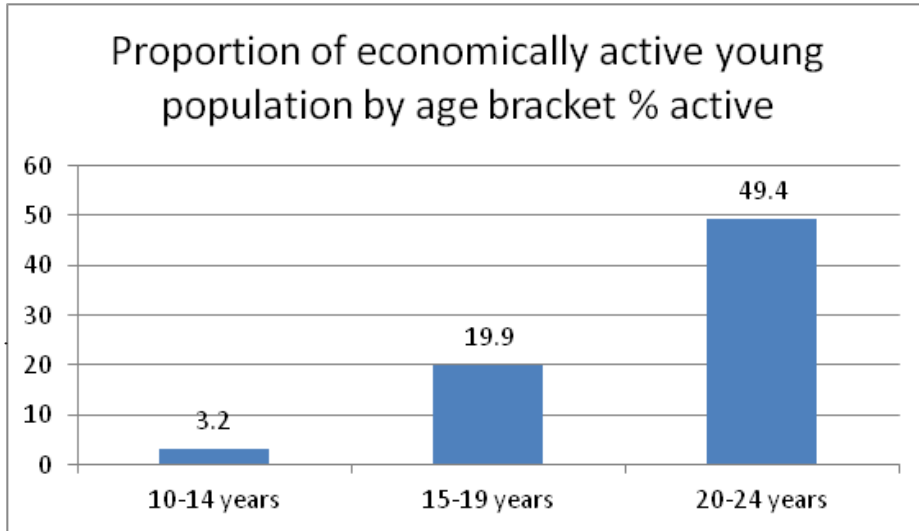
As adolescents and youth have the potential for economic activity, it is natural that their engagement in economic activity is observed. The census of 2011 collected information on the economic activity for different age groups. Data on the economically active young people for each age group is presented in Table 7.16.

Table 7.16: Percentage of economically active young people in various age groups.

Category	10-14 years	15-19 years	20-24 years
Percentage of economically active population	3.2	19.9	49.4

As seen from Table 7.16, economic activity seems to increase visibly with an increase in age. In the age group 10-14 only 3.2% are economically active, in the age group 15-19 it is almost 20% and in the age group 20-24 years it reaches almost 50%. The percentage of young people engaged in economic activity as a cumulative figure reaches 73% by 24 years. The figure below illustrates the economic activity of young people by various age groups.

Figure 7.7: Proportion of young people economically active by various age group.



7.3 Findings

The young population (10-24 years) make up almost one third of the total population of Nepal and are a major contributor in various walks of life.

Adolescents make up almost a quarter (24%) of the total population of Nepal. This proportion has been increasing in every intercensal period. It can be said that this provides Nepal with a population bonus or economic dividend, if placed and used correctly.

Changes have been observed in the pattern of adolescents, youth and young people of Nepal in the census of 2011. Compared with the Nepal Demographic Health Survey of 2011, the age group 15-19 years accounted for 21.7% of females and 23.7% of males of the total population. In India it was reported that 22.8% of the population were adolescents. In Bangladesh 22% of the population were adolescents. It therefore seems a sub-regional phenomenon.

The percentage of young people in India was reported to be 31%, slightly less than Nepal.

Comparing the educational status of Nepal with other countries of South Asia, it was seen that among girls of 15-19 years, 22% had no education compared to 7% of boys in the same age group.

Regarding marital status among adolescents in India, 27% of females were married compared to 3% of males. It is reported that one fifth of females marry before the age of fifteen and 33% of girls are married before the age of 20, compared to 25% among males by the age of 21, (which is the legal age at marriage in India).

In Bangladesh, it was reported that 63% of adolescent females were married compared to 3.7% of males, the median age at marriage being 15.7 years. The legal age at marriage in Bangladesh is 18 years.

In Pakistan, 58 %of rural women were married before the age of twenty-four compared to 28% in urban areas.

In Ethiopia, it was reported that 19% of adolescents were married by age 15, in Mali it was 24% and in Kenya it was 4%.

The World Health Organization has reported that in South East Asia, about 24% of women have children by the age of 18 years.

It is reported that 27% of adolescent females and 47% of adolescent male are employed.

7.4 Policy recommendations

1. This diversity and fluctuation of data on adolescents, youth and young people requires further observation in future censuses and there is a need for in-depth studies on employment and economic activity as well.
2. As there is a sharp decline in study over various age groups, job opportunities is another area that needs to be explored in conjunction with place of residence and working preference.
3. As seen from various tables, education for girls needs more emphasis. As observed from the sharp decline in educational attainment, efforts need to be made to retain girls in higher education.
4. Stopping marriage before the age of 20 years needs to be strictly enforced, keeping in mind its implications in terms of continuity of educational attainment, reproductive health and social prestige.
5. Although economic activity for young people might be considered satisfactory; the income source might be a limiting factor. So, further study in this area and policy dialogue is necessary.

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ADOLESCENTS YOUTH AND YOUNG POPULATION

Annex 7.1: Number of adolescents, youths and young people by district, Nepal, 2011

District	Adolescents (10 - 19 yrs)			Youth (15 - 24 Yrs)			Young (10 - 24 Yrs)		
	Both sex	Male	Female	Both sex	Male	Female	Both sex	Male	Female
Taplejung	33260	16366	16894	26292	12116	14176	43790	20792	22998
Panchthar	50389	24546	25843	40396	17877	22519	66777	31054	35723
Ilam	69606	34553	35053	61707	28524	33183	96832	46356	50476
Jhapa	182430	89927	92503	160515	71379	89136	255235	119316	135919
Morang	222079	111970	110109	192290	90531	101759	308214	149653	158561
Sunsari	180281	91374	88907	155188	73708	81480	250972	122739	128233
Dhankuta	38921	19166	19755	33469	15061	18408	53393	25044	28349
Terhathum	25152	12263	12889	20911	9298	11613	33805	15701	18104
Sankhuwasabha	39121	19215	19906	30972	13963	17009	51936	24368	27568
Bhojpur	46092	22469	23623	36600	16140	20460	60500	28087	32413
Solukhumbu	26764	13219	13545	21427	9935	11492	35411	17032	18379
Okhaldhunga	39045	18675	20370	28909	12441	16468	49972	22832	27140
Khotang	55328	27137	28191	41394	18520	22874	70865	33363	37502
Udayapur	83740	40843	42897	64034	27785	36249	109904	51069	58835
Saptari	145237	72807	72430	110395	52468	57927	193821	94361	99460
Siraha	147692	76033	71659	108197	52026	56171	195852	97015	98837
Dhanusa	178721	93861	84860	135950	70397	65553	240506	123993	116513
Mahottari	143632	75177	68455	102673	52080	50593	189120	96323	92797
Sarlahi	179599	93867	85732	131967	66892	65075	237178	121211	115967
Sindhuli	79007	38421	40586	57045	25321	31724	101650	47684	53966
Ramechhap	55521	26090	29431	40268	17305	22963	70511	32068	38443
Dolakha	48254	23374	24880	35744	15807	19937	61825	28854	32971
Sindhupalchok	71039	34610	36429	54573	25185	29388	93270	44438	48832
Kavrepalanchok	97605	47541	50064	80920	37065	43855	131845	62669	69176
Lalitpur	97072	50736	46336	105574	54704	50870	150972	78232	72740
Bhaktapur	65185	34408	30777	69955	35788	34167	101346	52409	48937
Kathmandu	367853	198300	169553	435968	232870	203098	601647	320336	281311
Nuwakot	70870	34006	36864	56659	25598	31061	94005	44028	49977
Rasuwa	10555	5150	5405	7661	3611	4050	13695	6570	7125
Dhading	86056	40964	45092	65956	28200	37756	112712	51381	61331
Makwanpur	104914	51585	53329	87165	40611	46554	143795	69233	74562
Rautahat	156281	81604	74677	115461	59294	56167	208634	107287	101347
Bara	157795	82895	74900	121269	61979	59290	212498	109214	103284
Parsa	133042	71044	61998	108864	57788	51076	184374	97050	87324
Chitawan	140319	70772	69547	127870	60623	67247	199594	97379	102215
Gorkha	68562	32593	35969	50350	20654	29696	87577	39020	48557
Lamjung	40273	19695	20578	31168	13463	17705	52850	24275	28575
Tanahu	81920	39451	42469	64194	26875	37319	108411	48947	59464
Syangja	73427	35301	38126	57306	23834	33472	96299	43307	52992

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District	Adolescents (10 - 19 yrs)			Youth (15 - 24 Yrs)			Young (10 - 24 Yrs)		
	Both sex	Male	Female	Both sex	Male	Female	Both sex	Male	Female
Kaski	117336	60807	56529	112890	55766	57124	170933	85834	85099
Manang	1129	588	541	1203	689	514	1761	955	806
Mustang	2249	1116	1133	2213	1101	1112	3361	1680	1681
Myagdi	27088	13128	13960	21520	9258	12262	36186	16594	19592
Parbat	37004	18010	18994	29553	12501	17052	48930	22219	26711
Baglung	67879	32076	35803	53789	21426	32363	90467	39652	50815
Gulmi	72817	33620	39197	52988	19778	33210	93357	39700	53657
Palpa	67515	32311	35204	53880	21993	31887	89699	40066	49633
Nawalparasi	160442	79112	81330	133546	60210	73336	219142	103383	115759
Rupandehi	218201	111407	106794	185430	89800	95630	301473	149089	152384
Kapilbastu	139817	71124	68693	109633	52873	56760	187267	92894	94373
Arghakhanchi	50118	22824	27294	36757	13404	23353	65010	27372	37638
Pyuthan	59066	26989	32077	40877	15052	25825	75809	32320	43489
Rolpa	57144	27009	30135	42561	17558	25003	75501	33899	41602
Rukum	54856	26218	28638	41383	18289	23094	72769	33794	38975
Salyan	64922	31336	33586	49509	22291	27218	86089	40390	45699
Dang	143026	69028	73998	115450	50124	65326	192886	89173	103713
Banke	122436	62135	60301	103214	49718	53496	169114	83753	85361
Bardiya	112084	54689	57395	92882	41830	51052	151871	71531	80340
Surkhet	88383	43756	44627	72865	33533	39332	121690	58428	63262
Dailekh	67325	32986	34339	50788	23515	27273	88720	42445	46275
Jajarkot	41928	20585	21343	31698	15143	16555	56032	27274	28758
Dolpa	7967	3775	4192	6535	3076	3459	11144	5268	5876
Jumla	25848	12820	13028	21447	10368	11079	35872	17667	18205
Kalikot	32800	16454	16346	24879	12076	12803	43965	21742	22223
Mugu	12514	6237	6277	9895	4798	5097	17082	8433	8649
Humla	10953	5621	5332	8791	4298	4493	15130	7590	7540
Bajura	33177	16409	16768	22983	10843	12140	42587	20634	21953
Bajhang	48782	24171	24611	34490	16091	18399	63366	30536	32830
Achham	65822	31618	34204	46449	20664	25785	85145	39874	45271
Doti	51199	24338	26861	38020	16331	21689	68243	31384	36859
Kailali	202152	100784	101368	170094	79224	90870	278556	134930	143626
Kanchanpur	119141	58843	60298	96019	43139	52880	160971	76321	84650
Dadeldhura	36571	17568	19003	27209	11673	15536	48250	22183	26067
Baitadi	62669	30451	32218	46988	20412	26576	82564	38162	44402
Darchula	32405	15870	16535	24367	10611	13756	42940	19943	22997
Total	6407404	3207821	3199583	5290051	2487172	2802879	8765475	4251802	4513673

Annex 7.2: Percentage distribution of adolescents, youth and young population by districts, Nepal, 2011.

District	Adolescents (10-19 yrs)			Youth (15-24 yrs)			Young (10-24 yrs)		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Nepal	24.18	24.97	23.45	19.97	19.36	20.54	33.08	33.09	33.08
Taplejung	26.09	27.03	25.25	20.63	20.01	21.19	34.36	34.34	34.37
Panchthar	26.27	27.22	25.43	21.06	19.82	22.16	34.81	34.43	35.15
Ilam	23.98	24.48	23.51	21.26	20.21	22.25	33.36	32.85	33.85
Jhapa	22.45	23.35	21.64	19.75	18.54	20.85	31.41	30.98	31.79
Morang	23.00	23.99	22.08	19.92	19.40	20.41	31.93	32.07	31.80
Sunsari	23.61	24.61	22.67	20.33	19.86	20.77	32.87	33.06	32.69
Dhankuta	23.82	25.05	22.73	20.48	19.68	21.18	32.67	32.73	32.62
Terhathum	24.76	26.01	23.68	20.59	19.72	21.34	33.28	33.30	33.26
Sankhuwasabha	24.64	25.54	23.83	19.51	18.56	20.37	32.72	32.39	33.01
Bhojpur	25.26	26.11	24.50	20.06	18.76	21.22	33.16	32.64	33.62
Solukhumbu	25.28	25.82	24.77	20.24	19.40	21.01	33.44	33.27	33.61
Okhaldhunga	26.38	27.19	25.69	19.54	18.11	20.77	33.77	33.24	34.23
Khotang	26.82	27.95	25.81	20.06	19.07	20.94	34.35	34.36	34.34
Udayapur	26.37	27.28	25.56	20.17	18.56	21.60	34.61	34.11	35.06
Saptari	22.72	23.20	22.26	17.27	16.72	17.80	30.32	30.07	30.56
Siraha	23.17	24.52	21.90	16.98	16.78	17.17	30.73	31.28	30.20
Dhanusa	23.68	24.80	22.55	18.01	18.60	17.42	31.86	32.76	30.97
Mahottari	22.89	24.17	21.62	16.36	16.75	15.98	30.13	30.97	29.31
Sarlahi	23.33	24.08	22.56	17.14	17.16	17.13	30.81	31.10	30.52
Sindhuli	26.67	27.03	26.34	19.26	17.82	20.59	34.32	33.55	35.03
Ramechhap	27.40	27.94	26.94	19.87	18.53	21.02	34.80	34.34	35.18
Dolakha	25.87	26.87	24.99	19.16	18.17	20.03	33.14	33.16	33.12
Sindhupalchok	24.68	25.02	24.38	18.96	18.20	19.66	32.41	32.12	32.68
Kavrepalanchok	25.56	25.99	25.16	21.19	20.26	22.04	34.52	34.26	34.76
Lalitpur	20.74	21.31	20.14	22.55	22.98	22.11	32.25	32.86	31.62
Bhaktapur	21.40	22.22	20.55	22.96	23.11	22.81	33.27	33.84	32.68
Kathmandu	21.09	21.72	20.40	24.99	25.51	24.43	34.49	35.09	33.84
Nuwakot	25.54	25.61	25.48	20.42	19.28	21.47	33.88	33.16	34.54
Rasuwa	24.38	23.98	24.77	17.69	16.81	18.56	31.63	30.59	32.65
Dhading	25.61	25.95	25.30	19.63	17.87	21.18	33.54	32.55	34.41
Makwanpur	24.95	24.96	24.94	20.73	19.65	21.78	34.20	33.50	34.88
Rautahat	22.76	23.24	22.25	16.81	16.89	16.73	30.38	30.56	30.19
Bara	22.95	23.60	22.26	17.63	17.65	17.62	30.90	31.09	30.70
Parsa	22.14	22.74	21.48	18.11	18.50	17.69	30.68	31.07	30.25
Chitawan	24.19	25.36	23.11	22.05	21.72	22.35	34.41	34.89	33.97
Gorkha	25.29	26.93	23.98	18.58	17.06	19.79	32.31	32.24	32.37
Lamjung	24.01	25.94	22.41	18.58	17.73	19.28	31.51	31.98	31.12
Tanahu	25.34	27.51	23.61	19.86	18.74	20.75	33.53	34.13	33.06

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District	Adolescents (10-19 yrs)			Youth (15-24 yrs)			Young (10-24 yrs)		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Syangja	25.39	28.05	23.35	19.82	18.94	20.50	33.30	34.42	32.45
Kaski	23.84	25.72	22.11	22.94	23.59	22.34	34.74	36.31	33.28
Manang	17.27	16.06	18.80	18.40	18.82	17.87	26.93	26.09	28.02
Mustang	16.72	15.73	17.82	16.45	15.52	17.49	24.99	23.69	26.43
Myagdi	23.84	25.54	22.43	18.94	18.01	19.70	31.84	32.29	31.48
Parbat	25.24	27.58	23.37	20.16	19.14	20.98	33.38	34.03	32.86
Baglung	25.27	27.18	23.77	20.02	18.16	21.49	33.68	33.60	33.74
Gulmi	25.99	27.79	24.63	18.91	16.35	20.87	33.32	32.81	33.71
Palpa	25.85	27.89	24.22	20.63	18.99	21.94	34.34	34.59	34.15
Nawalparasi	24.93	26.05	23.93	20.75	19.83	21.58	34.05	34.04	34.06
Rupandehi	24.79	25.78	23.84	21.07	20.78	21.35	34.25	34.50	34.01
Kapilbastu	24.45	24.90	23.99	19.17	18.51	19.82	32.74	32.53	32.96
Arghakhanchi	25.36	26.46	24.51	18.60	15.54	20.97	32.89	31.73	33.80
Pyuthan	25.89	26.97	25.05	17.92	15.04	20.17	33.23	32.30	33.96
Rolpa	25.45	26.20	24.82	18.96	17.03	20.59	33.63	32.88	34.27
Rukum	26.30	26.44	26.18	19.84	18.44	21.11	34.89	34.08	35.62
Salyan	26.78	27.02	26.56	20.42	19.22	21.52	35.51	34.83	36.13
Dang	25.88	26.44	25.38	20.89	19.20	22.41	34.91	34.16	35.58
Banke	24.92	25.44	24.41	21.01	20.35	21.65	34.42	34.29	34.55
Bardiya	26.28	26.67	25.91	21.77	20.40	23.05	35.60	34.88	36.27
Surkhet	25.19	25.83	24.60	20.77	19.79	21.68	34.69	34.49	34.88
Dailekh	25.72	25.98	25.48	19.40	18.52	20.24	33.89	33.42	34.33
Jajarkot	24.48	24.07	24.88	18.50	17.70	19.30	32.71	31.89	33.53
Dolpa	21.71	20.70	22.71	17.81	16.87	18.74	30.37	28.88	31.83
Jumla	23.73	23.35	24.12	19.69	18.89	20.51	32.93	32.18	33.70
Kalikot	23.95	23.90	24.00	18.17	17.54	18.80	32.10	31.59	32.63
Mugu	22.64	22.26	23.03	17.90	17.12	18.70	30.90	30.09	31.73
Humla	21.54	21.76	21.31	17.29	16.64	17.95	29.75	29.38	30.13
Bajura	24.59	24.94	24.26	17.04	16.48	17.57	31.57	31.36	31.77
Bajhang	25.00	26.05	24.04	17.67	17.34	17.97	32.47	32.91	32.07
Achham	25.56	26.35	24.88	18.04	17.22	18.76	33.07	33.23	32.93
Doti	24.18	25.03	23.46	17.96	16.79	18.94	32.23	32.27	32.19
Kailali	26.06	26.63	25.51	21.93	20.94	22.87	35.91	35.66	36.15
Kanchanpur	26.40	27.24	25.64	21.28	19.97	22.48	35.67	35.33	35.99
Dadeldhura	25.74	26.40	25.16	19.15	17.54	20.57	33.96	33.33	34.51
Baitadi	24.98	25.94	24.13	18.73	17.39	19.91	32.91	32.50	33.26
Darchula	24.31	24.95	23.73	18.28	16.68	19.74	32.22	31.35	33.01

Annex 7.3: Data on number of adolescents, youth and young people by level of education and sex

Level of education	Adolescents (10 - 19 yrs)		Youth (15 - 24 Yrs)		Young (10 - 24 Yrs)	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Nursery	15,704	12,905	2,425	3,214	16,649	14,579
Primary (1-5)	1,244,875	1,174,396	344,782	378,339	1,396,498	1,354,044
Lower Sec. (6-8)	943,940	912,438	580,820	588,369	1,111,902	1,095,829
Secondary(9-10)	418,408	402,753	486,825	488,214	534,934	537,550
SLC	261,567	236,485	444,258	424,228	446,729	426,634
Intermediate or equiv.	72,021	66,140	278,822	254,453	278,822	254,453
Graduate or equiv.	5,702	5,317	66,220	57,680	66,220	57,680
Post Graduate or equiv.			6,252	5,479	6,252	5,479
Others	3,110	3,157	2,041	2,147	4,034	4,181
Non-formal education	10,431	15,482	16,892	39,466	21,153	44,007
Not Stated	5,240	5,111	6,108	6,031	8,558	8,530

CHAPTER 8

CHILD POPULATION

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Abstract

This chapter aims to ascertain the status of socio-demographic and socio-economic characteristics of Nepalese children based on the data provided by the National Population census of 2011. Also, trends on these characteristics will be examined through analysis of data revealed from past censuses. Data used for the analysis has been directly cross tabulated from census tables and secondary sources are also used for trend analysis as required. As census data were not available on some important characteristics of children such as school enrolment, health status, periodic reports of the concerned ministries or departments were used as data source.

Nepal's child population aged 14 and below is 34.9%, children aged 16 years and below make up 39.8% of the population and the population aged 18 and below is 44.4% of the total population. Despite various legislative and programmatic measures to promote and ensure the rights of children, they are still facing many problems that lead to uncertainty and vulnerabilities in their lives. Besides this there are some optimistic observations as well. Overall, this study has revealed some mixed results on the status of Nepalese Children and concluded that the situation of children is improving gradually in the country. Significant achievements have been made so far in all areas of interventions, particularly in legislation reform, the planning process, institutional development, child health, education, as well as advocacy and awareness activities in these areas. The vulnerability of children due to poverty, remoteness and effects of armed conflict is increasing. There is an urgent need to take necessary steps to address these problems. The effective implementation of existing plans of actions related to children, with continuous monitoring procedures, is suggested. Moreover, the formulation and implementation of a national master plan for the effective implementation of 'National Child Policy, 2012' is strongly recommended.

8.1 Background

A child is defined as a young human being below the age of puberty or below the legal age of the majority. A child is a minor or an individual who is not yet an adult or who has not attained the age of the majority. According to the Wikipedia, «A child is any human being below the age of eighteen years, unless under the law applicable to the child, the majority is attained earlier». (Child Right, n,d).

Children have been considered as <the future> of a nation for a long time and this view is still intact in society. In addition, children are the most loved members of the family, and people make all possible efforts to care for the overall development of children in their family. Children are not only the respon-

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sibility of their family but also society, community, local government, and the nation as a whole, all of whom have to pay attention in protecting and promoting child rights within their respective dominions. Plans and programmes need to be implemented that meet the basic requirements of children at the level and capacity of each of these respective organisations/institutions. In the context of Nepalese children, the basic requirements are their health, security, nutrition, love and respect, care, education, entertainment, appropriate protection etc.; that are basic rights of every child. Ensuring these basic requirements are met in a sustainable way helps children to enjoy and improve their fundamental rights. The Government of Nepal is endeavoring to maintain and promote child rights independently and in association with NGOs, civil societies and development partners.

Children are the future of the nation. Children of today will become nation builders in the future through their varied capabilities. Proper education, care and opportunities given to children today will determine the future leadership of the country. As children are immature, they are dependent on others for their care. They do not know what is right or wrong for them. As a result, they are vulnerable to various kinds of abuse. Children require proper care and attention by others, mainly adult members of the family, society and the State. The primary responsibility for their nurture, care, development and protection rests with parents and guardians. Likewise, it is the responsibility of all concerned persons to make a child an able citizen by providing him or her with appropriate care, nurture, education and protecting his or her rights before and after his or her birth.

Against this background an attempt has been made to measure the status of children based on the Population Census results. A single or couple of factors are not adequate to measure the status of children. Multidimensional variables and cross-cutting approaches are required to indicate the status of children. Geographical distribution, socio-demographic and socio-economic characteristics, policy initiatives, and problems faced by children are taken as the basis to measure the status of children in this chapter.

8.2 Definitions of children in the context of Nepal

The Children's Act, 1992 (An act for the wellbeing of children) of Nepal defines 'children' as those who have not attained the age of sixteen, which is the legal basis and standard for differentiating a child from an adult. However, different acts and rules of the country have stipulated the maximum age of a child according to the purpose of specific acts or rules, which is discussed later in this chapter. The legal age to reach the majority for a person is 16 years and children are legally considered as persons of age 16 and below. The Government of Nepal is in the process of implementing a new children's act, by which the Act Related to Children, 1992 will be replaced, in which the legal age for a child will be increased to 18 years of age to meet the requirement of the provision made in the United Nation's Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), 1989.

There is no uniform or globally accepted definition for the age of a child, it differs from country to country. Article 1 of the United Nation's Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), 1989 mentions that 'for the purposes of the present Convention, a child means every human being below the age of eighteen years unless under the law applicable to the child, majority is attained earlier'. Almost all countries of the world have ratified this convention, have become state parties to this convention and expressed their commitment to adopt this convention in their respected countries; hence it can be said that the age of 18 years or below is the globally accepted age for a child. It is also notable that the provisions made in the CRC are mandatory to Nepal according to the 'Treaty Law' to which Nepal is a state

party. Section 9 (1) of Nepal Treaty Act 1990 states that ‘if any provision contained in a treaty to which the State of Nepal or Government of Nepal has become a party following its ratification, acceptance, approval or accession by Parliament is inconsistent with the law in force, such law shall, for purposes of that treaty, be invalid to the extent of such inconsistency and the provision of that treaty shall be applicable as if it were the law of Nepal’.

There are variations in the age of children specified by different laws. Considering the age of children in various legislation, the Initial Report of Nepal to the CRC, submitted to the United Nation’s CRC Committee in 1995, under the heading of ‘Attainment of majority’, says that: “Section 2 (A) of the Children’s Act (1992) states that every human being below the age of 16 is a child, whereas the Labour Act (1992) puts the age of a child at 14 years. The Nepal Citizenship Act (1963) considers a person below 16 to be a minor. The Begging (Prohibition) Act (1962) states that a person, who is below the age of 16, is a child. Similarly, the Insurance Act (1993), the Evidence Act (1974), the Post Office Saving Bank Regulation (1976), and the Contract Act (1966) all consider persons below the of 16 as a child. The Small Pox Control Act (1963) defines a person below 12 as a child”. However, Nepal’s Third, Fourth and Fifth combined Periodic report to CRC has stated the following regarding the age and definition of children:

The 1992 Children’s Act is the basic law that takes care of matters relating to children. Children below 10 years of age are immune from criminal and civil liabilities and depending upon the offence there is a provision of penalty for children between 10-14 years of age. Similarly, it provides half of the penalty that is given to an adult for the same offence for children between 14-16 years of age. Various legislations have variations of age in defining a child. The Government of Nepal (GoN) has drafted a new Bill on “Act Concerning Children” to replace the 1992 Children’s Act with the provision of defining a child as a person below the age of 18 years. This definition of a child has been made under various legislation and policy documents as revealed in the following:

- The 2007 Human Trafficking (Control) Act defines “child” as a person below the age of 18 years.
- The Tobacco Control and Regulation Act defines the age of a child as less than 18 years.
- The legal age of marriage for boys and girls is 18 years with the consent of parents/guardians and 20 years without such consent.
- The Child Friendly Local Governance (CFLG) strategic framework of the Ministry of Federal Affairs and Local Development (MoFALD) defines the age of a child as below 18 years.

Regardless of the definition of child mentioned here, this chapter focuses on the children of age 14 and below to avoid repetition and/or inconsistency with other relevant chapters included in this monograph. However, the size of children up to age 18 has also been mentioned along with the total population of the country as revealed by the National Population Census, 2011.

8.3 The size and distribution of child population

8.3.1 General trend

Before analysing child population and its distribution, it is useful to compare the size and distribution of the child population against the total population of the country. The total population of Nepal as of the census day (June 22, 2011) stands at 26,494,504 with 12,849,041 males and 13,645,463 females. The total number of households is 5,423,297. The increment of population during the last decade is recorded as 3,343,081 with an annual average growth rate of 1.35%. Regarding geographical/ecological distribution, the Tarai region has 50.27% (13,318,705) of the total population while Hill and Mountain regions have 43% (11,394,007) and 6.73% (1,781,792) respectively. The sex ratio (number of males per 100 females) at the national level has decreased from 99.8 in 2001 to 94.2 in 2011. In absolute number, there are 796,422 more females than males in the country (CBS, 2011).

According to the data revealed by the Population Census 2011, a total of 9,248,246 persons are children of age 14 and below which corresponds to 34.9% of the total population. Of them, 17.8% are males and 17.1% are females in comparison to the total population. The number of children aged 16 years and below is 10,546,863, which is 39.8%, (20.2% of males and 19.6% of females) against the total population of the country. Considering the age 18 and below as children, the total number of children is 11,767,935, which is 44.4% of the total population, 22.5% males and 21.9% females (See Table 8.1 and Annex Table 8.1, 8.2 and 8.3).

Table 8.1: Percent of child population 0-14 years, 1952/54-2011.

Census year	Total population	Child population						Annual growth rate	
		Total		Male		Female		Total population	Child population
		Number	Per-cent	Number	Per-cent	Number	Per-cent		
1952/54	8,256,625	3,165,645	38.4	1,616,125	39.9	1,549,520	37	-	-
1961	9,412,996	3,753,065	39.9	1,911,276	41.2	1,841,789	36.8	1.31	1.70
1971	11,555,983	4,674,578	40.4	2,379,422	40.9	2,295,156	40.0	2.05	2.20
1981	15,022,839	6,211,972	41.4	3,227,012	41.9	2,984,960	40.7	2.62	2.84
1991	18,491,097	7,840,771	42.4	4,011,293	43.5	3,829,478	41.3	2.08	2.33
2001	23,151,423	8,948,587	39.4	4,562,608	40.1	4,385,979	38.5	2.25	1.32
2011	26,494,504	9,248,246	34.9	4,714,763	36.7	4,533,483	33.2	1.35	0.33

Source: *Population Census 1952/54, Table 6*
Population Census 1961, Vol. 2, Table 1
Population Census 1971, General Tables, Table 6
Population Census 1981, Vol. I Part I, Table 4
Population Census 1991, Vol. IV, Table 4
Population Census 2001, Vol. I, National Report, Table 9
Population Census 2011, National Report I, Table 15

Table 8.1 shows the number and percentage of the child population for each population census since 1952/54 to 2011. Although there is a continuous increase in the number of the child population over the census years since 1952/54, the proportional change of this population is observed as incremental up to the census year of 1991, with a continuous decline after this. The percentage decrease in 2011 against previous censuses appears more significant with 39.4% in 2001 compared to 34.9% in 2011. This indicates that the trend of total fertility rate (TFR) is declining faster than in recent years. Data on annual population growth rate and annual child population growth rate have also confirmed this trend which were 1.35% and 0.33% in 2011 compared to 2.25% and 1.32% in 2001 respectively. (See Figure 8.1).

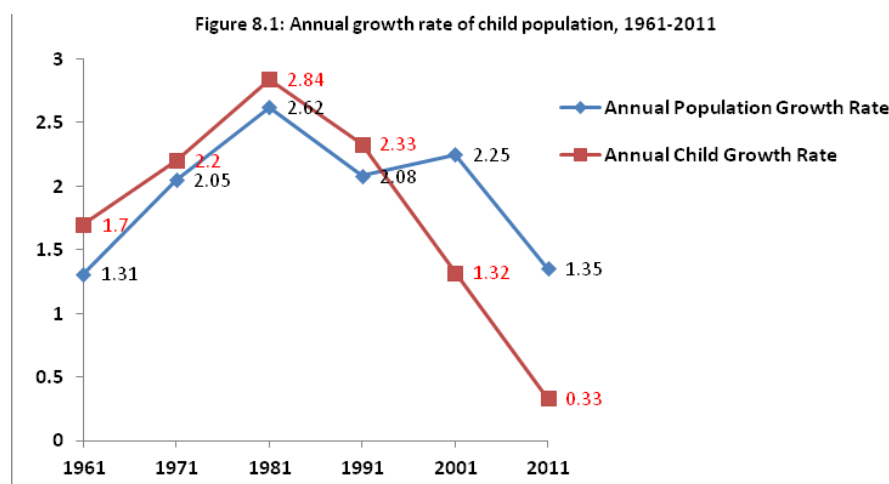
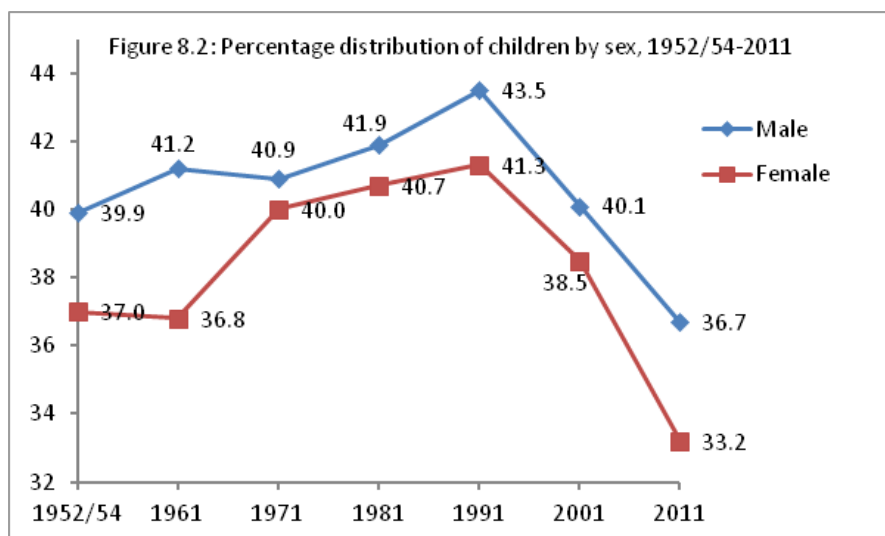


Table 8.2: Percent distribution of child population 0-14 years, 1952/54-2011.

Census year	Sex and age group								
	Both sex			Male			Female		
	0-4	5-9	10-14	0-4	5-9	10-14	0-4	5-9	10-14
1952/54	34.4	36.1	29.5	33.4	35.9	30.7	35.4	36.3	28.2
1961	35.6	36.1	28.2	34.5	36.0	29.5	36.8	36.3	27.0
1971	34.9	37.3	27.7	33.2	37.2	29.5	36.7	37.4	25.9
1981	37.3	34.6	30.7	36.8	34.2	30.6	37.7	34.9	30.9
1991	34.6	35.8	29.6	34.2	35.6	30.2	34.9	35.9	29.2
2001	30.8	35.9	33.4	30.6	35.8	33.6	30.9	35.9	33.2
2011	27.8	34.6	37.6	27.9	34.7	37.4	27.6	34.6	37.7

Source: Same as Table 8.1

Table 8.2 shows the percentage distribution of the cohort of children in the five year age group for each census year since 1952/54. It is important to note that the proportionate change in the population of children varies with the age group. In the 0-4 age group, the percentage of the population is exceptionally high at 37.3% in 1981, after which a continuous decline is observed, whereas a reversed trend is observed in the age group of 10-14 with a continuous increase since 1971. For the age group 5-9 there is no significant change over the census years. Almost a similar trend is observed among these age groups in both sexes as well. This trend signifies that the TFR in recent years has declined and this might be the positive effect of an increase in family planning methods. It could also be the consequence of the empowerment of women to regulate their fertility; supported by their access to contraceptives.



8.3.2 Distribution of children by ecological region

Table 8.3 shows the distribution of the child population aged 0-14 years by sex for different ecological regions and the Kathmandu valley. The table shows that the Central Tarai region has the highest prevalence of child population followed by Eastern Tarai and Western Hill regions. Mountain region has the lowest child population with the lowest distribution in Western Mountain region. Kathmandu valley has a moderate distribution of child population throughout the census years since 1981. This indicates the ecological impact on population growth.

Table 8.3: Percent distribution of child population 0-14 years by ecological region, 1981-2011.

Ecological region	Census year											
	1981			1991			2001			2011		
	Both sexes	Male	Fe-male	Both sexes	Male	Fe-male	Both sexes	Male	Fe-male	Both sexes	Male	Fe-male
Eastern Mountain	2.17	2.14	2.20	1.92	1.89	1.96	1.79	1.77	1.81	1.52	1.49	1.54
Central Mountain	2.53	2.50	2.56	2.46	2.46	2.46	2.23	2.19	2.26	1.86	1.82	1.90
Western Mountain	0.11	0.10	0.11	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.05	0.05	0.05
Mid-Western Mountain	1.49	1.51	1.46	1.35	1.34	1.36	0.81	0.80	0.81	1.80	1.77	1.82
Far-Western Mountain	1.86	1.88	1.84	1.80	1.78	1.82	1.86	1.85	1.87	2.15	2.13	2.17
Eastern Hill	8.34	8.13	8.56	7.79	7.69	7.90	7.33	7.26	7.40	5.95	5.88	6.02
Central Hill	8.83	8.74	8.92	8.64	8.58	8.71	8.61	8.50	8.72	7.05	6.97	7.14
Western Hill	14.14	14.10	14.17	13.37	13.22	13.54	12.43	12.29	12.59	10.17	10.14	10.21
Mid-Western Hill	7.10	7.03	7.17	6.98	6.85	7.11	6.25	6.17	6.34	7.57	7.48	7.67
Far-Western Hill	3.82	3.86	3.78	3.74	3.72	3.77	3.81	3.78	3.84	3.97	3.92	4.01
Eastern Tarai	14.46	14.39	14.53	14.06	14.16	13.96	13.61	13.68	13.54	13.83	13.84	13.82
Central Tarai	15.98	16.19	15.76	16.17	16.62	15.71	17.68	17.99	17.36	19.21	19.30	19.20

Ecological region	Census year											
	1981			1991			2001			2011		
	Both sexes	Male	Fe-male	Both sexes	Male	Fe-male	Both sexes	Male	Fe-male	Both sexes	Male	Fe-male
Western Tarai	6.37	6.43	6.29	7.26	7.28	7.23	7.87	7.92	7.81	7.92	7.98	7.86
Mid-Western Tarai	4.84	4.78	4.91	5.33	5.29	5.38	5.69	5.68	5.70	5.66	5.66	5.67
Far-Western Tarai	3.17	3.28	3.04	4.02	4.01	4.04	4.69	4.71	4.67	4.79	4.84	4.75
Kathmandu Valley	4.81	4.94	4.67	5.00	5.04	4.96	5.26	5.32	5.21	6.51	6.76	6.25
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Same as Table 8.1

8.3.3 Urban rural distribution of children

Table 8.4 shows the figures on rural-urban distribution of the child population for the census years since 1981. Based on these numbers the following tables have been formed to understand the proportionate distribution and trends of child population by sex for rural and urban settings. Table 8.4 shows that there is a continuous reverse change in the proportion of urban and rural child population. In other words, the child population in urban area is an incremental trend whereas there is a reverse trend in the rural population. In 1981 the urban-rural distribution of the child population was 6% and 94% respectively. In the years since, the urban child population has increased gradually and reached almost 14% in 2011. On the contrary, the rural distribution of the child population appears to be a diminishing trend, falling to slightly more than 86 % in 2011. Increasing urbanisation in formerly rural setups and the increasing trend of people migrating to urban cities may be the reason behind this change.

Table 8.4: Percentage distribution child population (0-14) by urban/rural residence, 1981-2011

Census year	Total	Urban		Rural	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1981	6,211,972	374,203	6.0	5,837,769	94.0
1991	7,840,771	632,695	8.1	7,208,076	91.9
2001	8,948,587	1,067,276	11.9	7,881,311	88.1
2011	9,248,246	1,265,839	13.7	7,982,407	86.3

Source: CBS, Population census 1981, Vol. III Table 15

CBS, Population census 1991, Vol. II Table 4

CBS, Population census 2001, Selected Urban Tables, Table 2

CBS, Population census 2011, National Report Table 15

Table 8.5: Distribution of Urban Rural child population (0-14) by sex over the census years 1981-2011

Census year	Total child Population	Urban			Rural		
		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1981	6,211,972	3,227,012	6.1	5.9	2,984,960	93.9	94.1
1991	7,840,771	4,011,293	8.2	7.9	3,829,478	91.8	92.1
2001	8,948,587	4,562,608	12.0	11.8	4,385,979	88.0	88.2
2011	9,248,246	4,714,763	14.1	13.2	4,533,483	85.9	86.8

Table 8.5 provided the sex ratio of the child population along urban-rural distribution. It can be observed that the sex ratio of the child population is almost parallel in both rural and urban areas in each census (1981 to 2011) year, with a slightly lower proportion of female children. Likewise, the proportionate distribution and trend of change in sex-wise child population is also steady and more or less identical in both areas. However, in the census of 2011 the proportion of female children in rural areas is higher by almost 1 percentage point and the proportion of female children in urban areas is lower by almost 1 percentage point. It is indicative of more female children being left behind in rural areas.

8.4 Socio-demographic characteristics of children

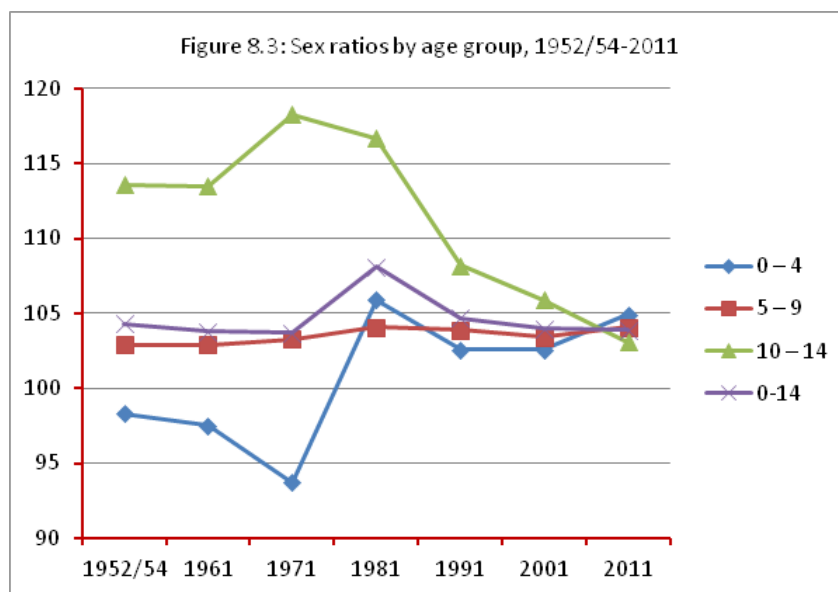
8.4.1 Age-specific sex ratio

Table 8.6: Age-Specific sex ratios by five years age group, Nepal, 1952/54-2011.

Age group	Census year						
	1952/54	1961	1971	1981	1991	2001	2011
00 – 04	98.3	97.5	93.7	105.9	102.6	102.6	104.9
05 – 09	102.9	102.9	103.3	104.1	103.9	103.4	104.1
10 – 14	113.6	113.5	118.3	116.7	108.2	105.9	103.1
00-14	104.3	103.8	103.7	108.1	104.7	104.0	103.9

Source: Same as Table 8.1

The term ‘sex ratio’ refers to the number of males per 100 females. The age-specific sex ratio by 5 year age groups for the census year 1952/54 to 2011 is shown in table 6. From the year 1952/54 to 1971, the number of female children has been consistently increasing and is higher than males among children of in the 0-4 years age group. This ratio reversed in the census of 1981 and continued in the following years. However in the other subsequent three age groups, the number of male children exceeds the female number and this ratio is the same in the aggregate child population as well. It is also worth noting that overall the sex ratio of the child population aged 0-14 revealed approximately 104 males per 100 females (see Table 8.6 and Figure 8.3) in all the census years since 1952/54 with the exception of the year 1981, when the ratio of males was 108 per 100 females. Nepal is a patriarchal society and son preference is persistent in Nepalese society within traditional norms and values; however the data trend shows it is slowly decreasing. This is the reason why the National Child Policy-2012 has stated that ‘There shall be an end to sex identification in the womb as well as discrimination and selective abortion on the basis of sex’ (MOWCSW, 2012).



8.4.2 Marital status of the child population

Marital status is an important demographic variable that affects the fertility behaviour of a couple, particularly of a woman in society like Nepal, where there is a lack of women's empowerment and the prevalence of contraceptive use is very low. The term 'marital status' indicates mainly three states in a person's life such as (1) Single or never married (2) Currently married and (3) Ever married, which includes separation, widowhood and divorce. In a population, a positive relationship prevails between the proportion of currently married people and the fertility rate whereas this relationship is negative between the proportion of single, separated, widowed and divorced persons.

Marriage is a private matter and is both a human and cultural right, but it is also a sensitive subject from a demographic point of view, because child marriage is associated with high fertility levels. Where the age at first marriage is high the fertility level is found to be low. So, increased age at marriage may be a precondition of fertility control. Pregnancies occurring in early motherhood when a woman's body is not fully matured constitute a major risk to the survival of both child and mother. It is known that age at first marriage has a major and direct effect on fertility behaviours because women who marry early have a longer period of exposure to the risk of becoming pregnant. In Nepalese society, the reason for child marriage is to prevent premarital sex. Where virginity is given high social value, female age at marriage is found to be earlier. Nepal is a patriarchal society and female virginity is given a high social value, which is a prerequisite for marriage. This is one of the reasons for child marriage in Nepal (Sharma, 2005) resulting in pervasive child marriage throughout the country.

Child marriage is a formal marriage or informal union entered into by an individual before reaching the age of 18. Child marriage affects both boys and girls, although the overwhelming majority of those affected are girls, particularly in poor socio-economic situations. Child marriages are also driven by poverty, bride price, dowry, cultural traditions, laws that allow child marriages, religious and social pressures, regional customs, fear of remaining unmarried, illiteracy, and the perceived inability of women to work for money. Child marriage has lasting consequences on girls from health, education and

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social development perspectives, and many others. These consequences last well beyond adolescence throughout their lifespan. One of the most common causes of death for girls aged 15 to 19 in developing countries is pregnancy and childbirth (Child Marriage, n.d.).

In Nepal the legal age for marriage is 18 years with the consent of the guardian and 20 years in the case of absence of consent of the guardian. Despite legal restrictions, child marriage is still common in Nepal. It is more common in economically poor and specific ethnic and religious communities. Marrying off a girl at a young age forces a girl to join the work-force in a new family and have children at an early age that results in the degrading of her health status, discontinuation of education, high fertility rates, becoming a victim of violence and many other factors. In Nepal it is estimated that more than half of adults were married before they reached the age of 18. Table 8.7 reflects that child marriage has prevailed over the census years from 1952/54 to 2011. As questions on their marital status were not asked to respondents aged below 10 years during the census enumeration in the last four censuses, only data for 10-14 years of children is shown in Table 8.7.

Table 8.7: Marital status of child population age 0-14 by census year 1952/54-2011

Census year	Age group	Total population			Ever married					
		Both sex	Male	Female	Both sexes		Male		Female	
					Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1952/54	6-9	1,242,283	679,330	562,953	44,534	3.6	14,825	2.2	29,709	5.3
	10-14	933,073	496,278	436,795	185,512	19.9	59,961	12.1	1,25,551	28.7
1961	6-9	1,009,421	513,529	495,892	41,758	4.1	15,344	3.1	26,414	5.3
	10-14	1,060,126	563,605	496,521	183,715	17.3	60,307	12.1	123,408	24.9
1971	6-9	1,275,226	650,554	624,672	22,578	1.8	7,908	1.2	14,670	2.3
	10-14	1,297,215	703,023	594,192	124,085	9.6	44,234	6.3	79,851	13.4
1981	10-14	1,707,021	919,290	787,731	249,257	14.6	1,36,848	14.9	112,409	14.3
1991	10-14	2,323,303	1,210,033	1,113,272	132,661	5.7	50,545	4.2	82,118	7.4
2001	10-14	2,981,932	1,533,806	1,448,126	3,8817	1.3	12,646	0.8	26,173	1.8
2011	10-14	3,475,424	1,764,630	1,710,794	27,165	0.8	8,020	0.5	19,145	1.1

Source : CBS, *Population Census 1952/54, Table 7*
CBS, *Population Census 1961, Vol. III, Part VI, Table 7*
CBS, *Population Census 1971, Vol. II, Part II, Table 15*
CBS, *Population Census 1981, Vol. II, Part Table 15*
CBS, *Population Census 1991, Vol. I, Part XI, Table 34*
CBS, *Population Census 2001, National Report Vol. II, Table 17*
CBS, *Population Census 2011, Vol. IV, Part I, Table 10*

Data in Table 8.7 shows a decreasing trend in the prevalence of child marriage from the 1952/54 population census and ever since for both sexes, with an exception in the census year of 1981 (*data available from 1981 census are less comparable to other censuses in many aspects*). Although there is an inconsistency in trends among the 6-9 year age group between different census years, the rate of marriage in this age group fell remarkably in 1971 at 1.8% from 3.6 % in 1952/54 for both sexes. Also, there is a similar trend among the male and female population at this age group, the volume of marriage amongst females in this age group is roughly double that of males. Marrying between 10 to 14 years of age has fallen significantly to 0.8% in 2011 from almost 20% in 1952/54. The propensity of marriage is the same in the male and female population of

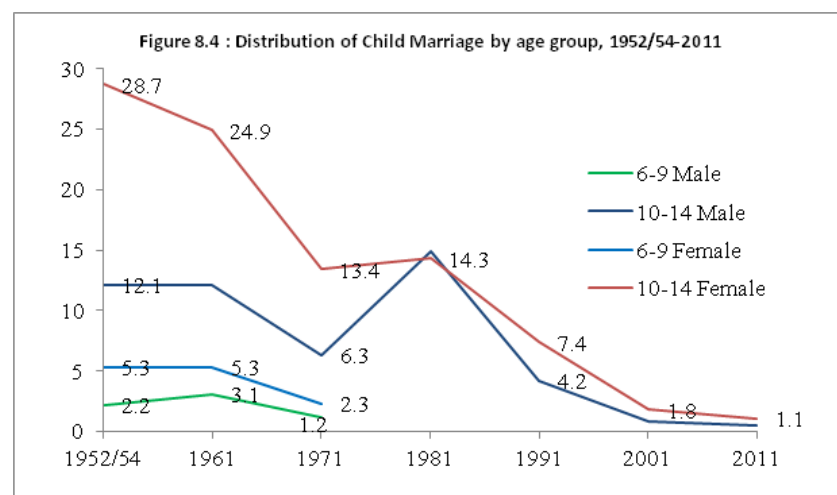
children aged 10-14 years between the census years but the rate of marriage among the female population in this age group is still higher (more than double) compared to the male population. The incidence of marrying off a girl and boy reduced to 1.1% and 0.5% in 2011. This is a remarkable achievement in this socio-cultural indicator as it was nearly 29% and 12% for girls and boys respectively in 1952/54, as shown in Table 8.8.

Table 8.8: Child marriage by marital status, 2011

Marital Status	10-14 Years			15-16 Years			17-18 Years		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Never married	1,756,610	1,691,649	3,448,259	631,292	594,719	1,226,011	548,594	429,502	978,096
Single married	8,020	19,145	27,165	15,255	56,717	71,972	53,440	186,531	239,971
Multiple married	-	-	-	56	102	158	230	458	688
Re-married	-	-	-	44	135	179	229	785	1,014
Widow/widower	-	-	-	28	60	88	82	343	425
Divorced	-	-	-	29	73	102	136	311	447
Separated	-	-	-	28	79	107	114	317	431
Ever Married	8,020	19,145	27,165	15,440	57,166	72,606	54,231	188,745	242,976
Total Children	1,764,630	1,710,794	3,475,424	646,732	651,885	1,298,617	602,825	618,247	1,221,072
Percent Ever Married	0.5	1.1	0.8	2.4	8.8	5.6	9.0	30.5	19.9

Source: CBS, Population Census 2001, National Report Vol. II, Table 17

It is useful to understand by sex, the marital status at different levels of age groups up to the age of 18 years of Nepalese children, although the focus here is age 14 and below. Table 8.8 has categorised children of age 10-18 years into three age groups and displays the number of children falling in different states of marital status in each age group. Among the total number of children in each age group, nearly one per cent in the age group 10-14 years was found once married, 5.6% of children in the age group 15-16 were ever married and almost 20% of children in the age group 17-18 were ever-married. The number of marriages increases by age and female children are at risk by more than two fold of being married in the age group 10-14 and more than three fold at other age groups than boys. The numbers in the state of multiple marriage, re-marriage, widowhood, divorce and separation at such a young age, indicates further vulnerability.



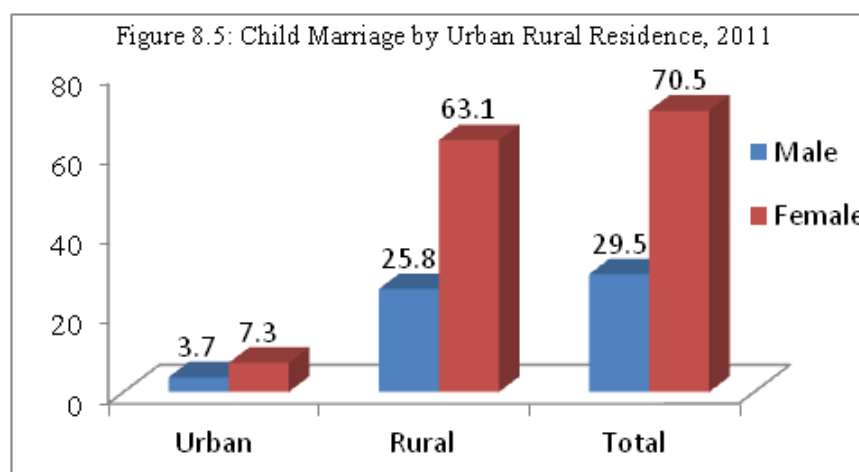
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Table 8.9: Distribution of ever married children age 10-14 year by urban/rural residence, 2011

Sex	Urban		Rural		Total	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Male	3.7	1009	25.8	7011	29.5	8020
Female	7.3	1991	63.1	17154	70.5	19145
Total	11.0	3000	89.0	24165	100	27165

Source: CBS, Population Census 2011, Vol. IV, Part I, Table 10

It is a demographic notion that there are socio-cultural, economic and ecological impacts on age at marriage. While examining urban-rural distribution of marriage of children aged 10 to 14 years more than 8 fold of child marriage cases took place in rural areas in 2011. Data from the 2011 census shows that out of 27,165 child marriage cases, 89% of cases were in rural settings whereas only 11% of child marriages were in urban areas. Among these, child marriage of girl children is tremendously high with more than 70% against 29.5% of male children (see Table 8.9 and Figure 8.5).



This proves the common attitude of parents seeing a daughter as an economic burden and daughters as property of others is a deep-rooted socio-cultural value of “*Kanya Dan*” (surrendering a virgin to the family she is being married to). ‘Marrying off a daughter before her first menarche is a great virtue or a great religious act’, mainly in rural societies. This is also an indication of the son preference culture in Nepalese society; they are allowed to go to school and are not forced to marry early like daughters.

Table 8.10 and 8.11 show that child marriage exists within three major ecological regions of the country. As mentioned earlier, this table shows the ecological (geographical) impact on age at marriage. The 2011 census result also confirmed such an impact

Table 8.10: Distribution of ever married children age 10-14 years by ecological region, 2011

Ecological region	Ever married				Total	
	Male		Female			
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Eastern Mountain	0.34	92	0.70	191	1.04	283
Eastern Hill	1.57	426	2.55	694	4.12	1120
Eastern Tarai	4.48	1218	8.64	2346	13.12	3564
Central Mountain	0.67	183	0.96	260	1.63	443
Central Hill*	1.49	405	3.41	926	4.90	1331

Ecological region	Ever married				Total	
	Male		Female			
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Central Terai	9.07	2465	25.12	6824	34.19	9289
Western Mountain	0.01	2	0.00	0	0.01	2
Western Hill	1.86	506	4.33	1175	6.19	1681
Western Terai	3.31	898	8.94	2429	12.25	3327
Mid Western Mountain	0.24	66	0.67	181	0.91	247
Mid Western Hill	1.31	355	3.31	899	4.62	1254
Mid Western Terai	1.56	425	4.41	1197	5.97	1622
Far Western Mountain	0.31	85	0.85	230	1.16	315
Far Western Hill	0.67	182	1.30	354	1.97	536
Far-Western Terai	0.97	263	2.40	652	3.37	915
Kathmandu Valley**	1.65	449	2.90	787	4.55	1236
Total	29.52	8020	70.48	19145	100	27165

Note: *Excluding Kathmandu, Lalitpur and Bhaktapur District

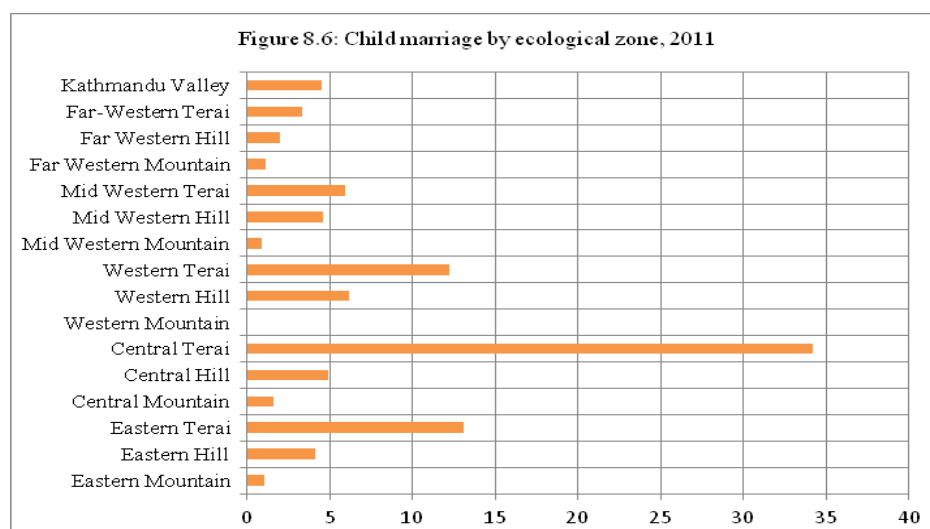
** Includes Kathmandu, Lalitpur and Bhaktapur

Source: CBS, Population Census 2011, Vol. IV, Part I, Table 10

Table 8.11: Distribution of ever married children aged 10-14 years by ecological belt, 2011

Ecological region	Ever married					
	Male		Female		Total	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Mountain	1.6	428	3.2	862	4.8	1290
Hill including Kathmandu valley	8.6	2323	17.8	4835	26.4	7158
Tarai	19.4	5269	49.5	13448	68.9	18717
Total	29.5	8020	70.5	19145	100.0	27165

Source: CBS, Population Census 2011, Vol. IV, Part I, Table 10



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and recorded a higher impact on child marriage with a lower altitude of place of residence. A similar impact of ecology was suggested on fertility as discussed in the earlier section of this chapter, which supports the association of early marriage to high fertility as well. Out of 27,165 child marriage cases the lowest number of 1,290 (4.8%) cases are in Mountain region and the highest number 27,165 (68.9%) of child marriage take place in Tarai (a plain area and lowest in altitude) region, which is about 15 times more in comparison to Mountain region. The Hilly region emerged with a comparatively modest number at 7,158 (26.4%) of child marriages (Table 8.11). Within the Tarai, the Central Tarai had the highest number at 18,717 (68.9%) followed by Eastern Tarai with 3,564 (13.1%) of child marriage cases. The rate of child marriage is shown to gradually decrease from West to Far West of Tarai. The lowest prevalence is in the Western Mountain region where only 2 boys and no girls were found married before the age of 14 years, which can be rated as almost no prevalence of child marriage (Table 8.10).

Table 8.12: Marital Status of children aged 10-18 by children's caste/ethnicity (grouped), 2011

Caste/ Ethnicity (grouped)	Total	Never married	Single married	Multiple married	Re-married	Widow/widower	Divorced	Separated	Ever Married	Percent Ever Married	Distribution
Hill Brahmin	667,614	651,727	15,755	25	32	41	18	16	15,887	2.4	4.6
Hill Chhetri	1,153,179	1,101,295	51,294	94	231	96	100	69	51,884	4.5	15.1
Madhesi Brahmin/Chhetri	44,203	42,575	1,625	1	-	2	-	-	1,628	3.7	0.5
Madhesi Other Caste – A (Literacy >= 66%)	658,981	608,082	50,673	82	35	68	19	22	50,899	7.7	14.9
Madhesi Other Caste – B (Literacy < 66%)	148,765	133,626	15,059	22	9	21	13	15	15,139	10.2	4.4
Hill Dalit	530,561	489,421	40,344	130	352	56	139	119	41,140	7.8	12.0
Madhesi Dalit	252,868	227,182	25,523	57	31	28	15	32	25,686	10.2	7.5
Newar	249,398	242,995	6,329	15	16	14	12	17	6,403	2.6	1.9
Mountain/Hill Janajati-A (Literacy >= 66%)	888,883	843,721	44,462	113	314	71	107	95	45,162	5.1	13.2
Mountain/Hill Janajati-B (Literacy < 66%)	502,783	474,853	27,602	64	77	45	67	75	27,930	5.6	8.1
Tarai Janajati	538,995	511,062	27,713	61	69	36	22	32	27,933	5.2	8.1
Muslim	278,302	251,042	26,989	168	10	26	29	38	27,260	9.8	8.0
Others	15,622	14,933	683	4		1	1		689	4.4	0.2
Other not defined above	63,837	58,796	4,991	10	17	8	7	8	5,041	7.9	1.5
Foreigner	1,122	1,056	66						66	5.9	0.0
Total	5,995,113	5,652,366	339,108	846	1193	513	549	538	342,747	5.7	100.0

Source: Special tabulation, Population Census, 2011

Table 8.12 explains the marital status of children aged 18 and below by their broadly grouped caste/ethnicity. Out of 5,995,113 children of this age group a total of 342,747 children were found ever married. The highest proportion of child marriage remains in the Madhesi caste/ethnicity and among the Madhesi Other Caste-B and Madhesi Dalit have the highest percentage of child marriage with 10.2% each against the total child population of the respective caste/ethnicity. The lowest percentage of child marriage is for Hill Brahman and Newar with 2.4% and 2.6% respectively. Hill Chhetri and Madhesi Brahman/Chhetri groups have contributed the highest and lowest ratio of child marriage to the total volume of child marriages respectively.

The practice of child marriage in Nepal is widespread and discriminatory against women in terms of sex. In practice child marriage is more prevalent for girls than boys. The custom of “*Kanya Dan*” has already been mentioned above. Additionally, marrying a girl before the first occurrence of menstruation is customarily a priority in order to prevent pre-marital pregnancies that may result in a loss of family honour. The other reason for child marriage, in particular societies and customs, is to save money because the higher the age of the girl, the higher the amount of the dowry. Child marriage is also linked with traditional beliefs that one will not go to heaven when she or he dies without having a grandchild. Literacy and levels of education have positive associations with age at marriage, i.e., the higher the level of education, the higher the age at marriage.

8.4.3 Children with disabilities

The term ‘disability’ is defined as ‘an inability to perform some or all of the tasks of daily life’ or ‘a medically diagnosed condition that makes it difficult to engage in the activities of daily life’ according to the Encarta dictionary.

Disability is the consequence of an impairment that may be physical, cognitive, mental, sensory, emotional, developmental, or a combination of these. A disability may be present from birth, or occur during a person’s lifetime. The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, in article 1, stated that: ‘Persons with disabilities include those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others’.

The Government of Nepal, for the purpose of Article 3(1) of Disability protection and welfare Act-2039, has defined the term ‘disability’ as a state of not being able to engage in usual daily activities and participate fully in social life due to the problems remained in organs of body and physical system as well as obstructions created by physical, social and cultural environment and also from communication obstructions. Furthermore the Government of Nepal has classified the state of disabilities into seven categories based on the nature of hardship and problems remained on bodily organs and physical systems. They are;

1. Physical disability (Disabilities due to the dysfunction of nerves, muscles, joints and bone structures, such as polio, cerebral palsy, muscular dystrophy, long lasting problems related to joints and spines, rickets etc.)
2. Disability related to vision (Blindness, Low vision)
3. Disability related to hearing (Deafness, Hard of hearing)
4. Deaf-blind (having both no. 2 & 3).
5. Disability related to vocal and speech.
6. Mental disability (Intellectual disability, Mental illness, Autism)
7. Multiple-disability (a combination of two or more of the disabilities mentioned in no. 1 to 6)

Children with such symptoms or physical, emotional and cognitive challenges, usually need special consideration and services from parents/guardians, schools, therapists, health professionals, public policy, the legal system and many other individuals and institutions. Children with disabilities have to face many problems in family and society. They are often considered as a burden to their families and society that prevents them from enjoying their fundamental rights. Every child, with and without disabilities, possesses fundamental human and child rights equally. However, many physically or mentally challenged children are deprived of their rights. Due to being disabled, education, health and many other services such as transportation facilities are inaccessible to them because of their special needs. Their need to be able to access these facilities is disregarded. They are deprived of adequate nutrition and proper care in the family. They are not treated equally in practice despite the existence of legal provision, so most of their child rights and their overall development is harmed. They are the victims of domestic violence, abuse, exploitation and discrimination. As a result they are treated as a burden by both their family and society. Children’s Act, 1992 has stated that children with disability, conflict-affected children, displaced children, children at risk and street children shall be entitled to special protection from the State for ensured future. Article 23 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child stipulates the rights of children with disability. According to this article, Children who have any kind of disability have the right to special care and support, as well as all the rights in the Convention, so that they can live full and independent lives. Likewise, article (7) of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities states the rights of ‘Children with Disabilities’ as:

1. States Parties shall take all necessary measures to ensure the full enjoyment by children with disabilities of all human rights and fundamental freedoms on an equal basis with other children.
2. In all actions concerning children with disabilities, the best interests of the child shall be a primary consideration.
3. States Parties shall ensure that children with disabilities have the right to express their views freely on all matters affecting them, their views being given due weight in accordance with their age and maturity, on an equal basis with other children, and to be provided with disability and age-appropriate assistance to realise that right.

Table 8.13: Distribution of child disability by sex, 2001

Sex	Type of disability					Total	
	Physical	Blindness	Deafness	Mentally retarded	Multiple disability	Percent	Number
Both sexes							
0-4 Years	37.3	12.6	36.2	6.0	7.9	100	9850
5-9 Years	44.5	14.0	19.8	12.1	9.6	100	11827
10-14 Years	45.9	13.6	20.4	12.8	7.3	100	12953
0-14 years	43.0	13.5	24.7	10.6	8.3	100	34630
Male							
0-4 Years	38.9	10.4	35.9	6.7	8.1	100	4949
5-9 Years	45.6	11.5	19.5	13.2	10.1	100	6104
10-14 Years	46.4	11.7	21.5	13.1	7.3	100	6849
0-14 years	44.0	11.3	24.8	11.4	8.5	100	17902

Sex	Type of disability					Total	
	Physical	Blindness	Deafness	Mentally retarded	Multiple disability	Percent	Number
Female							
0-4 Years	35.7	14.8	36.5	5.2	7.8	100	4901
5-9 Years	43.3	16.7	20.1	10.9	9.0	100	5723
10-14 Years	45.2	15.8	19.2	12.4	7.3	100	6104
0-14 years	41.8	15.8	24.6	9.8	8.0	100	16728

Source: CBS, Population Census 2001, National Report Vol. I, Table 22

Table 8.14: Distribution of child disability by sex, 2011

Disability type	Both			Male			Female		
	0-4	5-9	10-14	0-4	5-9	10-14	0-4	5-9	10-14
Physical	35.9	36.6	35.6	37.3	37.5	36.6	34.3	35.4	34.4
Blindness/low vision	28.4	12.8	14.0	26.6	12.0	13.7	30.4	13.8	14.3
Deaf/hard of hearing	6.0	11.5	13.8	6.0	10.8	13.0	6.0	12.4	14.8
Deaf-blind	1.5	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.1	1.4	1.5	1.3	1.3
Speech problem	13.0	18.8	14.7	13.6	19.8	15.5	12.2	17.4	13.7
Mental disability	2.1	4.7	6.8	2.2	4.7	6.4	2.0	4.7	7.3
Intellectual disability	3.1	4.2	5.4	3.1	4.3	5.2	3.1	4.1	5.7
Multiple Disabilities	10.1	10.2	8.2	9.9	9.8	8.2	10.4	10.8	8.3
Percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Number	15887	31816	44309	8596	18144	24900	7291	13672	19409

Source: CBS, Population Census 2011, Vol. 5 Part III, Table 15

Table 8.15: Total number and percentage of children with disability in years 2001 & 2011.

Year	Sex	0-14 yrs. population	Total disabled Population (0-14 yrs)	Percent
2001	Male	4,562,608	17,902	0.39
	Female	4,385,979	16,728	0.38
	Both sex	8,948,587	34,630	0.39
2011	Male	4,714,763	51,640	1.10
	Female	4,533,483	40,372	0.89
	Both sex	9,248,246	92,012	0.99

Source: Same as Table 8.14 and 8.15

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According to the data obtained from the 2011 census, 0.99% of children aged 0-14 have disabilities. Out of the child population of this age group, 1.10% of male and 0.89% of female children are affected by disabilities (see Table 8.15). Tables 8.14 and 8.15 represent the age and sex specific children population with disabilities for the 2001 and 2011 census respectively across the type of disabilities. As per the data revealed from these two tables above, a total of 34,630 and 44,309 children aged 0-14 years are affected by a different type of disability in the census years of 2001 and 2011 respectively. In both the censuses, physical disability has the highest prevalence in both sexes, whereas, multiple disability and deaf-blind disability is lowest. The number and proportion of children with a disability has increased in 2011 compared to 2001.

Table 8.16: Total number and distribution of disabled persons by broad age groups, 2011

Age (yrs)	Total number of PWD	% of disabled by broad age group				
		Total	Male	Female	Rural	Urban
0 – 4	15887	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	2.9
5-9	31816	6.2	6.5	5.9	6.3	5.2
10 – 14	44309	8.6	8.9	8.3	8.7	7.7
0-14 (Sub-total)	92012	17.9	18.5	17.3	18.1	15.8
15+	421309	82.1	81.5	82.7	81.8	84.2
Percent	-	100	100	100	100	100
Total number	513321	513321	280,086	233,235	458,517	54,804

Source: Same as Table 8.14

Table 8.16 presents the number and percentage distribution of disabled population by sex and rural-urban distribution on broad age group categories with a special focus on child disability from the 2011 census data. According to the data, a total of 513,321 people in the country live with disabilities (PWD), which is 1.9 % of the total population. Out of that 92,012 (17.9%) are children. This means that out of the total PWD population, around 18% are below the age of 15 and 82% are above. The proportion of disabilities affecting the male and female population and rural-urban distribution for both child and adult PWDs is approximately similar with a slight percentage variation.

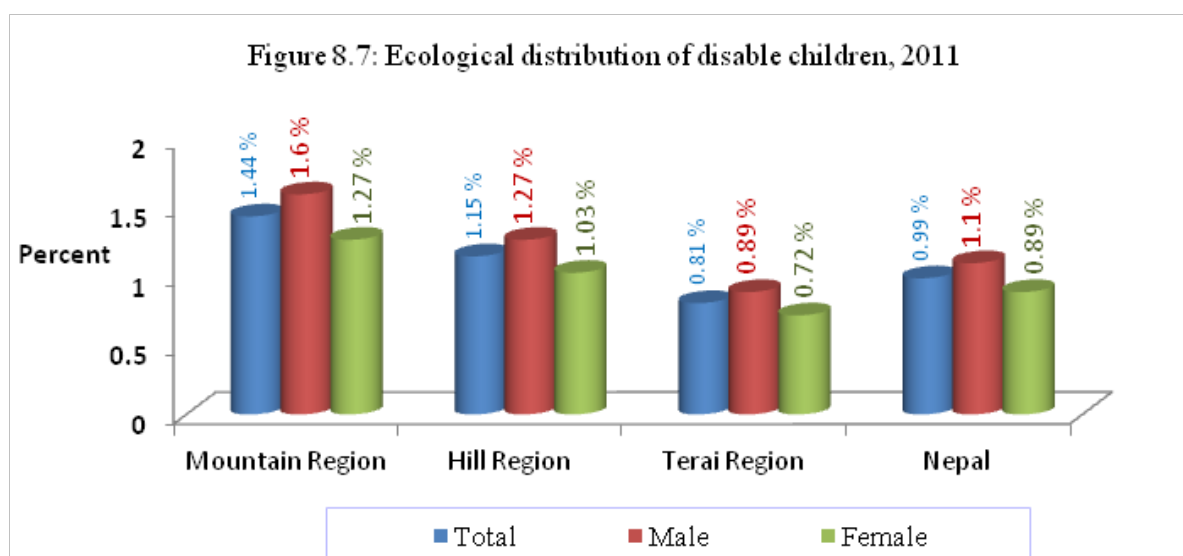
Table 8.17: Sex-wise number and percentage distribution of disability on child population by ecological region, 2011.

Ecological Region	Total children			Male Children			Female Children		
	Popula- tion	Disability		Popula- tion	Disability		Popula- tion	Disability	
		No.	%		No.	%		No.	%
Eastern Mountain	140,162	1,546	1.10	70,177	832	1.19	69,985	714	1.02
Central Mountain	171,692	1,816	1.06	85,687	1,020	1.19	86,005	796	0.93
Western Mountain	4,427	35	0.79	2,200	16	0.73	2,227	19	0.85
Mid-Western Mountain	166,036	3,210	1.93	83,610	1,778	2.13	82,426	1,432	1.74
Far-Western Mountain	198,738	3,178	1.60	100,236	1,822	1.82	98,502	1,356	1.38
Mountain Region	681,055	9,785	1.44	341,910	5,468	1.60	339,145	4,317	1.27
Eastern Hill	550,153	6,183	1.12	277,050	3,413	1.23	273,103	2,770	1.01
Central Hill	1,254,105	9,747	0.78	646,981	5,387	0.83	607,124	4,360	0.72

Ecological Region	Total children			Male Children			Female Children		
	Popula- tion	Disability		Popula- tion	Disability		Popula- tion	Disability	
		No.	%		No.	%		No.	%
Western Hill	940,899	10,516	1.12	477,923	5,929	1.24	462,976	4,587	0.99
Mid-Western Hill	700,231	11,003	1.57	352,514	6,118	1.74	347,717	4,885	1.40
Far-Western Hill	366,756	6,387	1.74	184,913	3,735	2.02	181,843	2,652	1.46
Hilly Region	3,812,144	43,836	1.15	1,939,381	24,582	1.27	1,872,763	19,254	1.03
Eastern Tarai	1,278,673	10,471	0.82	652,358	5,863	0.90	626,315	4,608	0.74
Central Tarai	1,776,747	12,567	0.71	909,776	7,115	0.78	866,971	5,452	0.63
Western Tarai	732,769	4,799	0.65	376,472	2,685	0.71	356,297	2,114	0.59
Mid-Western Tarai	523,517	5,659	1.08	266,650	3,135	1.18	256,867	2,524	0.98
Far-Western Tarai	443,341	4,895	1.10	228,216	2,792	1.22	215,125	2,103	0.98
Tarai Region	4,755,047	38,391	0.81	2,433,472	21,590	0.89	2,321,575	16,801	0.72
Nepal	9,248,246	92,012	0.99	4,714,763	51,640	1.10	4,533,483	40,372	0.89

Source: Same as Table 8.14

As stated earlier nearly one percent of the child population is made up of children with a disability in the country in 2011. When geographical impact on child disability was examined, it showed that disability in children rises with the altitude of their residence.



The same impact of altitude on disability has appeared in both sexes of children. This finding is supported by Table 8.17 that shows the population and percentage distribution of children with a disability by ecological region. The table shows that mountain region has the highest prevalence of child disability with 1.44% followed by hill and Tarai regions with 1.15% and 0.81%. A similar prevalence of disability in male and female children is observed among the geographical regions where mountain region and Tarai region have the highest and lowest prevalence respectively.

8.4.4 Status of children by their living arrangement

Children have the right to be reared and cared for by their biological parents and family. Many of the child rights covenants and ordinances and activists have emphasised this right. The United Nation's Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), 1989 has recognised family to be the best place for a child for their protection, well-being, full development of their personality, enjoying happiness, love and understanding. A child spontaneously has a natural environment in their own family to grow and be well looked after. The CRC has stated that every child has the right to be cared for by biological parents. Parents are also primarily responsible to assure that a child has a suitable living environment, which is necessary for their development. States and others who have responsibilities for children are also obliged to be responsible for providing necessary assistance to parents and provide material assistance and support programmes, if needed. A legal provision is made in Children's Act, 1992 that every child has the right to obtain appropriate rearing, protection, caring and love from his/her parents, family members or guardians. No parents, family members or guardians shall abandon or desert their own children or those under their guardianship. Each child shall be entitled to the right to appropriate protection from the State. In principle, only orphans and other children who are vulnerable and who are not under the guardianship of their parents are supposed to be cared for and protected under alternative care arrangements such as family preservation, kinship care, extended relationship care, community care, domestic adoption, inter-country adoption, institutional care etc. In alternative care systems, family support and family based options are a priority, and institutional care, like care homes, should be the last option for care, protection and development of a child when other options are not available. Social protection system like cash transfers, improved access to education and health care are also better models to help families stay together and look after their children. This is why understanding the state of living arrangements of children is an important aspect of studies on children.

Table 8.18: Percentage of children age below 16 years by status of living arrangement and by sex, Nepal, 2001-2011.

Status living arrangement	Census year					
	2001			2011		
	Both Sex	Male	Female	Both Sex	Male	Female
Biological Parents	87.6	88	87.2	87.8	87.9	87.8
Biological Mother	5.5	5.4	5.6	9.2	9.1	9.2
Biological Father	1.2	1.2	1.1	0.7	0.7	0.6
Biological Father & Step Mother	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.2	0.2	0.2
Biological Mother & Step Father	0.6	0.6	0.7	0	0	0.1
Sub-total	95.7	95.9	95.4	97.9	97.9	97.9
Other Relatives	0.9	0.8	1	0.5	0.5	0.5
Employer	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.1	0.1	0.1
Others	2.4	2.3	2.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	9,475,898	4,819,579	4,656,319	4,965,285	9,765,954	480,669

Source: CBS, Population Census 2001, National Report, Vol. II, Table 22
CBS, Population Census 2011, Vol. 5 Part XII, Table 65

Data from the population census of 2001 and 2011 on the state of living arrangements of Nepali children is shown in Table 8.17 and indicates that the vast majority of children live with their biological parents. A child living with their biological parents, or either one of them, is almost universal. Both censuses revealed that roughly 88% of children aged 0-14 lived together with their biological father and mother. More than 5% in 2001 and more than 9% of children in 2011 were living with their own mother. It is also a notable fact that the proportion of children living with their own parents or either one of their biological parents has increased in 2011 to around 98% against approximately 96% in the 2001 census. Also, the 2011 census shown that the number of children living with other relatives, with employers and with others has fallen considerably which is commendable.

8.4.5 Children as household head

Children should be free from responsibilities that an adult person has within their family or in society at large. They are even free from or have limited responsibility for crimes. However, a sizeable number of children in Nepal are an exception to this principle. Table 8.19 shows the number and percentage distribution of children aged 10-14 who are have the responsibility of being household head by sex. At the age of playing, learning and enjoying a happy life, a total of 1,839 children in 2001 and 7,403 children in 2011 were found shouldering the responsibility of being head of a family, struggling to get food to survive themselves and feed younger members of their family, which is a tough and vigorous job even for experienced adults. An extraordinary result came out of the 2011 census that showed that instead of a decrease in the number of child household heads the size escalated by more than four-fold in 2011. Furthermore, the number of female child household heads has increased by more than seven-fold corresponding to the number in 2001 of 352, which increased to 2,626 in 2011. The reason behind this increment is believed to be armed conflict and the breakout of a 10-year civil war in the country. During this war about 16 thousand lives were lost throughout the country and many families were left without adult household heads. Many families and children were displaced and disabled. Many parents unfortunately lost their lives leaving their young children to survive alone.

Table 8.19: Distribution of Children (10-14) headed household by sex, 2001-2011

Sex	Census year						Number of child headed household increased in 2011
	2001			2011			
	Total household	Child headed household	Percent	Total household	Child headed household	Percent	
Total	4,174,374	1839	0.04	5,427,302	7,403	0.14	+5,564
Male	3,553,390	1487	0.04	4,030,610	4,777	0.12	+3,290
Female	620,984	352	0.06	1,396,692	2,626	0.19	+2,274

Source: CBS, Population Census 2001, National Report, Vol I, Table 14
CBS, Population Census 2011, Vol. 5, Table 6

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8.4.6 Children absent from household

At the time of enumeration a total of 1,921,494 of the population was not present at home. Out of them 121,148 (6.3% of the total absentees) were children aged 14 and below. The destination of a large majority among the child absentee was India (see Table 8.20).

Table 8.20: Absentee children by place of destination, 2011

Sex	Age group	Number	Percent destination to		Total percent
			India	Other places	
Both Sexes	All Ages	1,921,494	37.6	62.4	100
	00 – 14	121,148 (6.3 %)	86.7	13.3	100
Male	All Ages	1,684,029	36.0	64.0	100
	00 – 14	84,897 (5.0 %)	89.4	10.6	100
Female	All Ages	237,400	49.0	51.0	100
	00 - 14	36,246 (15.3%)	80.3	19.7	100

Source : CBS, Population census 2011, Vol 4 Table. 16

Note: Number in the parenthesis indicate the percentage

As per the figures shown in Table 8.21, a major proportion (46.8%) of absentee children left home as dependents of their absentee parents/guardians, followed by more than 33% of children who are engaged in private and institutional jobs. Around 10% of 121,148 absentee children left home to study. A very small proportion of this child population is displaced or left at home due to the effect of armed conflict.

Table 8.21: Absentee children by reason of absence, 2011

Reason of absence	Both sexes		Male		Female	
	All ages	0 - 14	All ages	0 – 14	All ages	0 – 14
Private job	71.0	31.9	75.4	43.0	39.6	5.8
Institutional job	10.0	1.7	10.8	2.3	4.4	0.4
Study	5.8	9.6	4.6	9.5	14.2	9.9
Conflict	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.0
Dependent	6.8	46.8	3.3	36.0	32.2	72.3
Others	1.4	2.1	1.2	2.0	2.7	2.3
Not stated	4.3	7.8	4.0	7.2	5.9	9.2
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Total population	1,921,494	121,148	1,684,029	84,897	237,400	36,246

Source: CBS, Population census 2011, Vol 4 Table. 17

As discussed earlier, a large proportion of absentee child population has moved to India. Although not stated clearly, it can be presumed that the main reasons for these children going to India might be for better education, as dependents, or in search of work to earn money. Children who were displaced from their usual place of residence during the civil war (Maoist insurgency) may also have lived in India. Table 8.19 and table 8.20 reveal that a large number of male children migrate to India in search of work.

8.4.7. Literacy & educational status of children

Every child has the right to education. The United Nation's Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989 in its article 28 has enforced nations to recognise the rights of the child to education. With a view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity, they are particularly directed to make primary education compulsory and available at no cost to all. In line with this right, the Constitution of Nepal has recognised children's right to education as their fundamental rights and made a commitment to make education free up to secondary level for all. The government has drafted a bill for Revision and Integration of the Act on Children which aims to ensure children's right to education by guaranteeing free education to every child up to secondary level, and elementary education in their mother tongue, as well as free text books and education materials. As children are said to be the future of the nation, investment in educating them is vital to mould the nation's future. Education plays a very important role in the socio-economic and overall development of the country. This is why the government of Nepal has placed an emphasis on educating every child as reflected by its international commitments and domestic legislation as well as the constitution of Nepal. What the country has achieved so far in implementing children's right to education is discussed below.

Table 8.22: Percent distribution of literacy on child population (age 6-14) by Sex, Nepal 1952/54-2011.

Census year	Age 6-9			Age 10-14		
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female
1952/54	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
1961	NA	NA	NA	9.2	16.3	3.1
1971	11.1	16.4	5.5	23.8	35.8	9.6
1981	21.6	27.8	15.2	38.8	50.8	21.2
1991	47	55.7	38	63.2	76	49.3
2001	54.7	58	51.3	78.6	83.7	73.2
2011	72.3*	73.0*	71.6*	91.8	93.2	90.3

*Age 5-9 years.

Source: CBS, Population census 1961, Vol. 4, Table 1

CBS, Population census 1971, Part II, Table 16

CBS, Population census 1981, Vol. I Part IV, Table 14

CBS, Population census 1991, Vol. I Part X, Table 30

CBS, Population census 2001, National Report Vo. II, Table 11

CBS, Population census 2011, Vo 5, Part III, Table 16

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As in many other reports, children's literacy rates, enrolment ratios, and school attendance rate, are mainly based on census data, and are considered as indicators to measure children's educational status in this chapter. The previous censuses up to 2001 provided data on children's education from the age of 6 years and above. In the 2011 census only, this data is available for children of 5 years and above. Table 8.22 shows evidence of the gradual progress of children's literacy status over the census years since 1961. This table shows that the literacy rate of children of the 5/6-9 age group has increased to more than 72% in 2011 from 11.1% in 1971. Likewise this rate reached around 92% among children of the 10-14 years of age group, which was just 9.2% in 1961. This indicates that in the last 50 years, the country has made significant progress in improving the literacy rates of children. But around 28% of the 5-9 years age group children and approximately 8% of the 10-14 years age group children appear to be illiterate which is a cause for concern.

Table 8.23: Literacy status of children (0-15 years) by living arrangement, 2011

Living arrangement	Unit	Both sex			Male			Female		
		Total	Illiterate	Literate	Total	Illiterate	Literate	Total	Illiterate	Literate
Total	No.	7,282,625	1,161,167	6,116,997	3,691,592	549,311	3,140,331	3,591,033	611,856	2,976,666
	%	100	16	84	100	15	85	100	17	83
Parents	No.	6,279,043	1,025,922	5,249,116	3,185,619	485,530	2,698,301	3,093,424	540,392	2,550,815
	%	100	16	84	100	15	85	100	17	82
Mother	No.	680,533	87,354	592,914	342,390	41,639	300,655	338,143	45,715	292,259
	%	100	13	87	100	12	88	100	14	86
Father	No.	60,345	8,613	51,715	32,585	4,319	28,249	27,761	4,294	23,466
	%	100	14	86	100	13	87	100	15	85
Father & step mother	No.	17,290	2,511	14,778	9,146	1,325	7,820	8,144	1,185	6,958
	%	100	15	85	100	14	86	100	15	85
Mother & step father	No.	3,933	880	3,053	1,732	455	1,277	2,201	425	1,776
	%	100	22	78	100	26	74	100	19	81
Other relatives	No.	43,607	4,055	39,544	21,733	1,934	19,798	21,874	2,120	19,746
	%	100	9	91	100	9	91	100	10	90
Employer	No.	7,894	1,617	6,275	3,902	952	2,948	3,991	665	3,327
	%	100	21	79	100	24	76	100	17	83
Others	No.	130,263	13,013	117,208	65,665	5,954	59,711	64,598	7,059	57,497
	%	100	10	90	100	9	91	100	11	89
Not stated	No.	59,717	17,203	42,394	28,820	7,202	21,572	30,897	10,001	20,822
	%	100	29	71	100	25	75	100	32	67

Source: CBS, Population census 2011, Vo 5, Part XII, Table 66

Table 8.23 shows the status of children's literacy rates by their living arrangements for the year 2011. According to this table, children living with other relatives and living with others have the highest literacy rate with 91% and 90% respectively, followed by children living with their mother (87%), living with their father (86%), father & step-mother (85%), parents (84%) and mother and step-father (78%) respectively. This pattern of literacy seems a bit unusual in the sense that, as stated earlier, the biological

family is the best recognised place for a child's protection, wellbeing and full development. Contrary to this notion, children's literacy rates were lower among children who lived with their parents. The reason behind this could be that parents arranged for children to live at their relative's home where better education services are available or a large number of children were forced to live with relatives or in other arrangements, due to difficult circumstances, who were already literate. Also, it could be due to a lack of access to schools in rural areas; parents send their children to towns and bigger cities to live with relatives to be educated. This tendency is similar by living arrangement for children of both sexes.

Table 8.24: Percent distribution of child population by school attendance, 2011

Age group	Number			Percent currently going to school							
	Male	Female	Total	Male				Female			
				Yes	No	Not stated	Total	Yes	No	Not stated	Total
5-14 years	3,397,335	3,278,071	6675,406	85.8	2.0	12.2	100	83.5	14.3	2.2	100
05 Year	340,356	320,802	661,158	60.9	34.8	4.3	100	59.2	36.3	4.5	100
06 Year	320,232	308,784	629,016	78	19.2	2.8	100	75.8	21.2	3	100
07 Year	316,893	311,697	628,590	86.3	11.6	2.1	100	84.5	13.3	2.2	100
08 Year	378,406	354,822	733,228	87.4	10.7	1.9	100	85.2	12.6	2.2	100
09 Year	279,289	273,578	552,867	92.5	6.1	1.4	100	90.9	7.6	1.5	100
10 Year	418,046	393,702	811,748	89.2	8.8	2	100	86.7	11.1	2.2	100
11 Year	283,595	278,985	562,580	94	4.7	1.3	100	90.1	8.3	1.6	100
12 Year	410,150	384,926	795,076	90.5	7.9	1.6	100	87.7	10.5	1.8	100
13 Year	315,152	313,763	628,915	91.7	7.1	1.2	100	89.6	8.9	1.5	100
14 Year	335,216	337,012	672,228	88.1	10.4	1.5	100	85.7	12.6	1.7	100

Source: CBS, Population census 2011, Vo 5, Part III, Table 16

Table 8.24 shows the percentage distribution of school attendance by male and female children by single age group from the 2011 census. School attendance signifies the percentage of children of the specified age who were reported to be currently going to school during the enumeration period. Among sex disaggregated data of the 5-14 year age group of children, more than 85% of males and nearly 84% of females were reported as school going children at the time of enumeration. An exceptionally low rate of children at age 5 were going to school and a maximum rate of school going children was observed at ages 9 and 11 years with 92.5% and 94% for boys and 90.9% and 90.1% for girls respectively. This data shows the shocking reality that nearly 15% of children of the age 5-9 years are either still out of or not attending school. The data also shows that a large proportion of parents (about 40% in the age 5 cohort, about 23% in the age 6 cohort, about 15% in the age 7 cohort, and about 14% in the age 8 cohort) in Nepalese households send their children to school at quite late ages.

8.4.7.1 Gross and net enrolments

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has defined 'Gross Enrolment Ratio' as a nation's total enrolment in a specific level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population in the official age group corresponding to this level of education. In other words, it is the number of students enrolled in school at several different grade levels

compared to the number of students who live in the country who qualify for the respective grade level. So, the gross enrolment ratio can be greater than 100% as a result of grade repetition and entry at ages younger or older than the standard age specified for that grade level.

The ‘Net Enrolment Rate (NER)’, as defined by UNESCO Institute for Statistics, is the enrolment of children of an official age group for a given level of education expressed as a percentage of the corresponding population. It is, therefore, the percentage of children enrolled in a specific level of education in school out of the number of children of the officially specified age for that level of education. The value of NER always remains within 100%.

GER is an indicator related to total enrolment at a specific level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education in a given school year (DOE, 2011).

This indicator is widely used to show the general level of participation in a given level of education. Likewise, NER is an indicator related to total enrolment of the official age group for a given level of education, expressed as a percentage of the corresponding population. NER gives a more precise measurement of the extent of participation of children belonging to the official school age in a given level of education. A high NER denotes a high degree of participation by the official school-age population. The highest theoretical value is 100%. Increasing trends can be considered as reflecting improving participation at the specified level of education. When the NER is compared with the GER, the difference between the two ratios highlights the incidence of under-aged and over-aged enrolment. To understand the official age group for a given level of education Table 8.25 is given below.

Table 8.25: Trend in gross enrolment rate (GER) by level of school, 2004-2011

School year	Gross enrolment rate								
	Primary level (Grade 1-5): {age 5-9}			Lower Secondary level (Grade 6-8): {age 10-12}			Secondary level (Grade 9-10): {age 13-14}		
	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total
2004	124.2	137	130.7	73.9	86.4	80.3	45.2	55.4	50.4
2005	141.8	148.8	145.4	68.2	84	76	45.5	53	49.3
2006	138.4	139.2	138.8	65.4	77.9	71.5	53.1	60.2	56.7
2007	139.6	137.7	138.5	75.9	81.6	78.8	52.4	59.3	55.9
2008	145.6	140.2	142.8	79	81.1	80.1	57.3	61.6	59.5
2009	146.1	137.1	141.4	89.3	88.2	88.7	64.5	66.8	65.7
2010	144.8	134.5	139.5	97	92.1	94.5	66.5	66.1	66.3
2011	141.2	131	135.9	104.1	96	100	71.9	68.4	70.1
2011-2010	-3.6	-3.5	-3.6	+7.1	+3.9	+5.5	+5.4	+2.3	+3.8
2011-2004	+17	-6	+5.2	+30.2	+9.6	+19.7	+26.7	+13	+19.7

Source: *DEO, Flash I Report, 2004-2011*
DEO, Flash I Report, 2069(2012-013)

Based on the data shown in Table 8.25, the overall GER at primary level is 135.9%, with 141.2% for

girls and 131% for boys. When these figures are compared with the figures for 2010, (139.5% total, 144.8% for girls and 134.5% for boys), the GERs in total, for both girls and boys, have declined (by 3.6% in total) at primary level. Compared to 2004, the overall GER has increased by 5.2% in 2011 at this level of education, with an increase of 17% for girls and a negative increment of -6% for boys.

Likewise at Lower Secondary Level, the overall GER is 100%, 104.1% for girls and 96% for boys. When these figures are compared with the figures of 2010 (94.5% total, 97% for girls and 92.1% for boys), the GERs in total have increased by 5.5% in total for this level with an increment of 7.1% and 3.9% among girls and boys respectively. When compared to 2004, the GER has increased by 19.7% in total, with an increase of 30.2% and 9.6% among girls and boys respectively.

When GER was examined at secondary level of education, the rate for 2011, in total, was 70.1%, 71.9% for girls and 68.4% for boys, which is 3.8% higher than in 2010 on average and a 19.7% increase in comparison with 2004.

In summary, although the GER has plunged at primary level, there is a rise in subsequent levels of education in 2011, compared to 2010, for children of both sexes. Also on average, this rate shows an increasing trend in each year from 2004 to 2011, with some exceptions in the years in between for both sexes. The volume of GER is higher at primary level and lower by the higher levels of education. With this trend it can be assumed that the participation of children at each level of education is gradually increasing, regardless of the prescribed age for each level.

Table 8.26: Net enrolment rate trend by level of school, 2004-2011

School year	Net enrolment rate								
	Primary level			Lower Secondary level			Secondary level		
	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total	Girls	Boys	Total
2004	78	90.1	84.2	40.2	47.6	43.9	28.8	35.2	32
2005	83.4	90.1	86.8	43.1	49.8	46.5	29.2	35.5	32.4
2006	85.5	89.3	87.4	47.8	57.1	52.3	32.6	37	34.7
2007	87.4	90.7	89.1	49.6	56.1	52.9	32.8	37.7	35.3
2008	90.4	93.2	91.9	56.6	58	57.3	35	37.8	36.4
2009	92.6	94.7	93.7	61.9	64.3	63.2	40.1	41.4	40.8
2010	93.6	95.3	94.5	68.5	70	69.3	45.9	47	46.5
2011	94.5	95.6	95.1	69.5	70.5	70	51.4	52.7	52.1
2011-2010	0.9	0.3	0.6	1	0.5	0.7	5.5	5.7	5.6
2011-2004	16.5	5.5	10.9	29.3	22.9	26.1	22.6	17.5	20.1

Source: DEO, Flash I Report, 2004-2011

Looking at the Net Enrolment Rate (NER), it is an average of 95.1% at primary level, 70% at lower secondary level and 52.1% at secondary level in 2011. This rate continuously increases at all levels of education for both sexes for each year from 2004 to 2011. This indicates that there is an increasing trend of enrolment of children of the prescribed age at all levels of education over time. Participation of both boys and girls students seems to have increased at all levels of education. Nonetheless, the table also shows that as the level of education increases the proportion of NER decreases for both girls and boys.

Table 8.27: Enrolment rate by level of schooling and sex, Nepal

Level of education	Enrollment Rate					
	GER			NER		
	1995/96	2003/04	2010/11	1995/96	2003/04	2010/11
Primary (1-5)						
Boys	100	123	122	67	78	77
Girls	72	102	119	46	67	80
Total	86	112	121	57	72	78
Lower Secondary (6-8)						
Boys	46	74	85	23	31	43
Girls	31	67	90	14	26	41
Total	39	71	87	19	29	42
Secondary (9-10)						
Boys	16	62	81	13	17	30
Girls	6	46	67	6	13	26
Total	11	54	74	9	15	28
Higher Secondary (11-12)						
Boys	NA	26	77	NA	6	13
Girls	NA	20	75	NA	3	12
Total	NA	23	76	NA	5	13
Tertiary						
Boys	NA	8	23	NA	4	13
Girls	NA	2	13	NA	2	9
Total	NA	5	17	NA	3	10

Source: CBS, Nepal Living Standards Survey Reports, 1996, 2004, 2011

Data on enrolment rate has also been obtained from the Nepal Living Standards Survey (NLSS) Reports, 1996, 2004 and 2011. Table 8.27 presents data on enrolment rates for the survey years, which also provide an identical trend of Gross and Net enrolments as Flash Reports, despite subtle disparities in figures.

The NLSS data also shows that both NER and GER at all levels of education have been increasing and the gender gap in enrolment has been narrowing over the years. There has been a significant growth in the enrolment rates of girls compared to boys at all levels of education in the last 15 years. However, enrolments at higher levels were very low compared to enrolments at lower levels (78% NER at primary level against only 10% at tertiary level in 2010/11). This indicates a high level of dropouts at higher levels of education.

8.4.8. Health status of children

Childhood is an important stage of life; there is a long-term adverse impact on the wellbeing and development of children in the absence of proper health care and adequate nutrition during this period. A positive status of children's health indicates a healthy body and a proper functioning mind, which allows them to live a longer life without suffering from any forms of disorder. A healthy child enjoys an active and improved quality of life. Children need to be healthy for proper growth and development of their minds and bodies, to be able to focus in the classroom and fully participate in the activities of their childhood life and demonstrate increased performance and efficiency. They need proper nutrition, which includes carbohydrates, proteins, calcium, and minerals to lead a healthy life. They need to have vaccinations and all immunisations at the correct time. They need to gain in weight and height proportionately to their age. A regular medical check-up helps carers to learn from experts whether their child's development in terms of height and weight is appropriate for their age. There are a number of factors that contribute to diseases, improper diet, injury, mental stress, lack of hygiene, unhealthy lifestyle, etc. So parents and concerned persons should monitor the health behaviour of their children regularly.

Children require good health for development of their overall personality. CRC, in its article 6, has made a provision of children's right to survive and development. With this provision children have the right to live. Government should ensure their survival and healthy development. In article 24, CRC states children's right to health and health services. They should be provided with the best possible health care, safe drinking water, a clean and safe environment, nutritious food and adequate information that helps them to stay healthy. The Interim Constitution of Nepal in article 16 (2), under the Rights regarding Environment and Health, provides that every citizen shall have the right to basic health services free of cost from the State as provided for in the law. Immunisation services have been provided mainly through government facilities. The private sector and NGO clinics are also providing these services. The private sector has also provided immunisation services mainly in urban areas through hospitals, nursing homes and NGOs. The status of the health of children is also examined with figures obtained from other sources rather than the census data.

8.4.8.1 Childhood mortality

Childhood mortality, in general, refers to the probability of new-born children dying before their fifth birthday. This is one of the important indicators of the general medical and public health conditions of a country, which consequently indicates the level of socio-economic development as well. A decline in childhood mortality also indicates an improvement in general living standards of the country. Therefore a decline in childhood mortality is desirable. Rates of childhood mortality are expressed as deaths per 1,000 live births, except in the case of child mortality, which is expressed as deaths per 1,000 children surviving to age one. Universal immunisation of children against the six vaccine-preventable diseases, tuberculosis, diphtheria, whooping cough, tetanus, polio, and measles, is crucial to reducing infant and child mortality. *(Note: At present there are eight vaccines, which prevent the following vaccine preventable diseases: Tuberculosis (BCG) – at birth for first contact, Diphtheria, Pertussis, Tetanus, Hepatitis B, and Haemophilus influenza (DPY-HepB, Hib) – 6, 10 and 14 weeks, Polio (OPV) - 6, 10 and 14 weeks, Measles and Rubella (MR) – 9 months. However, as this chapter is focused on analysis of data of 2011 (mainly the 2011 population census), no developments subsequently made are discussed here.)*

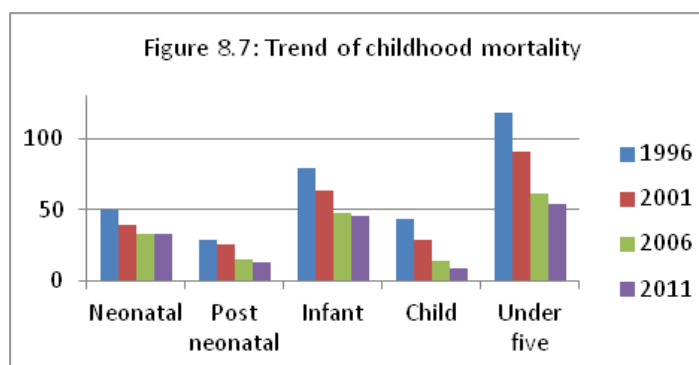
Table 8.28: Trends in childhood mortality¹ 1996-2011

Year/period	Mortalities				
	Neonatal	Post neonatal	Infant	Child	Under five
1996 (1991-1995)	50	29	79	43	118
2001 (1996-2000)	39	26	64	29	91
2006 (2001-2005)	33	15	48	14	61
2011 (2006-2010)	33	13	46	9	54

Source: NFHS, 1996, NDHS 2001, NDHS 2006, NDHS 2011

Childhood mortalities are observed to be increasingly higher in the earlier census years compared to 2011. Table 8.28 presents data on childhood mortality expressed by age categories from the Demographic and Health Survey carried out in 5 yearly interval periods from 1996 to 2011. In each of the survey year's childhood mortalities is declining. Neonatal mortality declined by 22% in 2001, 15% in 2006 and remained constant in the year 2011 in comparison to previous survey years. Post-neonatal mortality has declined by 10%, 42% and 13% in the years 2001, 2006 and 2011 respectively, compared to the corresponding data in previous survey years. Likewise, based on the previous survey years infant mortality has decreased by 19% 25% and 4%. Child mortality has decreased by 33%, 52% and 36% and Under-five Mortality by 23%, 33% and 11% respectively in the years 2001, 2006 and 2011. On average, based on the prevalence of childhood mortalities in the first two surveys (2001 & 2006 surveys), the decline in each type of childhood mortality appears faster than in 2011. Compared to national mortality in 1996, neonatal mortality rates have declined from 50% to 33% (34%), post-neonatal rates from 29% to 13% (55.2%), infant mortality rate from 79% to 46% (41.8%), child mortality rate from 43% to 9% (79.1%) and under-five mortality rates from 118% to 54% (54.2%) in 2011.

A remarkable gap exists between urban and rural areas regarding infant and under five mortality. Mortality rates of under five children in 2011 were 45% in urban and 64% in rural areas. Likewise urban-rural differentials in infant mortality are 38% and 55% respectively (CCWB, 2013). This is an indication of shifting childhood mortality to the desired trend. However the prevalence of these mortality rates is still very high in comparison to developed countries and among SAARC countries, which suggests that there is much still to achieved in this respect.



The survey results on childhood mortality have clearly shown a continuous declining trend over the 15 years since 1996. Improvements in health services and its access might be the reasons for this decline. In addition, there has been a significant impact by advocacy and awareness campaigns carried-out under different programmes by various gov-

¹ Note: Neonatal mortality (NN) : the probability of dying within the first month of life
 Post neonatal mortality (PNN) : the difference between infant and neonatal mortality
 Infant mortality (1q0) : the probability of dying between birth and the first birthday
 Child mortality (4q1) : the probability of dying between exact ages one and five
 Under-five mortality (5q0) : the probability of dying between birth and the fifth birthday

ernment organisations, local-government bodies, development partners and national as well as international NGOs. As a result mothers and families have become aware about the importance of health, nutrition and sanitation for children and that this bring about changes in their health behaviour.

8.4.8.2 Vaccination coverage

Vaccinations are very important in reducing child mortality and preventing diseases. The National Immunization Program (at the time known as the Expanded Program on Immunization) was initiated in 1979 in three districts with only two antigens (BCG and DPT) and was rapidly expanded to include all 75 districts with all six recommended antigens (BCG; DPT; oral polio vaccine-OPV; and measles) by 1988. All children should receive the suggested number of doses of these vaccines during their first year of life. All of the vaccines in the routine immunisation schedule are provided free of cost in all public health facilities in Nepal. According to WHO guidelines, children are considered fully immunised when they have received one dose of the vaccine against tuberculosis (BCG), three doses each of the DPT and polio vaccines, and one dose of the measles vaccine. BCG is given at birth or at first clinical contact; DPT and polio require three doses at approximately 6, 10, and 14 weeks of age; and the measles vaccine is given soon after 9 months of age (NDHS, 2011).

Table 8.29: Trend of immunisation coverage among 12-23 months children

Year	BCG	DPT 3	Polio 2	Measles	All Vaccines	None
1996	76	54	51	57	43	20
2001	85	72	92	71	66	1
2006	93	89	91	85	83	3
2011	97	92	93	88	87	3

Source: NFHS, 1996, NDHS 2001, NDHS 2006, NDHS 2011

Information on vaccination coverage among children age 12-23 months is shown in Table 8.29. This is the youngest cohort of children who have reached the age by which they should be fully immunised. Overall, 87% of children aged 12-23 months were fully immunised by the time of the survey. In regard to specific vaccines, 97% of children aged 12-23 months had received the BCG immunisation and 88% had been immunised against measles. Coverage of the first dose of the DPT and polio vaccines was relatively high (96% and 97%, respectively). However, only 92% and 93% of these children went on to receive the third dose of DPT and polio, respectively, contributing to a dropout of 5% and 4% between the first and third dose of the DPT and polio vaccines, respectively. There are minimal differences between DPT and polio vaccine coverage because these vaccines are administered at the same time. The findings show that 3% of children aged 12-23 months did not receive any vaccines at all (NDHS, 2011).

By examining data on vaccination coverage it can be seen that children receiving BCG has been approaching universal coverage at 97% in 2011, which was 76% in 1996. Likewise, coverage of all doses of DPT and polio has reached 92% and 93% respectively, which were 54% and 51% in 1996. Coverage of the measles vaccine increased to 88% from 57% between these two survey years. Children aged 12-23 months who completed all vaccines increased by 44 percentage points over 15 years reaching 87 % in 2011, which was just 43% in 1996. Children receiving none of the vaccines have declined to 3% in 2011 from 20% in 1996. There is a continuous increasing trend in the coverage of each vaccination in every survey year. The pace of vaccination coverage in Nepal is increasingly rapidly, which is encouraging.

8.4.8.3 Acute Respiratory Infections (ARI)

ARIs are a leading cause of childhood morbidity and mortality in Nepal. Early diagnosis and treatment with antibiotics can reduce the number of deaths caused by ARIs, particularly deaths resulting from pneumonia. Pneumonia has emerged as the leading cause of death among children under age five in Nepal. The prevalence of ARI symptoms varies according to the age of the child. Children aged 6-23 months were more likely to have symptoms of ARI (8%) than children in other age groups. There has been an increase in the past 15 years in the proportion of cases in which treatment is sought from a health facility for symptoms of pneumonia (from 18% in 1996 to 50% in 2011, NDHS, 2011).

8.4.8.4 Diarrhoea

Overall, 14% of all children under five had diarrhoea, with 2% having diarrhoea with blood. Children aged 6-23 months are most susceptible to diarrhoea. The prevalence of bloody diarrhoea is highest among children aged 12-23 months. The proportion of children with diarrhoea taken to a health provider for treatment has increased over time, from 14% in 1996 to 21% in 2001, 27% in 2006, and 38% in 2011. Twenty-four percent of children with diarrhoea are taken to government health facilities, and 23% are taken to private pharmacies; about 3% are taken to an FCHV for treatment (data not shown) (NDHS report, 2011).

8.4.9 Nutrition status of children

Adequate nutrition is critical to children's growth and development. The period from birth to age two is especially important for optimal physical, mental, and cognitive growth, health, and development. Unfortunately, this period is often marked by protein-energy and micronutrient deficiencies that interfere with optimal growth. The 2011 NDHS collected data on the nutritional status of children by measuring the height and weight of all children under age 5 in selected households. The data collected allows for the calculation of three indices: weight-for-age, height-for-age, and weight-for-height. Key findings about the nutritional level of children as per the 2011 Nepal Demographic and Health Survey report are shown in table 8.30.

Height-for-age

Table 8.30: Per cent distribution of stunting (height for age) of under five children

Residence	Data source				
	Year 2001		Year 2006	Year 2011	
	NDHS 2001	NLSS II	NDHS 2006	NLSS III	NDHS 2011
Nepal	50.5	50.4	49.3	41.5	40.5
Urban/Rural					
Urban	36.7	36.8	36.1	27.9	26.7
Rural	51.5	52.2	51.1	43.8	41.8
Ecological Zone					
Mountain	61.2	61.4	62.3	56.0	52.9
Hill	52.7	52.4	50.3	42.3	42.1
Tarai	47.1	47.3	46.3	38.6	37.4
Development Region					
Eastern	44.6	47.6	40.3	40.0	37.0
Central	52.3	50.0	50.0	38.4	38.2
Western	50.3	50.1	50.4	40.3	37.4
Mid Western	53.8	53.9	57.9	51.2	50.3
Far Western	53.7	54.0	52.5	41.4	46.4

Source: NFHS, 1996, NDHS 2001, NDHS 2006, NDHS 2011

Table 8.30 shows the nutritional status of children under age 5 based on the Nepal Demographic and Health Survey (NDHS) and the National Living Standards Surveys (NLSS). Nationally, around 41% of children under age 5 are stunted in 2011, which was more than 50% in 2001. Although survey reports show a gradual decrease in the stunting rate of under five children, the level of stunting is still high. A significant gap between urban and rural children is observed and stunting rates increase with an increase in altitude.

Weight-for-height

Table 8.31: Distribution of wasting (weight for height) of under five children

Residence	Data Source				
	Year 2001		Year 2006	Year 2011	
	NDHS 2001	NLSS II	NDHS 2006	NLSS III	NDHS 2011
Nepal	9.6	9.6	12.6	13.7	10.9
Urban/Rural					
Urban	8.2	7.8	7.5	11.0	8.2
Rural	9.7	9.8	13.3	14.2	11.2
Ecological Zone					
Mountain	6.2	5.3	9.4	9.0	10.9
Hill	5.7	5.9	8.4	6.9	10.6
Tarai	13.4	13.3	16.6	20.4	11.2
Development Region					
Eastern	7.8	9.1	10.1	13.1	10.2

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Residence	Data Source				
	Year 2001		Year 2006	Year 2011	
	NDHS 2001	NLSS II	NDHS 2006	NLSS III	NDHS 2011
Central	12.5	10.8	13.8	16.8	11.6
Western	7.0	8.9	10.9	10.9	10.4
Mid Western	8.2	8.8	11.6	12.0	11.3
Far Western	11.2	8.8	16.7	12.2	10.9

Source: NFHS, 1996, NDHS 2001, NDHS 2006, NDHS 2011
NLSS II, NLSS III

Table 8.31 also shows the nutritional status of children of less than age 5 years as measured by weight-for-height. Although data obtained from DHS and NLSS differs, the percentage of wasting children remains between 11% to 14% in the country. The level of wasting in infancy is substantially higher.

Weight-for-age

As shown in Table 8.32, 29% to 31% of children under age 5 are assumed to be underweight (low weight-for-age) in 2011, compared to 45% to 48% in 2001. This rate is very high in rural areas in comparison to urban residences. Children who are underweight is comparatively lower in the Hill region compared to Mountain and Tarai Regions.

Table 8.32: Distribution of under weight (weight for age) of under five children

Residence	Data Source				
	Year 2001		Year 2006	Year 2011	
	NDHS 2001	NLSS II	NDHS 2006	NLSS III	NDHS 2011
Nepal	48.3	45.2	38.6	31.1	28.8
Urban/Rural					
Urban	33.0	33.5	23.1	18.9	16.5
Rural	49.4	46.7	40.7	33.1	30.0
Ecological Zone					
Mountain	49.9	45.1	42.4	37.3	35.9
Hill	45.3	41.4	33.2	25.2	26.6
Tarai	50.6	48.4	42.3	35.2	29.5
Development Region					
Eastern	41.0	43.4	32.9	26.9	25.4
Central	51.7	44.7	38.2	33.3	29.5
Western	44.7	43.4	38.5	27.2	23.2
Mid Western	52.2	49.0	43.4	36.3	36.9
Far Western	54.6	48.9	43.7	30.5	32.6

Source: NDHS 2001, NDHS 2006, NDHS 2011
NLSS II 2003/04, NLSS III 2010/11

8.4.9.1 Breast-feeding

Breast-feeding is nearly universal in Nepal, and half of children born in the three years before the survey were breastfed for about 34 months or longer. More than 75% of children less than age 6 months are exclusively breastfed, and the median duration of exclusive breastfeeding is 4.2 months in 2011. The table above explains the fact that children in rural areas have longer duration of breast-feeding than in urban areas. Tarai region has the highest duration of breast-feeding and Far Western Region leads the other regions on duration of average breast-feeding (see table 8.33).

Residence	Year			
	1996	2001	2006	2011
Nepal	4.7	4.1	2.5	4.2
Urban/Rural				
Urban	3.9	0.8	2.2	3.4
Rural	4.8	4.3	2.6	4.3
Ecological Zone				
Mountain	3.3	3.3	2.1	3.2
Hill	3.8	3.6	3.2	3.3
Tarai	6.1	4.5	2.3	4.9
Development Region				
Eastern	4.4	3.8	2.2	3.6
Central	4.7	4.3	2.2	4.7
Western	4.2	3.4	3.2	3.6
Mid Western	5.4	4.9	3.4	4.0
Far Western	5.6	3.7	3.1	5.5

Source: NDHS 2001, NDHS 2006, NDHS 2011

According to data obtained from the Nepal Living Standard Survey-III, more than 75% of children are exclusively breast-fed and the average months for breast feeding a child is 20.5 months. Mothers start feeding additional foods to their children by seven months on average in the country. By rural area of residence, the Tarai Region by ecology and Western Region by administrative divisions of the Country are above the national standards for exclusive breast-feeding (see table 8.34).

Table 8.34 : Percentage distribution of breast feeding practice, 2011

Residence	% of children exclusively breast-fed for 6 months	Average duration (months) of breast feeding	Average months to start taking additional foods
Nepal	75.6	20.5	7.0
Urban/Rural			
Urban	68.5	17.3	6.7
Rural	76.8	16.6	7.1
Ecological Zone			
Mountain	72.6	12.4	6.0
Hill	70.0	16.2	6.2
Tarai	80.7	17.8	7.8
Development Region			
Eastern	69.1	20.5	6.7
Central	74.4	17.0	7.4
Western	77.4	17.9	6.9
Mid Western	79.5	12.3	6.8
Far Western	85.0	12.5	6.5

Source: CBS, NLSS III (2011)

8.4.9.2 Supplementary food

Complementary foods are not introduced in a timely fashion for all children. 70% of breastfed children have been given complementary foods by age 6-9 months. Overall, only one-fourth of children ages 6-23 months are fed appropriately, based on recommended infant and young child feeding (IYCF) practices. 46% of children aged 6-59 months are anaemic, 27% are mildly anaemic, 18% are moderately anaemic, and less than 1% are severely anaemic (NDHS, 2011).

Forty-one per cent of children under five years of age are stunted, 11% are wasted, and 29% are underweight. In general, the nutritional status of children in Nepal has improved over the past 15 years and is close to achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) target of reducing the percentage of underweight children aged 6-59 months to 29% by 2015. Table 8.29 shows a downward trend in stunting and underweight children over time. The percentage of stunted children declined by 14% between 2001 and 2006 and declined by an additional 16% between 2006 and 2011. A similar pattern is observed for the percentage of underweight children, which dropped by 9% between 2001 and 2006 and by 26% between 2006 and 2011. Similarly, the percentage of wasting declined by 15% between 2006 and 2011 (NDHS, 2011).

8.5 Economic activities of children

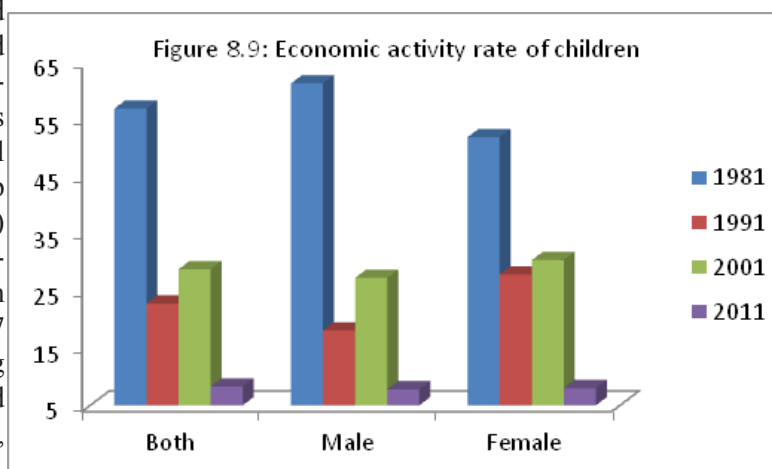
Acts and regulations have provisions to prevent children from being used in economic activities, such as work for earning money, household labour, factory work or any type of labour work and employment etc. The Interim Constitution of Nepal, 2063 ensures the rights of children against involvement in hazardous work and recruitment in the Army, Police and being used in armed conflict. Article 22 of the

constitution has elaborated rights of children as fundamental rights and sub-article (5) explicitly states that ‘no minor shall be employed in factories, mines or in any other such hazardous work or shall be used in army, police or in conflicts’. Article 32 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), 1989, has obliged state parties to be responsible in ensuring the rights of the child against economic exploitation, such as any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child’s education, or to be harmful to the child’s health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development. The Government is obliged to provide appropriate regulations with provisions of penalties to enforce this right. The Government of Nepal has ratified the ILO Convention No. 29 concerning forced labour in 2007 and the ILO Convention No. 138 regarding the minimum age of employment and the ILO Convention No 182 regarding the worst form of child labour in 1997 and 2002 respectively.

The Government of Nepal has made its best efforts to ensure the rights of children against child labour and economic exploitation through legislative and programmatic measures. The ‘Labour Act, 2048’ prohibits child labour. The Child Labour (Prohibition and regulation) Act, 2056 explicitly bans the use of children below age 14 in labour work. Children below the age of 16 are prohibited from hazardous work. The National Plan of Action on Children (2004/5-2014/15) and the National Child Policy (2012) have prioritised child labour issues. The Ministry of Labour and Employment through the ‘Master Plan on Child Labour (2004-14)’ has set a target to eliminate the worst forms of child labour by 2016 and other forms by 2020. In addition, the National Master Plan on Child Labour is harmonised with other National Plans of Action, in particular with the NPA on Children, NPA on Trafficking in Children and Women and NPA on HIV/AIDS. The Government has been working to minimise child labour in the country through preventive, curative as well as rehabilitative measures, targeting the worst forms of hazardous child labour. The Government has abolished Kamalhari system (bonded female child labour) and Kamalharis have been rescued and rehabilitated in their communities in five districts. Despite all of these efforts, a rapid increase in child labour and children’s economic activities in invisible and informal sectors has been observed, although child labour in the formal sector has decreased. In the following paragraphs a brief overview of children’s economic activities and its trends are made on the basis of census data.

8.5.1 Economically active children

Most children in Nepal work in the informal sector, the majority in agriculture and household chores, and start helping their parents at the age of five; widely regarded as normal and necessary for economic reasons. Data presented in Table 8.35 shows the number and percentage distribution of the child population at the age group of 10-14 years by sex in the four censuses since 1981 to 2011. Out of the total number of children in age group 10-14, a total of 972,698 (56.9%) children were reported to be involved in economic activities in 1981, 563,361 males and 409,337 female children. The following censuses showed a declining trend in the number and percentage term, with a minor exception in the 2001



census Twenty-two percent, 28% and 8.3% of children were involved in economic activities in the 1991, 2001 and 2011 censuses respectively. In 1981 the participation of male children in economic activities was higher (61.3% compared to 51.9%) whereas there is a dominance of female children in subsequent years. Although the volume of children's participation in economic activities has fallen from around 57% to 8.3% in the past 30 years, an appalling fact has also come to light that there are some 1,600,000 child labourers in the country, out of which some 620,000 children are engaged in hazardous work (CCWB, 2013).

Table 8.35: Number and percentage of economically active children aged 10-14 years by sex, 1981-2011

Census year	Both		Male		Female	
	Population	Per cent	Population	Per cent	Population	Per cent
1981	972,698	56.9	563,361	61.3	409,337	51.9
1991	531,835	22.8	218,979	18.1	312,856	27.9
2001	859,812	28.8	419,307	27.3	440,505	30.4
2011	280,502	8.3	133,338	7.8	133,338	8.0

*Source: CBS, Population census 1981, Vol. I Part V, Table 21
CBS, Population census 1991, Vol. I Part XIII, Table 50
CBS, Population census 2001, National Report Vo. II, Table 25
CBS, Population census 2011, Vo 5, Part IX, Table 53*

8.5.2 Occupation of children

The percentage distribution of economically active children by sex is given in Table 8.36 with the major occupation groups they are involved in, as per the data obtained from the 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011 censuses. From all four censuses, data shows that the major occupations that children are active in are agriculture, fishery and forestry works. Involvement in other sectors such as service and sales work, crafts work, plant and machine operation and assembling works are more evident since the 1991 census and onwards. The ratio of children's involvement in the agriculture sector and economic activities declined dramatically in the 2001 and 2011 censuses because of their shift to other occupations, mainly elementary occupations or intermediate work, such as street vending, door-to-door visiting vendor, shoe cleaning, street barbers, domestic helpers, cleaners, watch persons, garbage collectors etc. Nearly 29% and 22% of children of both sexes were involved in this new sector in 2001 and 2011 respectively, with a roughly similar proportion of male and female children. The popularity of craft and related sales works among working children has increased gradually over the census years (see Table 8.31). Children's involvement in white collared occupations is not significant. Although the proportion of children engaged in agriculture and related work has reduced to about 61% in 2001 and 2011 from 97% in 1981 and 89% in 1991; the proportion of female children in fact increased in this sector from 63% in 2001 to 69.1% in 2011 as against 54% of male children. This is indicative of female children remaining in villages and contributing to the feminisation of agriculture.

Table 8.36: Percentage distribution of usually economically active children aged 10-14 by occupation (1981-2011)

Census year	Sex	Occupation								Total	Population
		White collared	Service & sale workers	Skilled agri., forestry & fishery workers	Craft and related trades workers	Plant & machine operators & assemblers	Elementary occupations	Other	Not stated		
1981	Both	0.2	0	97.2	0.1	1.4	NA	0.8	NA	100	972,698
	Male	0.2	0	96.7	0.2	1.7	NA	1	NA	100	563,361
	Female	0.1	0	97.9	0.1	0.9	NA	0.6	NA	100	409,337
1991	Both	0	6.5	88.8	0.6	2.3	NA	1	0.4	100	531,835
	Male	0	9.6	83.4	1	3.4	NA	1.6	0.4	100	218,979
	Female	0	4.3	92.5	0.4	1.6	NA	0.5	0.4	100	312,856
2001	Both	0	2.1	61.5	6.5	0.2	28.8	NA	0.3	100	609,415
	Male	0	3	60	5.6	0.2	30.2	NA	0.3	100	288,475
	Female	0	1.3	62.9	7.4	0.1	27.6	NA	0.2	100	320,939
2011	Both	0.1	4	61	7.7	0	21.9	NA	5.3	100	104,714
	Male	0.2	5.5	54.1	11.1	0	22.9	NA	6.2	100	56,267
	Female	0.1	2.2	69.1	3.7	0	20.7	NA	4.1	100	48,447

Note: White collared includes Legislator, Professional, Clerk or office assistant.

Source: CBS, Population census 1981, Vol. I Part V, Table 24

CBS, Population census 1991, Vol. I Part XIII, Table 51

CBS, Population census 2001, National Report Vo. II, Table 28

CBS, Population census 2011, Vo 5, Part X, Table 55

8.5.3 Industrial sector of working children

Table 8.37 shows data on the percentage distribution of children aged 10-14 years who were usually involved in economic activities by major industrial sector during the census years 1981 to 2011. The major sectors children are active in are agriculture, forestry and fishing related industries. A total of 96.8%, 88.9%, 69.8% and 69.3% of children of both sexes were involved in these sectors in the 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011 census periods respectively. The second major sector of industries which they are active in is the category of 'Other Industrial sector', which may include electricity, gas and water, transport, communication and other services. The popularity of this sector has been progressively increasing over the span of time and almost 17% of working children were occupied in this sector in 2011, which was just 2 % more as reported by the 1981 census. Mining and quarrying, and the construction and manufacturing sector were third in size in terms of children's involvement, with a clear incremental trend over the census years.

Table 8.37: Percentage distribution of usually economically active children age 10-14 by major industrial sector, 1981-2011.

Census year	Sex	Major industry				Total	Population
		Agriculture, forestry and fishing	Mining and quarrying, Construction and Manufacturing	Other Industry	Not Stated		
1981	Both	96.8	0.1	2.1	0.8	100.0	972,698
	Male	96.3	0.1	2.6	0.8	100.0	563,361
	Female	97.5	0.1	1.4	0.9	100.0	409,337
1991	Both	88.9	1.8	7.6	0.9	100.0	531,835
	Male	83.5	2.2	12.8	1.2	100.0	218,979
	Female	92.6	1.6	5.3	0.6	100.0	312,856
2001	Both	69.8	7.9	21	0.3	100.0	609,415
	Male	71.3	7.4	20.8	0.3	100.0	288,475
	Female	68.6	8.3	22.9	0.3	100.0	320,939
2011	Both	69.3	8.5	16.9	5.3	100.0	104,714
	Male	62.9	12.0	16.9	6.1	100.0	56,267
	Female	76.8	4.4	14.5	4.4	100.0	48,447

Source: CBS, Population census 1981, Vol. I Part V, Table 24
 CBS, Population census 1991, Vol. I Part XIII, Table 52
 CBS, Population census 2001, National Report Vo. II, Table 30
 CBS, Population census 2011, Vo 5, Part X, Table 56

As stated in the section above, although the proportion of children engaged in agriculture, forestry and fishing industry is declining, the proportion of female children engaged in this sector still remains high at 76.8% in 2011; clearly indicating that female children are remaining in villages and contributing to the feminisation of agriculture.

8.5.4 Status of working children

Table 8.38 presents the percentage distribution of the economically active child population (10-14 years age) by employment status. A major proportion of the total economically active children are self-employed, although it is a declining trend. Children of self-employed status were 90.7% in 1981 with an identical ratio of male and female children, which has reduced to 52.2% in the 2011 census with about 45% of male and 61% female children. The second major number of children were reported as employed children. An inverse relationship among these two statuses of employment is observed, as the number of self-employed is a declining trend while the number of employee children is an increasing trend. The percentage of employee children has reached 21.1% in 2011, which was observed at 3.4% in the year 1981. Another status of economically active children is as ‘unpaid family worker’, which showed a rising trend until 2001 and dramatically declined in 2011. The reason behind this reduction may be raised awareness in families and communities about the rights of the child and legislations

related to this during this period. The proportion of children increase in educational participation may also be the reason for this decline. Although the proportion is less, it is interesting to note that economically active children are also among the employer, which has showed a consistent increasing trend. In 2011 employer children accounted for 3.8%, which was observed as just 0.1 % in the 1981 census. However, considering Section 4.5: “Children as the household head”, which increased dramatically in 2001 and 2011 and was attributed to children aged 10-14 years losing both parents during the armed conflict and becoming the heads of the household, an increase in the “employer” category is inevitable in the censuses of 2001 and 2011 when children as heads of household had to employ adult workers for various kinds of works.

Table 8.38: Employment status of usually economically active children by sex, 1981-2011

Census years	Children's sex	Employment status					Total per cent	Population
		Employer	Employee	Self-employed	Unpaid family worker	Not stated		
1981	Both	0.1	3.4	90.7	4.2	1.3	100	972,698
	Male	0.1	4.3	90.6	3.4	1.3	100	563,361
	Female	0.1	2.1	90.9	5.4	1.3	100	409,337
1991	Both	0.2	16.3	71.5	11.2	0.6	100	531,835
	Male	0.2	24.6	64.2	10.1	0.6	100	218,979
	Female	0.2	10.4	76.6	12	0.6	100	212,856
2001	Both	3.2	12.3	37.8	46.5	-	100	609,414
	Male	3.1	12.3	37.8	46.5	-	100	288,475
	Female	3.3	9.3	42.1	45.1	-	100	320,939
2011	Both	3.8	30.1	52.2	7.8	6.2	100	104,714
	Male	3.6	37.8	44.9	7.2	6.5	100	56,267
	Female	4	21.1	60.7	8.5	5.7	100	48,447

Source: CBS, Population census 1981, Vol. I Part V, Table 25
CBS, Population census 1991, Vol. I Part XIII, Table 53
CBS, Population census 2001, National Report Vo. II, Table 32
CBS, Population census 2011, Vo 5, Part XI, Table 60

8.5.5 Domestic worker

Child domestic workers are one of the forms of ‘child labour’ that work for money in others’ household or family. Their usual work involves cleaning, cooking, baby sitting, washing, massaging, kitchen gardening, carrying things etc. Normally these children work not only for a very low salary but sometimes even only for food twice a day. They have to work hard but they earn less. Child domestic workers are generally known as ‘servants’ at the household and are usually mistreated by the family members whom they work for. These children cannot enjoy their fundamental rights. They are deprived of education, proper health care, nutrition, entertainment, hygiene and many others they deserve as a right. In the 2001 census, information on domestic workers was collected for the first time.

Table 8.39: Percentage distribution of domestic worker by sex and broad age group, 2010-2011

Age group	2001				2011			
	Domestic workers				Domestic workers			
	Unit	Both sexes	Male	Female	Unit	Male	Female	Both sexes
14 Years & below	No.	17,803	8,246	9557	No.	7,526	7,991	15,517
	%	100	46.3	53.7	%	48.50	51.50	100.00
15 Years & over	No.	39,492	27,751	11,741	No.	25,920	16,001	41,921
	%	100	70.3	29.7	%	61.83	38.17	100.00
All ages	No.	57,295	35,997	21,298	No.	33,446	23,992	57,438
	%	100	62.8	37.2	%	58.23	41.77	100.00

Source: CBS, *Population census in Gender Perspective, Population census Vo. I, Table 2.6*
CBS, Population census 2011, Special Tabulation

Table 8.39 shows the number and percentage of domestic child workers from 2001 and 2011 census by sex and broad age group. In the 2001 census, 17,803 (46.3% male and 53.7% female) children aged 14 and below were domestic workers, which has declined to 7,526 (48.5% male and 51.5% female) children in 2011. The number of domestic worker children at another age group, ‘15 years and above’, is shown as 39,492 in 2001 which increased to 41,921 children in the 2011 census. This underlines the fact that the number of domestic worker children is decreasing whereas it is escalating among children of age 15 and above. The interesting outcome noted in both censuses is that the total number (all ages) of children involved in domestic work was almost the same, 57,295 children in 2001 and 57,438 children in the 2011 census, which can be explained, as the number of children as domestic workers is declining at the age group of 14 and below whereas it is increasing among the age group 15 and above, but the size of child domestic workers remains almost the same or a negligible rise is seen. The decline in domestic workers aged 14 years and below can be attributed to the Child Labour (Prohibition and regulation) Act, 2056 of child labour below the age of 14 years.

8.6 Problems of children in Nepal

Children in Nepal face many problems that hinder the realisation of their rights. Despite continued efforts made by the government, different antisocial, political and even cultural activities practiced in the country have prevented children from exercising their rights. Many children are not getting proper care, support and freedom to enjoy their childhood within the family because of familial environments, economic conditions and the discriminatory behaviour of guardians. Political parties often use children for their political purposes, which is against the principles of child rights.

8.6.1 Child labour

Children are forced to work in factories, transportation sectors, business sectors, restaurants, night/dance clubs, construction sectors and many more sectors as labourers with negligible or no payment. Besides, a significant number of children work as domestic workers in different cities of the country who also receive minimal or no wages. Bonded labour is another awful issue that children of specific

regions and ethnicity face. A large number of children are active in household work in their own family instead of going to school. Thousands of children are homeless and spend their life on the streets. Family is the only appropriate natural environment for the development and welfare of children. But a large number of children are being deprived of an opportunity to live and grow within their family due to various reasons. Due to poverty and family separation, children are on the street and are victims of labour exploitation.

8.6.2 Harmful practices

Traditional harmful practices such as Witchcraft, Deuki, Jhuma, and Chhaupadi systems evoke thoughts of the Stone Age. Children are mistreated; they are discriminated against on the basis of caste, ethnicity, race, colour, sex, religion, convictions, economic status, disability, and their parent's occupation and on many other grounds. Children suffer from practices based on superstitions and traditional beliefs.

8.6.3 Child marriage

Although it is illegal, the tradition of early, forced and child marriage still prevails in different societies of the country. Child marriage has been a practice for a long time in different ethnic communities and caste groups. A law against child marriage does exist since the enactment of "Muluki Ain 2020" (General Code) in Nepal. The provisions of the act consider child marriage as an offence against the state but the penalties imposed for this offence are not well implemented. Child marriage has dangerous impacts on the girl child. Child marriage restricts their rights to education, health and reproductive health. Married girls and women get very few opportunities to continue their education and have a higher probability of getting pregnant in the early years of their life and having more children. Similarly, they face risks related to reproductive health, which makes them more vulnerable to sexually transmitted infections. Child marriage has a negative impact on the psychology of girls and women as there is a high probability of them becoming victims of gender based violence; which results in acute depression and trauma. The dowry system, which prevails in some societies of the country, is one of the reasons for early and unequal (mismatched) marriage for girls that leads to further vulnerability. Children are physically and mentally disabled, they are AIDS affected and HIV infected. There is a lack of adequate institutional provision for the rehabilitation of children suffering from conflict, HIV/AIDS and trafficking.

8.6.4 Abuse, hardship, negligence, harmful practices, discrimination etc.

The problems children face, and the risks they are exposed to, have narrowed their rights due to poverty, lack of education, family breakdowns, a ten-year long armed conflict, and incidents of terror, exploitation and abuse. Children who are abandoned and separated from their family and whose parents are unidentified or whose parents and family are not able to care and protect them because of physical or mental inabilities and due to poverty are in need of special care and protection. Children live on the street or in public places or beg for a living. Many children are homeless and have no other means to earn a livelihood. Children are at risk of death due to drug abuse or serious physical or mental harm and their parents or families are not able to afford treatment. Children are abandoned and orphaned. They are trafficked for work and sexual exploitation. They are abducted and assassinated.

Children are victimised by or vulnerable to sexual abuse, sexual exploitation, and trafficking and are unable to return to families/communities because of neglect and further abuse. Children are victims of violence, discrimination, neglect or exclusion because they are used for religious, traditional, cultural

and customary purposes. Children are also affected by natural or human made disasters, and have been affected by armed conflict or the violence of armed groups or involved in armed conflict. In addition they are also forced to work in the worst types of labour.

8.6.5 Weak implementation of laws and regulation

Despite various efforts made in the past for the protection of child rights and a child's welfare and development, no improvement in the situation of children has been achieved. Birth registration of children is very low, child mortality rates are yet to come down as expected. There are many children suffering from disability, injuries and mental and psychological illness as a consequence of a decade-long armed conflict. Although admission rates of children in primary school are increasing, girl's admission rate is comparatively low. Many children from poor and marginalised groups are deprived of their rights to education. The family is the only appropriate natural environment for the development and welfare of children. But a large number of children are being deprived of an opportunity to live and grow within their family due to various reasons. Due to poverty and family separation, children are on the street and are victims of labour exploitation. Millions of children have lost their lives due to various communicable but curable diseases. The use of children in mass gatherings, conferences and seminars in the name of child participation is unnecessarily on the rise, which exposures children to various harmful factors.

The implementation of current laws related to the protection of children, social security, sexual exploitation and abuse has been weak. Juvenile justice and administration is ineffective. No improvements have been made, as expected, for children of Dalits, Adivasi Janjatis, Madhesi, and Muslims, children with disabilities, and poverty stricken families in their access to services and social security. Likewise, the social security and rehabilitation of children has not been sufficient for children in child labour, those affected by conflict, and children at risk. Dropout rates in school are significant in number. Infant and child mortality rates are still high compared to other South Asian countries. Many children are starving and many are compelled to beg on the street to survive. Children are being used unnecessarily in seminars, gatherings, conferences, and processions in the name of participation. Many problems that Nepalese children face can be observed and these problems certainly lend uncertainty to their future lives and increase their vulnerabilities.

8.7 Nepal's commitments on children issues

Nepal has expressed commitments in the international arenas for the development of the child, protection of child rights and child participation by ratifying the United Nations Child Rights Conventions 1989 on September 14, 1990. Similarly, in 2006 Nepal ratified the Optional Protocol to the Child Rights Conventions on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography 2000.

Nepal has also committed not to use children in armed conflict by ratifying the Optional Protocol to the Child Rights Convention on the Involvement of Children in Armed Conflict 2000. In addition, Nepal has ratified other Conventions including the ILO Convention on the Worst Forms of Child Labour 1999. Nepal has also been part of different regional conventions and agreements of SAARC countries. A permanent secretariat for South Asia Initiatives to End Violence Against Children (SAIEVAC) has been established in Nepal. The Interim Constitution of Nepal, 2063 makes provisions for the protection, empowerment and development of children by introducing laws. Likewise, the Constitution stipulates that a child shall have rights to free education and have the right to his/her identity and name. The Constitution guarantees that every child shall have rights to nurture, basic health and social security, and rights against physical, mental or any other forms of exploitations. According to the Constitution, no

minor shall be forced to work in any factory, mine or engage in any such dangerous work or recruited in army, police or used in conflict.

Despite numerous constraints the Government has felt the need to initiate campaigns against all forms of violations of child rights and all of the exploitations against children. The post democratic governments have made the required amendments in the Child Protection Act to ensure that the rights of children are protected at any cost. It was amidst this atmosphere that the convention of the rights of a child was ratified; the Declaration of the World Summit for Children was signed and child rights found a place in the Constitution of Nepal. The establishment of a special juvenile bench in courts to deal with child related justice procedures is a major step forward in protecting the rights of children.

Nepal has formulated and implemented the Children's Act, 1991 and Children's Regulation, 1994 to safeguard the rights of children. Similarly, Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, 1999 and Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Regulation, 2005 have been formulated. A separate Juvenile Justice (Procedure), Regulation, 2006 has come into operation in the area of juvenile justice. In spite of the preparation of such acts and regulations, they have not been effective to implement the provision of child rights in accordance with Nepal's international commitments. Implementation of these Acts and Regulations appear not to be satisfactory due to the lack of a separate and clear policy relating to children. Against this background, a National Policy relating to Children, 2012, has been formulated for the first time in Nepal in order to fulfil Nepal's international commitments and address challenges that children face in Nepal. It is expected that the Policy will help improve children's Acts and Regulations, bring uniformity in child-related programmes of different agencies, support the effective implementation of Acts and Regulations and strengthen organisations working for children's rights in the best interest of children. Likewise, issues related to child rights have been changed from a welfare-based approach to a rights-based approach through the prioritisation of child-related policies and programmes in the periodic plans. The Government of Nepal has formulated and implemented a 10-year national Action Plan for the development of children, focusing on the main issues of child rights such as safety, protection and development of children. A comprehensive standard for childcare homes has been formulated and implemented to protect the rights of children in institutional childcare centres.

With the purpose of child development and to ensure child rights are addressed in the country, an extension and development of institutional arrangements has also made. The Department of Women Development has been transformed into the Department of Women and Children and District Women Development Offices into Women and Children Office and they have been given responsibility to look after child-related issues. On issues related to child rights and child protection, the Central Child Welfare Board at the central level and the District Child Welfare Board in all 75 districts have been working as focal points. The Juvenile Justice Coordination Committee has been working to promote child friendly juvenile justice systems. Other institutional arrangements include District Child Protection Committees and village-level Child Protection Committees. The issue of child protection and development is not only the responsibility of the Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare, it is also linked to other ministries such as the Ministry of Health, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Peace and Reconstruction, National Planning Commission, Ministry of Labour and Employment, Ministry of Federal Affairs and Local Development to carry out various activities to address issues of child rights and development. A national master plan on the abolition of child labour and the National Action Plan related to education for all (2060–2075) are examples of this. The Government has been providing formal and informal education free of cost, or at a lower cost, in some cases. Children who are poor, disabled, Dalits, martyrs or girls have been provided with hostels, day meals, cooking oil, school uniform, and free textbooks and educational materials, including scholarships, in order to increase their access to education. Health

facilities at the village level have been providing nutrition information, Vitamin A and basic and essential health services for free or for a nominal charge. Immunisation campaigns have been launched. Awareness raising programmes have been conducted on birth registration and child rights.

In the last few years, national plans of action have been developed in various sectors to address children's issues in Nepal. These, among others, include: National Plans of Action for Education for All (2001–2015), the Second Long-Term Health Plan (1997–2017), the Health Sector Strategy: Programme for Reforms, 2002/03, the National HIV/AIDS Strategic Plan (2006–2011), Implementation Plan for the Health Sector Programme (2004–2009), Second Phase of Implementation Plan for Health Sector Programme (2010–2015), Population Perspective Plan (2010–2031), National Plan of Action against Labour, Sexual Exploitation and Trafficking of Women and Children (2002), National Plan of Action on Convention for Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (2003), National Plan of Action on Human Rights (2003), National Plan of Action on Beijing +5, and National Plan of Action on Rights of the Disabled (2003). These plans are currently being implemented. As child rights and child development are related to the development and administrative processes of all other sectors, this NPA is interrelated directly and indirectly with other national plans of actions.

Since the First Five-Year Plan in 1956, the Government of Nepal has been developing and implementing programmes related to children (primarily education and health). Following ratification of the CRC, there has been an increase in such initiatives. Accordingly, the Government of Nepal incorporated, to some extent, the issue of child rights in the Ninth Five-Year Plan 1997/98–2001/02. The Tenth Five-Year Plan 2002/03–2006/07 incorporated child rights as a crosscutting issue for all sectors. This has continued in all subsequent plans. This NPA relates to the CRC and Declaration of the UNGASS on Children as well as other national plans of action being implemented. It is imperative to have a clear and collaborative system for implementation of the NPA. All implementing agencies, ministries, departments, district constituent offices, local bodies, user groups and external development partners are responsible for implementing the NPA in an integrated and results-oriented manner, since children's issue are of concern to the national plans of action of all sectors (MOWCSW, 2005).

The government has stipulated specific strategies and policies to bring the rights of children into action and the overall development of Nepali children such as; bringing about improvements in legislation; creating child-friendly environments in all sectors related to children; promoting child participation; providing free education to all children, including all socially excluded groups of children; providing special education to disabled children in an effective manner; improving institutional arrangements; enhancing collaboration and partnership with development partners; eliminating the worst forms of child labour; reducing activities being carried out contrary to child rights such as child labour, sexual exploitation, sexual abuse and sale by taking protective, promotional and rehabilitative measures; rehabilitating children affected by armed conflict and other difficult circumstances; and mobilizing development partners, NGOs, civil society and the private sector to achieve these objectives.

8.8 Child rights in a nutshell

Child Rights are the fundamental rights of children. In other words they can be termed as 'human rights of children'. Child rights are "the human rights of children with particular attention to the rights of special protection and care afforded to minors, including their right to association with both parents, human identity as well as the basic needs for food, universal state-paid education, health care and criminal laws appropriate for the age and development of the child, equal protection of the child's civil rights,

and freedom from discrimination on the basis of the child's race, gender, sexual orientation, gender identity, national origin, religion, disability, colour, ethnicity, or other characteristics. Interpretations of children's rights range from allowing children the capacity for autonomous action to the enforcement of children being physically, mentally and emotionally free from abuse, although what constitutes «abuse» is a matter of debate. Other definitions include the rights to care and nurturing»(Children's Right, n.d.).

The United Nations' 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child, or CRC, is the first legally binding international instrument to incorporate the full range of human rights, civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights. The Committee on the Rights of the Child monitors its implementation. National governments that ratify it commit themselves to protecting and ensuring children's rights, and agree to hold themselves accountable for this commitment before the international community. The CRC is the most widely ratified human rights treaty with 190 ratifications. Somalia and the USA are the only two countries that have not ratified the CRC. The CRC is based on four core principles namely the principle of non discrimination, the best interests of the child, the right to life, survival and development, and considering the views of the child in decisions which affect them according to their age and maturity (Children's Right, n.d.).

The United Nations Convention on The Rights of The Child which is abbreviated and popularly known as «CRC» is the most significant international law for children. This convention has determined what rights all children of the world should have. Every person, including children, has human rights regardless of their age. But children have some special rights of their own, as they need special protection and guidance from adults, which are called children's rights. Such rights are introduced in the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC). This convention applies equally to both girls and boys up to the age of 18, even if they are married or already have children of their own. The convention is guided by the principles of 'Best Interest of the Child' and 'Non-discrimination' and 'Respect for views of the child' and emphasises the importance of the family and the need to create an environment that is conducive to the healthy growth and development of children. It lays out four sets of child rights and has made it obligatory for states to respect these rights and ensure that children get a fair and equitable deal in society.

1. Right to survival which mainly includes the right to life, right to health, right to nutrition, right to adequate standard of living, right to identity and nationality.
2. Right to protection includes freedom from all type of exploitation, abuse, inhuman or degrading treatment and neglect. It also consists of special protection of children in special circumstances like situations of emergency and armed conflicts, in case of disability etc.
3. Right to development includes right to education, support for early childhood care and development, social security, right to leisure, recreation and cultural activities.
4. Right to participation includes respect for the views of the child, freedom of expression, and access to appropriate information, freedom of thought, conscience and religion.

These rights are dependent on each other and are indivisible and can be categorised into two broad factions as Immediate Rights and Progressive Rights.

- Immediate rights (Civil and Political Rights) which include such issues as discrimination, punishment, right to a fair hearing in criminal cases and a separate system of juvenile justice, right to life,

right to nationality, right to re-unification with the family. Most protection rights fall within the category of immediate rights and therefore demand immediate attention and intervention.

- Progressive rights (Economic, Social and Cultural Rights), which include health and education and rights that are not covered by the Immediate Rights category. State parties shall undertake such measures to the maximum extent of their available resources and, where needed, within the framework of international co-operation (Child Right Handbook, n.d.).

8.9 Findings and conclusion

Children of today are policy-makers and builders of the nation in the future. Children, normally, are immature and dependent on others for their living. They do not know what is right or wrong for them. Proper education, care and opportunities given to them now will determine their future as well as the future of the nation. It is the responsibility of parents and family, communities, larger society and the state, for their nurture, care, development and protection and they need special attention and care and their issues have to be well reflected in the development planning process of the country.

Nepal has expressed commitments at the international level in relation to child rights, the Interim Constitution of Nepal, 2063 provisions for the constitutional guarantee in regard to child rights and child-related legislation have been formulated and implemented. Emphasis on protection and promotion of child rights and the overall development of children are being integrated in the planning process from the national to local level. Despite all these efforts, a large number of children are still deprived of their basic needs and rights. So, special attention is required to secure the rights of children, with a focus on the deprived section of these children.

This chapter has highlighted a few aspects about the child population and indicated trends as revealed by the decennial population censuses 1981-2001. Problems related to the development of children should be addressed through state interventions such as harmful traditional practices, out of school children, homeless, abandoned and street children, children suffering from trafficking and sexual exploitation, discriminated children, child labour, children in extreme poverty, children with no access to health services and education, child marriage, malnourished children, children affected by HIV/AIDS, conflict affected children, children who are victims of the dowry system, children with drug addictions, physically and mentally disabled children, and children in difficult circumstances etc.

Within all these problematic scenarios related to Nepalese children, the census results have indicated some positive trends. The fertility rate has been declining continuously over the census years helping to reduce the size of families and the future population size to a desired number. But the imbalances in the distribution of the child population, between rural-urban and geographical regions are still prevailing. The rate of child marriage is a declining trend but it is still high among girl children and extremely high in rural settings. The number of children with disabilities has increased in comparison to 2001. The ratio of children living with their biological parents and relatives appears satisfying; but the number of household heads who are children is on the rise. Progress in literacy, school attendance and enrolment is encouraging but dropout rates appear to be high. The childhood mortality rate has declined but the degree of prevalence is still high. A remarkable improvement in immunisation coverage has been achieved but there are disparities in the nutritional status of children. The number of child labourers and economically active children is alarming.

8.10 Policy recommendations

The government is putting its best efforts through various legislative and programmatic measures to promote and ensure the rights of children. But the implementation part is weak and children in Nepal still face many problems leading to uncertainties and vulnerabilities in their future lives. The results from the 2011 population census show improvements in many aspects of children's overall development and the situation of child rights in the country, but it does not mean that it is in anyway perfect. Achievements made in this sector are encouraging but much more is still to be done.

Overall, this study has revealed some mixed results on the state of Nepalese Children and concluded with the perception that the situation of children is improving in the country. Significant achievements have been made so far in all areas of interventions, particularly in legislation reformation, the planning process, institutional development, child health, education, as well as in advocacy and awareness raising activities in these sectors. But the vulnerability of children in poverty, who live in remote areas or who are affected by conflict is still mounting. Based on this study the following measures are recommended.

1. **Child marriage:** Despite the legal restriction and the rapid decline in child marriage, marriage of children below 14 years age is still alarmingly high. The proportion of girl child marriage against boys is more than double. Children below 18 years are found to be in different marital statuses such as married, remarried, multiple married, widowed, divorced and separated, even though they have not reached the legal age for entering into a marital union. Children are included in all of these marital segments from a very early age of their schooling, while the number of disabilities among them is eye-catching. (see Annex tables). It is recommended that legislation should be reformed that focuses on preventing children from marrying, which is rooted in culture and traditions. It is also suggested to launch a long-term strategic plan with sufficient allocation of budget to ban child marriage and to support families intending to marry off their girls due to poor economic circumstances.
2. **Children with disabilities:** Nearly 1% of children have a disability of a different type such as, physical, blind/low vision, deaf/hard of hearing, deaf-blind, speech problems mental disability, intellectual disability etc. These children are most at risk of being neglected and ill treated by their family and in social life. Although a few privileges and support systems are provided to selected children with disabilities, the coverage is poor. State interventions are suggested for special protection of these children and safeguarding their fundamental rights in line with national and international laws.
3. **Child labour:** Although the volume of children's participation in economic activities has declined from around 57 % to 8.3% in the past 30 years, an appalling fact has come to light that there are some 1,600,000 child labourers in the country, out of which some 620,000 children are in hazardous work. The number of children as domestic workers is declining at the age group of 14 and below whereas it is increasing in the age group of children 15 and above. Children are forced to work in factories, transportation sectors, business sectors, restaurants, night/dance clubs, construction sectors and many other sectors as labourers with negligible or no payment. They are domestic workers. A large number of children are active in household work in their own family instead of going to school. A special focus of the government of Nepal on children who are domestic workers is needed and a master plan related to child labour should be reformed and implemented accordingly.

- 4. Children in difficult circumstances to be addressed:** Thousands of children are homeless and are spending their life on the street. Children are abandoned and orphaned. They are trafficked for work and sexual exploitation. They are abducted and assassinated. They are mistreated; they are discriminated against on the basis of caste, ethnicity, race, colour, sex, religion, convictions, economic status, disability, and their parent's occupation and on many other grounds. In such situations a child cannot grow and develop their personality to their full potential. Government and concerned stakeholders should pay special attention to eradicate such obstacles in children's life through policy and programmatic interventions.
- 5. Implementation plan for 'National Child Policy, 2012':** Given the diverse scenario of the state of Nepalese children more focus and attention on guarantying their rights and wellbeing to the full extent is urged. There is an urgent need to take necessary steps to cope with the problems of Nepalese children. The government of Nepal has put forward a 'National child Policy' in 2012 which stipulates all of the problems faced by children and policies to address these problem. Proper implementation of this policy may address all of the problems children face and help them enjoy their fundamental rights to the fullest. A long-term action plan dedicated to implement this policy is urgently needed and strongly recommended.

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Annex 8.1: Percentage of children population 0-16 years, 1971-2011.

Census year	Both sexes		Male		Female	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1971	5 159,447	44.6	2 639,648	45.4	2 519 799	43.9
1981	6,808,774	45.3	3,545,886	46.1	3,262,888	44.5
1991	8,623,950	46.6	4 403 407	47.8	4 220 543	45.5
2001	9 985 807	43.9	5 086 191	44.8	4 899 616	43.1
2011	10,546,863	39.8	5,361,495	41.7	5,185,368	38.0

Same as Table 8.1

Annex 8.2: Percentage of children population 0-18 years, 1971-2011.

Census year	Both sexes		Male		Female	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1971	5 587 840	48.4	2 858 227	49.1	2,729,613	47.6
1981	7,353,005	49.0	3,826,411	49.7	3,526,594	48..1
1991	9,368,108	50.7	4 761 545	51.6	4 606 563	49.7
2001	10 996 052	48.4	5 583 088	49.1	5 412 964	47.6
2011	11,767,935	44.4	5,964,320	46.4	5,803,615	42.5

Same as Table 8.1

Annex 8.3: Number and percentage of child population 0-16 years by single year of age and sex, 2011.

Age (years)	Total	Male	Female	%	Male % of total population	Female % of total population	Male-female difference
0	469,979	242,226	227,753	1.77	0.91	0.86	14,473
1	423,283	219,061	204,222	1.60	0.83	0.77	14,839
2	525,992	268,943	257,049	1.99	1.02	0.97	11,894
3	555,884	281,631	274,253	2.10	1.06	1.04	7,378
4	592,825	303,096	289,729	2.24	1.14	1.09	13,367
5	661,158	340,356	320,802	2.50	1.28	1.21	19,554
6	629,016	320,232	308,784	2.37	1.21	1.17	11,448
7	628,590	316,893	311,697	2.37	1.20	1.18	5,196
8	733,228	378,406	354,822	2.77	1.43	1.34	23,584
9	552,867	279,289	273,578	2.09	1.05	1.03	5,711
10	811,748	418,046	393,702	3.06	1.58	1.49	24,344
11	562,580	283,595	278,985	2.12	1.07	1.05	4,610
12	795,076	410,150	384,926	3.00	1.55	1.45	25,224
13	628,915	315,152	313,763	2.37	1.19	1.18	1,389

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Age (years)	Total	Male	Female	%	Male % of total population	Female % of total population	Male-female difference
14	677,105	337,687	339,418	2.56	1.27	1.28	-1,731
15	652,525	326,490	326,035	2.46	1.23	1.23	455
16	646,092	320,242	325,850	2.44	1.21	1.23	-5,608
Total	10,546,863	5,361,495	5,185,368	39.81	20.24	19.57	176,127

Annex 8.4: Number and percentage distribution of child population (0-18 years) by single year of age and sex, 2011.

Age (years)	Total	Male	Female	%	Male % of total population	Female % of total population	Male-female difference
0	469,979	242,226	227,753	1.77	0.91	0.86	14,473
1	423,283	219,061	204,222	1.60	0.83	0.77	14,839
2	525,992	268,943	257,049	1.99	1.02	0.97	11,894
3	555,884	281,631	274,253	2.10	1.06	1.04	7,378
4	592,825	303,096	289,729	2.24	1.14	1.09	13,367
5	661,158	340,356	320,802	2.50	1.28	1.21	19,554
6	629,016	320,232	308,784	2.37	1.21	1.17	11,448
7	628,590	316,893	311,697	2.37	1.20	1.18	5,196
8	733,228	378,406	354,822	2.77	1.43	1.34	23,584
9	552,867	279,289	273,578	2.09	1.05	1.03	5,711
10	811,748	418,046	393,702	3.06	1.58	1.49	24,344
11	562,580	283,595	278,985	2.12	1.07	1.05	4,610
12	795,076	410,150	384,926	3.00	1.55	1.45	25,224
13	628,915	315,152	313,763	2.37	1.19	1.18	1,389
14	677,105	337,687	339,418	2.56	1.27	1.28	-1,731
15	652,525	326,490	326,035	2.46	1.23	1.23	455
16	646,092	320,242	325,850	2.44	1.21	1.23	-5,608
17	537,448	264,109	273,339	2.03	1.00	1.03	-9,230
18	683,624	338,716	344,908	2.58	1.28	1.30	-6,192
Total	11,767,935	5,964,320	5,803,615	44.42	22.51	21.90	160,705

Annex 8.5: Distribution of children population (aged 0-14) by Districts, 2011

District	Total		Male		Female	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Nepal	3,475,424	100	1,764,630	100	1,710,794	100
Taplejung	17,498	0.50	8,676	0.49	8,822	0.52
Panchthar	26,381	0.76	13,177	0.75	13,204	0.77
Ilam	35,125	1.01	17,832	1.01	17,293	1.01
Jhapa	94,720	2.73	47,937	2.72	46,783	2.73
Morang	115,924	3.34	59,122	3.35	56,802	3.32
Sunsari	95,784	2.76	49,031	2.78	46,753	2.73
Dhankuta	19,924	0.57	9,983	0.57	9,941	0.58
Terhathum	12,894	0.37	6,403	0.36	6,491	0.38
Sankhuwasabha	20,964	0.60	10,405	0.59	10,559	0.62
Bhojpur	23,900	0.69	11,947	0.68	11,953	0.70
Solukhumbu	13,984	0.40	7,097	0.40	6,887	0.40
Okhaldhunga	21,063	0.61	10,391	0.59	10,672	0.62
Khotang	29,471	0.85	14,843	0.84	14,628	0.86
Udayapur	45,870	1.32	23,284	1.32	22,586	1.32
Saptari	83,426	2.40	41,893	2.37	41,533	2.43
Siraha	87,655	2.52	44,989	2.55	42,666	2.49
Dhanusa	104,556	3.01	53,596	3.04	50,960	2.98
Mahottari	86,447	2.49	44,243	2.51	42,204	2.47
Sarlahi	105,211	3.03	54,319	3.08	50,892	2.97
Sindhuli	44,605	1.28	22,363	1.27	22,242	1.30
Ramechhap	30,243	0.87	14,763	0.84	15,480	0.90
Dolakha	26,081	0.75	13,047	0.74	13,034	0.76
Sindhupalchok	38,697	1.11	19,253	1.09	19,444	1.14
Kavrepalanchok	50,925	1.47	25,604	1.45	25,321	1.48
Lalitpur	45,398	1.31	23,528	1.33	21,870	1.28
Bhaktapur	31,391	0.90	16,621	0.94	14,770	0.86
Kathmandu	165,679	4.77	87,466	4.96	78,213	4.57
Nuwakot	37,346	1.07	18,430	1.04	18,916	1.11
Rasuwa	6,034	0.17	2,959	0.17	3,075	0.18
Dhading	46,756	1.35	23,181	1.31	23,575	1.38
Makwanpur	56,630	1.63	28,622	1.62	28,008	1.64
Rautahat	93,173	2.68	47,993	2.72	45,180	2.64
Bara	91,229	2.62	47,235	2.68	43,994	2.57
Parsa	75,510	2.17	39,262	2.22	36,248	2.12
Chitawan	71,724	2.06	36,756	2.08	34,968	2.04
Gorkha	37,227	1.07	18,366	1.04	18,861	1.10

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District	Total		Male		Female	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Lamjung	21,682	0.62	10,812	0.61	10,870	0.64
Tanahu	44,217	1.27	22,072	1.25	22,145	1.29
Syangja	38,993	1.12	19,473	1.10	19,520	1.14
Kaski	58,043	1.67	30,068	1.70	27,975	1.64
Manang	558	0.02	266	0.02	292	0.02
Mustang	1,148	0.03	579	0.03	569	0.03
Myagdi	14,666	0.42	7,336	0.42	7,330	0.43
Parbat	19,377	0.56	9,718	0.55	9,659	0.56
Baglung	36,678	1.06	18,226	1.03	18,452	1.08
Gulmi	40,369	1.16	19,922	1.13	20,447	1.20
Palpa	35,819	1.03	18,073	1.02	17,746	1.04
Nawalparasi	85,596	2.46	43,173	2.45	42,423	2.48
Rupandehi	116,043	3.34	59,289	3.36	56,754	3.32
Kapilbastu	77,634	2.23	40,021	2.27	37,613	2.20
Arghakhanchi	28,253	0.81	13,968	0.79	14,285	0.83
Pyuthan	34,932	1.01	17,268	0.98	17,664	1.03
Rolpa	32,940	0.95	16,341	0.93	16,599	0.97
Rukum	31,386	0.90	15,505	0.88	15,881	0.93
Salyan	36,580	1.05	18,099	1.03	18,481	1.08
Dang	77,436	2.23	39,049	2.21	38,387	2.24
Banke	65,900	1.90	34,035	1.93	31,865	1.86
Bardiya	58,989	1.70	29,701	1.68	29,288	1.71
Surkhet	48,825	1.40	24,895	1.41	23,930	1.40
Dailekh	37,932	1.09	18,930	1.07	19,002	1.11
Jajarkot	24,334	0.70	12,131	0.69	12,203	0.71
Dolpa	4,609	0.13	2,192	0.12	2,417	0.14
Jumla	14,425	0.42	7,299	0.41	7,126	0.42
Kalikot	19,086	0.55	9,666	0.55	9,420	0.55
Mugu	7,187	0.21	3,635	0.21	3,552	0.21
Humla	6,339	0.18	3,292	0.19	3,047	0.18
Bajura	19,604	0.56	9,791	0.55	9,813	0.57
Bajhang	28,876	0.83	14,445	0.82	14,431	0.84
Achham	38,696	1.11	19,210	1.09	19,486	1.14
Doti	30,223	0.87	15,053	0.85	15,170	0.89
Kailali	108,462	3.12	55,706	3.16	52,756	3.08
Kanchanpur	64,952	1.87	33,182	1.88	31,770	1.86
Dadeldhura	21,041	0.61	10,510	0.60	10,531	0.62
Baitadi	35,576	1.02	17,750	1.01	17,826	1.04
Darchula	18,573	0.53	9,332	0.53	9,241	0.54

Annex 8.6: Children's (aged 10-14 years) marital status by level of education, 2011

Level of education	Never married	Single married	Total
Nursery/K.G./Kindergarten	25,431	158	25,589
Class 1	120,308	725	121,033
Class 2	278,592	1,432	280,024
Class 3	446,738	2,222	448,960
Class 4	565,519	2,780	568,299
Class 5	605,484	3,621	609,105
Class 6	474,083	2,644	476,727
Class 7	348,730	2,315	351,045
Class 8	209,037	1,733	210,770
Class 9	82,127	596	82,723
Class 10	14,585	137	14,722
SLC or equivalent	4,816	61	4,877
Other	3,961	66	4,027
Non-formal education	8,569	233	8,802
Can read only	28,428	1,248	29,676
Can't read & write	225,983	6,975	232,958
Literacy status not stated	5,868	219	6,087
Total	3,448,259	27,165	3,475,424

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Annex 8.7 : Children's (aged 10-18 years) marital status by level of education, 2011

Education	Marital status							Total
	Never married	Single married	Multiple married	Re-married	Widow/widower	Divorced	Separated	
Nursery/K.G./Kindergarten	27,739	510	2	2	1		1	28,255
Class 1	130,736	2,049	9	11	1	5	4	132,815
Class 2	301,384	6,604	22	36	6	14	18	308,084
Class 3	488,960	11,703	31	63	12	30	32	500,831
Class 4	634,120	16,900	42	65	16	38	40	651,221
Class 5	742,717	34,404	85	139	52	62	57	777,516
Class 6	627,145	22,289	53	96	24	43	46	649,696
Class 7	575,978	28,695	47	83	21	40	45	604,909
Class 8	505,485	33,344	76	68	28	46	50	539,097
Class 9	436,151	25,062	51	76	38	37	26	461,441
Class 10	267,826	20,660	44	46	22	35	22	288,655
SLC or equivalent	365,360	25,151	45	52	29	30	20	390,687
Intermediate or equivalent	70,838	5,138	7	10	6	7	4	76,010
Bachelor degree or equivalent	4,153	369	2					4,524
Other	5,641	371	1	1				6,014
Non-formal education	17,887	4,201	11	29	13	7	7	22,155
Can read only	45,064	6,632	23	21	19	18	9	51,786
Can't read & write	395,028	93,629	287	393	219	135	155	489,846
Literacy status not Stated	10,154	1,397	8	2	6	2	2	11,571
Total	5,652,366	339,108	846	1,193	513	549	538	5,995,113

CHAPTER 9

PERSONS WITH DISABILITY AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS

Dr. Shankar Prasad Khanal*

Abstract

The estimates of disability in Nepal are found to vary considerably from one study to another, even though these studies were carried out during similar time periods. The overall prevalence of disability was 2%; the prevalence of male disability was 2.2% and that of female disability 1.7%. The odds of having a disability were 1.3 times more in males compared to females (Odds Ratio, OR = 1.28, 95% C.I.: 1.27 – 1.29). Physical disability was the most common type of disability, which accounted for more than one third of total disabilities. By combining physical disability and blindness/low vision, this accounted for more than fifty per cent of total disabilities. Disability in rural residents was more prevalent (2.1%) compared to disability in their urban counterparts (1.2%). The prevalence of disability was considerably higher in Mountain (3.0%) compared to that in Hill (2.2%) and in Tarai (1.6%). More than one third of disabled persons are less than 30 years old and only one-fourth of disabled persons are aged 60 years or more. The percentage of disabled persons in the economically active age group (15 – 59 years) was more in urban areas (59.5%) than in rural areas (56.1%). The proportion of disabled in older ages (60 and above) was higher among women (27.2%) compared to men (24.3%). Disability was significantly higher among illiterates (3.87%) compared to their literate counterparts (1.25%). Adoption of standard definition and classification in order to arrive at consistent, comparable and reliable data on disability is recommended.

9.1 Introduction

The term ‘disability’ has many different meanings. Literally, disability means a physical or mental condition that limits a person’s movements, senses, or activities. The Global Burden of Disease (GBD) however, uses the term disability to refer to loss of health, where health is conceptualised in terms of functioning capacity in a set of health domains such as mobility, cognition, hearing and vision (WHO, 2004). Disability, in human beings can be presented irrespective of age, race and sex throughout the world. It can be observed in human beings either congenital (by birth) or because of many other reasons such as accidents, diseases, etc. In the past, there were also superstitious concepts in Nepalese society that disability was a punishment by the gods for some sin committed during a past life.

Earlier, people accepted disability as a part of their luck and lived with it because the development of medical sciences were not sufficient and associated technologies were also not so advanced. The common perception was also that a person with a disability is supposed to be less competent of perform-

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ing a variety of activities. Now, many disabilities can be minimised considerably or cured because of advanced developments in science, especially in the area of medical sciences. Unlike before, disabled persons are now also capable of carrying out different activities, including highly skilled work. Now, disabled persons are called ‘differently abled’ rather than disabled which has been adopted in practice across the world.

Society’s concepts about disability have also been observed to have significantly changed after two US citizens, namely Mr. Thomas Whittaker in 1998, with the help of an artificial leg, and Erik Weihenmayer, a blind person in 2001 (Joshi, 2004), successfully climbed the world’s highest peak, Mount Everest. The United Nations has played a very important role in changing society’s views about disability by declaring the year 1981 as the International Year of Disabled Persons (IYDP) with the theme of “Full Participation and Equality”. This is considered as an important breakthrough in the field of disability. The United Nations had also made requests to all member states to form national committees or similar coordination bodies to deal with the problem of disability and also declared the period 1983 to 1992 as the UN Decade of Disabled Persons.

Nepal formed a National Council for Social Service in 1977, with a view to provide social services to helpless and disabled persons. After that, different activities such as the establishment of the Ministry for Social Welfare, the enactment of legislation for the rights and welfare of disabled people, etc., have been initiated. As a continuation of such initiatives, since 1992, the 3rd December of each year, is celebrated as the International Day of the Disabled Persons, with various programmes focusing on disabled persons.

Issues related to disability in Nepal are officially under the Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare. Various surveys such as the Sample Survey of Disabled Persons in Nepal, 1980, on the occasion of the International Year of Disabled Persons, the National Survey of Blindness 1981 (Sewa Foundation, 1981), the Disability Sample Survey 2001 (NPC, 2001), etc. were conducted in Nepal to assess the prevalence of disability, its type and causes. In addition to this, the Nepal Living Standard Survey (NLSS, 2010/11) has also collected information about disability and its type and reported disability rates (CBS, 2011).

In the history of censuses in Nepal, the question on disability was incorporated directly for the first time in the 1971 Population Census and was continued in the 1981 Population Census. However, the 1991 Population Census did not incorporate the question on disability directly. In the Census of 2001, the question on disability was again included and it has been continued in the Population Census of 2011. However, the estimates on disability have varied from different sources in Nepal. There is a common concern that disabled persons are among the most excluded in the development process of the country. It is of utmost importance to get a clear idea of the dimension of disability in Nepal for effective and efficient policy interventions to improve the position of disabled persons. Further, there is wide heterogeneity in the situation and the policy requirements of different groups of disabled persons in Nepal, since there are major differences in social attitudes to different types of disability, coupled with variations due to gender, place of residence (rural/urban), ecology, caste and ethnic groups, etc.

In this context, this chapter attempts to depict the status of disability and its type exclusively based on the Population Census of Nepal 2011, with a brief mention of the observations based on the 2001 Census, although the two sets of results are not quite comparable.

9.2 Definition and classification of disability

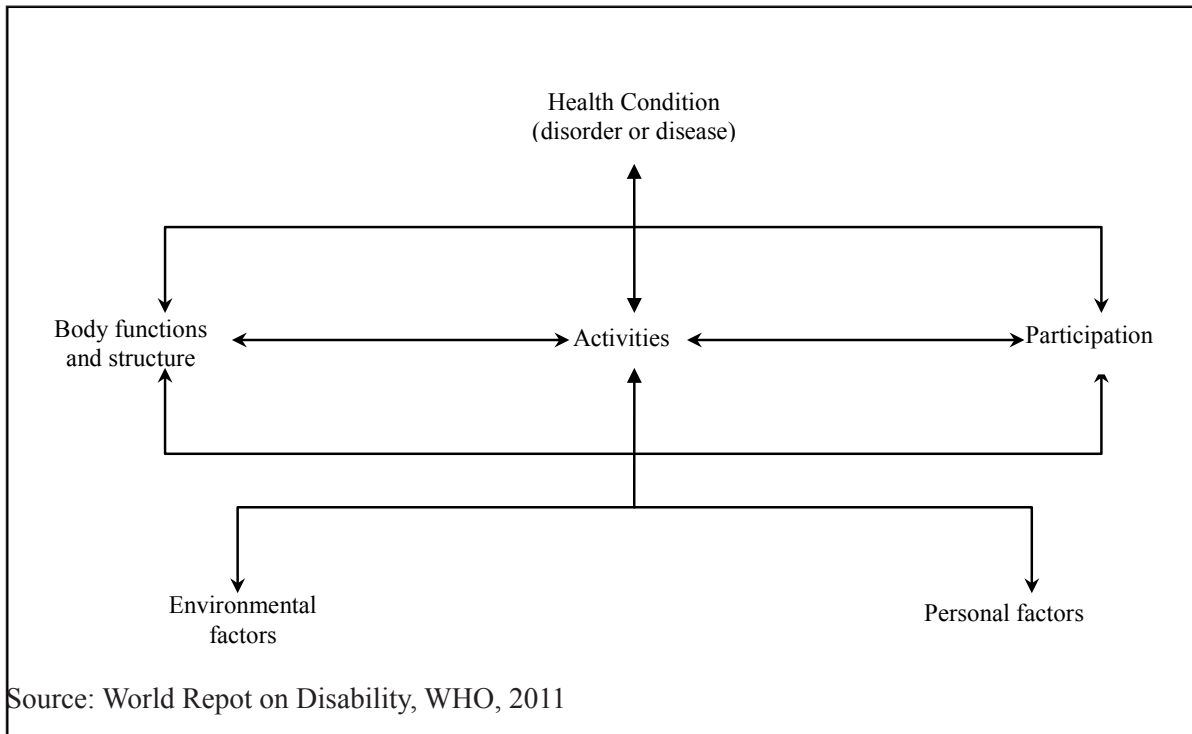
9.2.1 Definition by World Health Organization (WHO)

The World Health Organization (WHO, 1976) draws on a three-fold distinction between impairment, disability and handicap. Impairment is any loss or abnormality of psychological, physiological or anatomical structure or function. Disability is any restriction or lack (resulting from an impairment) of ability to perform an activity in the manner or within the range considered normal for a human being. Handicap is a disadvantage, for a given individual, resulting from impairment or a disability, which prevents the fulfilment of a role that is considered normal (depending on age, sex and social and cultural factors), for that individual.

In 1980, the WHO reaffirmed this classification (WHO, 1980), and in 2001 (WHO, 2001) issued the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF), which was officially endorsed by all 191 WHO Member States in the Fifty-fourth World Health Assembly on 22 May 2001 (resolution WHA 54.21).

The International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF) advanced the understanding and measurement of disability (WHO, 2001) which was developed through a long process involving academics, clinicians, and importantly, persons with disabilities (Bickenbach et al., 1982). The ICF distinguishes between body functions (physiological or psychological, e.g. vision) and body structures (anatomical parts, e.g. the eye and related structures). The ICF also emphasises environmental factors in creating disability, which is the main difference between this new classification and the previous International Classification of Impairments, Disabilities, and Handicaps (ICIDH). In the ICF, problems with human functioning are categorised in three interconnected areas namely impairments, activity limitations and participation limitations. Impairments are considered as problems in body function or alterations in body structure such as blindness or paralysis. Activity limitations refer to the difficulties encountered in executing activities such as walking, eating, etc. Participation restrictions are problems while involve any area of life, such as facing discrimination in employment, transportation, etc. Hence, in this context, disability indicates the difficulties encountered in any or all three above mentioned functioning issues. The ICF can also be used to understand and measure the positive aspects of functioning such as body functions, activities, participation and environmental facilitation. Disability generally arises due to the interaction of health conditions with contextual factors, such as environmental and personal factors as shown in the following figure.

Representation of the international classification of functioning, disability and health



The environmental factors under ICF can be either facilitators or barriers. Environmental factors include products and technology; the natural and built environment; support and relationships; attitudes; and services, systems, and policies (WHO, 2011). The ICF also recognises personal factors, such as motivation and self-esteem, which can influence how much a person takes part in society. Nonetheless, these factors are not yet conceptualised or classified. Further, it also distinguishes between a person's capacities to perform actions and the actual performance of those actions in real life. This slight difference helps to clarify the effect of environment and how performance might be improved by modifying the environment. The ICF is universal as it covers all human functioning and treats disability as a continuum rather than categorising people with disabilities as a separate group: disability is a matter of more or less, not yes or no. However, it might require thresholds to be set for impairment severity, activity limitations, or participation restriction from a policy-making point of view (WHO, 2011). Apart from these, the ICF also lists 9 broad domains of functioning, which can be affected, as follows.

- Learning and applying knowledge
- General tasks and demands
- Communication
- Mobility
- Self-care
- Domestic life
- Interpersonal interactions and relationships
- Major life areas
- Community, social and civic life

9.2.2 Definition by the Government of Nepal

According to the Nepal Gazette published by the Government of Nepal (Volume 56), Kathmandu, 2nd Bhadra, 2063 B.S. (2006 A.D.), Part 3, the definition of disability and its classification is as follows (Government of Nepal, 2012).

- Definition of disability: Disability is the condition of difficulty in carrying out daily activities normally and in taking part in social life due to problems in parts of the body and the physical system as well as obstacles created by physical, social, cultural environment and by communication.
- Classification of disability: According to the nature of the problem and difficulty in the parts of the body and in the physical system, disability has been classified into the following seven categories.
 - a. Physical disability: Physical disability is the problem that arises in operation of physical parts, use and movement in a person due to problems in nerves, muscles and composition and operation activities of bones and joints. For example: polio, cerebral palsy, absence of a body part, effect of leprosy, muscular dystrophy, problem with joints and spinal chord, club feet, rickets, weakness produced due to problems related to bones etc. are physical disabilities. Short and stunted also fall into this category.
 - b. Disability related to vision: Disability related to vision is the condition where there is no knowledge about an object's figure, shape, form and colour in an individual due to problems with vision. This is of two types.
 - i) Blind: A person who cannot see the fingers of a hand by both eyes at a distance of 10 feet despite treatment (medicine, surgery and use of glasses), or cannot read the first line of Snellen chart (3/60), is blind.
 - ii) Low vision: If any person who cannot distinguish fingers of a hand from a 20 feet distance despite treatments like medicine, surgery and use of glasses, in other words, cannot read the letters of the fourth line of Snellen chart, then that person has low vision.
 - c. Disability related to hearing: Problems arising in an individual related to discrimination of composition of the parts of hearing and voice, rise and fall of position, and level and quality of voice is a disability related to hearing. It is of the following two types.
 - i) Deaf: An individual who cannot hear, speaks incoherently or cannot speak and who has to use sign language for communication is deaf. An individual who cannot even hear sound above 80 decibels is deaf.
 - ii) Hard of hearing: An individual who can hear only little but can hear little and cannot talk clearly, can only speak little, who needs to put hearing aids in the ear to listen, is hard of hearing. An individual who can hear sound between 65 decibels and 80 decibels is hard of hearing.
 - d. Deaf-blind: An individual who is without both hearing and vision is a deaf-blind disabled.
 - e. Disability related to voice and speech: Due to difficulty produced in parts related to voice and speech and difficulty in rise and fall of voice to speak, unclear speech, repetition of words and letters is disability related to voice and speech.

- f. **Mental disability:** The inability to behave in accordance with age and situation and delay in intellectual learning due to problems arising in relation to implementation of intellectual activities like problems arising in the brain and mental parts and awareness, orientation, alertness, memory, language, calculation is mental disability.
 - i) **Intellectual disability/Mental retardation:** An individual having difficulty in carrying out activities relative to age or environment due to absence of intellectual development before age of 18 years is intellectual disability/mental retardation.
 - ii) **Mental illness:** Mental disability is an inability where there is difficulty in living daily life due to mental illness or weakness or deviation.
 - iii) **Autism:** Absence by birth of normal behaviour in accordance with a person's age, to show abnormal reaction, to keep on repeating one activity, to not socialise with others or to show extreme reaction is autism.
- g. **Multiple disability:** Multiple disability is a problem of two or more than two types of disability mentioned above.

9.3 Type of disability included in 2001, 2011 Census and NLSS 2010/11

In the Population Censuses of Nepal, undertaken at different times, and other surveys on disability, the type of disability incorporated in the question has not always been the same. In the 2011 Population Census of Nepal, eight different types of disability were included in the question, whereas only five types of disability were included in the question on disability in the 2001 Population Census. The Nepal Living Standard Survey (NLSS 2010/11) incorporated seven types of disability. The list of type of disability included in the Population Censuses of 2011 and 2001 and in the NLSS 2010/11 is shown in the following table (Table 9.1).

Table 9.1: Type of disability included in Censuses

Census/Survey	Type of disability	
Population Census, 2011	1. Physical disability 2. Blindness / low Vision 3. Deaf / hard to hearing 4. Deaf-blind	5. Speech problem 6. Mental disable 7. Intellectual disable 8. Multiple disability
Population Census, 2001	1. Physical disable 2. Blind 3. Deaf	4. Mentally retarded 5. Multiple disability
NLSS 2010/11	1. Physical disability 2. Visual disability 3. Hearing disability 4. Visual and hearing disability	5. Speech disability 6. Mental disability 7. Multiple disability

Source: CBS, 2002; CBS, 2011; CBS, 2010

The information received from respondents may depend on how the question was put to them. In this context, it would be logical to keep the question exactly how it was asked during the censuses and the survey. In the Population Censuses of 2011 and 2001, the question regarding disability was kept in Form-1, in the NLSS 2010/11 survey the question on disability was put under the Health section. The questions asked in each of the censuses and the NLSS are detailed below.

Box 1																		
Question on disability in Population Census of Nepal 2011	Question on disability in Population Census of Nepal 2001	Question on disability in NLSS 2010/11																
<p>What is the Physical and mental disability of (Name) ?</p> <p>12</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Not disable 2. Physical disable 3. Blind and low vision 4. Deaf & hard of hearing 5. Deaf-Blind 6. Speech problem 7. Mental illness 8. Intellectual disable 9. Multiple disable 	<p>Form 1</p> <p>What is</p> <p>type of Disability ?</p> <p><i>(Code must be encircled which denote appropriate disable)</i></p> <p>10</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Physical disable 2. Blind 3. Deaf 4. Mentally retarded 5. Multiple disability 6. Not disable 	<p>(8.02)</p> <p>Do you suffer from any of the following disabilities ?</p> <table style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr><td style="border-bottom: 1px solid black;">Physical</td><td style="border-bottom: 1px solid black; text-align: right;">1</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-bottom: 1px solid black;">Visual</td><td style="border-bottom: 1px solid black; text-align: right;">2</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-bottom: 1px solid black;">Hearing</td><td style="border-bottom: 1px solid black; text-align: right;">3</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-bottom: 1px solid black;">Visual and hearing</td><td style="border-bottom: 1px solid black; text-align: right;">4</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-bottom: 1px solid black;">Speech</td><td style="border-bottom: 1px solid black; text-align: right;">5</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-bottom: 1px solid black;">Mental</td><td style="border-bottom: 1px solid black; text-align: right;">6</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-bottom: 1px solid black;">Multiple</td><td style="border-bottom: 1px solid black; text-align: right;">7</td></tr> <tr><td style="border-bottom: 1px solid black;">None</td><td style="border-bottom: 1px solid black; text-align: right;">8</td></tr> </table> <p style="text-align: right;">▶ (8.04)</p>	Physical	1	Visual	2	Hearing	3	Visual and hearing	4	Speech	5	Mental	6	Multiple	7	None	8
Physical	1																	
Visual	2																	
Hearing	3																	
Visual and hearing	4																	
Speech	5																	
Mental	6																	
Multiple	7																	
None	8																	

Source: CBS, 2001; CBS, 2011; CBS, 2010.

9.4 Variation in disability estimates of different surveys and census

More than a billion people (15% of the world’s population) were estimated to be living with some form of disability based on 2010 global population estimates (WHO, 2011), which was higher than the previous World Health Organizations’ estimates of around 10% in the 1970s. According to the World Health Survey, around 785 million persons (15.6%) aged 15 years and above lived with a disability, while the Global Burden of Disease estimated a figure of around 975 million (19.4%) persons. Of these, the World Health Survey estimated that 110 million people (2.2%) had very significant difficulties in functioning. In India, 2.2% of the total population was estimated to be living with some form of disability in 2011 (Census of India, 2011).

The estimates of disability in Nepal have varied from one study to another, even though these studies were carried out during similar time periods. As per the latest Nepal Living Standard Survey (NLSS, 2010/2011) report, the prevalence of disability was 3.6%. On the other hand, the Population Census of 2011 found that the prevalence of disability was only about 2%. A similar type of difference in the estimates of disability in Nepal could be observed between the survey report and the Population Census report of 2001. The disability survey (A Situation Analysis on Disability in Nepal, 2001) reported the

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prevalence of disability as 1.63%, whereas the Population Census of 2001 reported the prevalence of disability as only 0.46% of the total population. The comparative figures on the prevalence of disability based on different surveys and Population Censuses carried out at different points in time are given in Table 9.2.

Table 9.2 : Estimate of disability in different studies

Year	Name of the study	Coverage area	Sample size	Name of the organization	% disability
1981	Population Census	National	-	Central Bureau of Statistics	0.50
1999-2000	A situation analysis on disability in Nepal	National (30 Sampled districts)	13005 households	National Planning Commission, UNICEF, (Conducted by New ERA)	1.63
2001	Population Census	National	-	Central Bureau of Statistics	0.46
2010/2011	Nepal Living Standard Survey (NLSS)	National	7020 households	Central Bureau of Statistics	3.6%
2011	Population Census	National	-	Central Bureau of Statistics	1.94

Source: CBS, 2004, National Report; CBS, 2002, National Report; CBS, 2011, National Report; CBS, 2011, NLSS Report; NPC, 2001

The differences in the prevalence of disability between the estimates of NLSS (2010/2011) compared to the Population Census of 2011, and the estimates of Disability Survey (1999-2000) compared to the Populations Census of 2001 are observed to be significant. These differences in prevalence might partly be explained by major differences in concepts, definitions, methodology, type of disability incorporated, type of question asked etc. However, it has often been argued that the official disability estimates, obtained from either the Population Censuses or the surveys, can at best be considered to be reliable estimates for severe disabilities only. This might be because both methods relied more on traditional diagnostic identification of disability, rather than the functional disability consideration. For example, the elderly population, a large number of whom might be functionally disabled, were usually not identified as such by their households and therefore not reported as disabled or under reported in any household level enquiry, because of the way the disability questions were asked. In addition, there might be other socio-cultural reasons, including social stigma, attached to disability, which might account for under reporting of disabled cases. Thus, the official estimates might be considered as lower bound estimates with a strong bias towards more serious disabilities only.

9.5 Disability at national level

The estimates of disability at national level are presented in Table 9.3. The figures presented in the table, enclosed within brackets, represent the percentage values throughout this chapter. For the total population of Nepal about 2% were found to have one type of disability (Table 9.3). The percentage of disabled males was 2.2% among total males, and 1.7% among the total female population. This

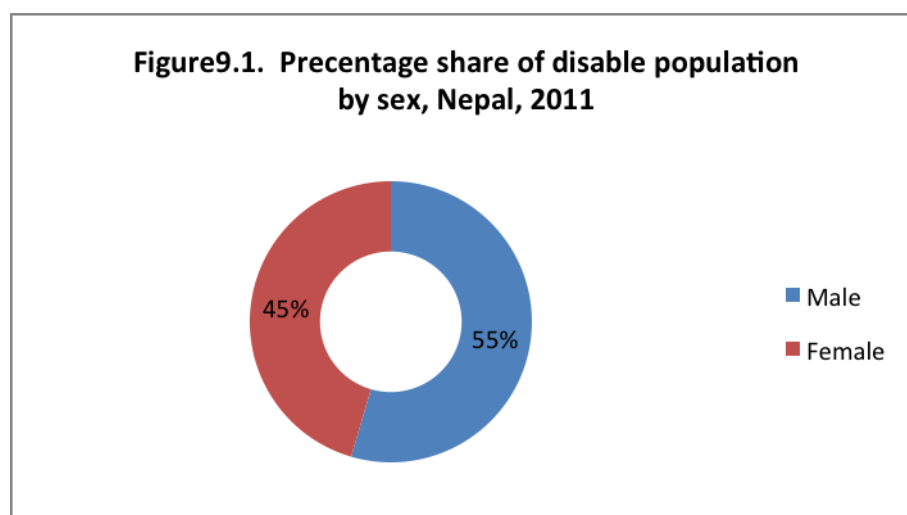
indicates that the prevalence of disabled males seems to be higher compared to the prevalence rates for disabled females.

Table 9.3: Disability estimates at national level

	Total population	Disable population (%)	Total Males	Disable males (%)	Total females	Disable females (%)
Nepal	26,494,504	513,321 (1.9)	12,849,041	280,086 (2.2)	13,645,463	233,235 (1.7)

Source: National Population Census Report 2011, Vol 1 , Table 24.

Of the persons with disability (PWD), about 55% were males and 45% were females, which indicates that male disability was considerably higher than female disability (Figure9.1).



The odds of having a disability (Odds Ratio, OR =1.28, 95% C.I.: 1.27 – 1.29) were found to be 1.3 times more in males compared to females (for detailed calculations, see Annex 9.1), indicating that the risk of having a disability is significantly higher for males compared to females.

9.6 Distribution of type of disability

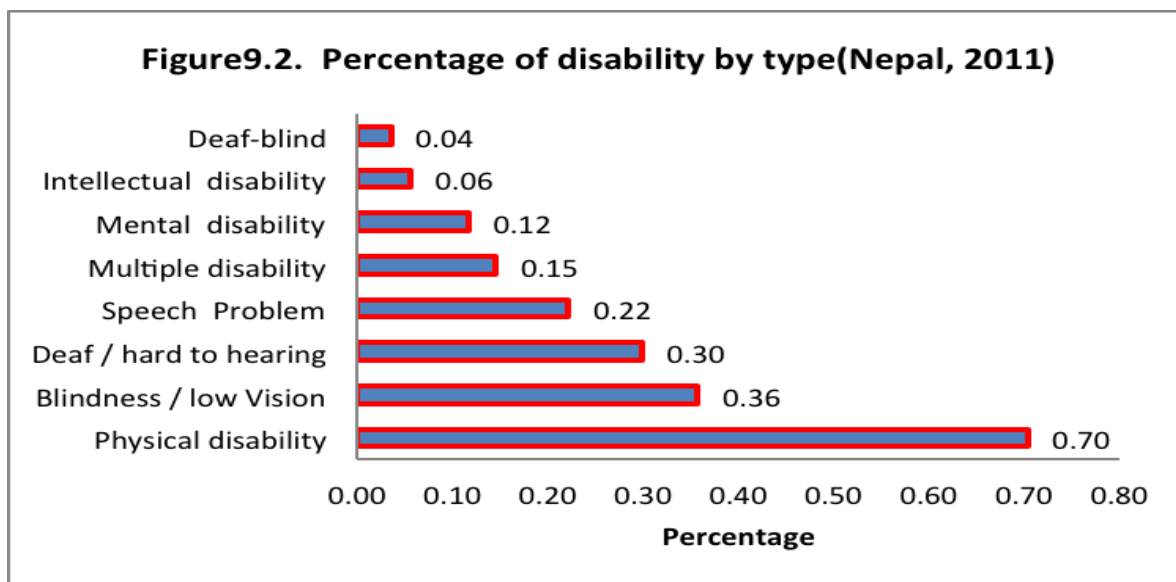
The percentage distribution of type of disability among the total PWD, among disabled males and females is presented in Table 9.4. Among the total PWD, the distribution of physical disability is highest at 36.3%, followed by blindness/low vision (18.5%), deaf/hard of hearing (15.4%) and speech problems (11.5%). More than one type of disability accounts for 7.5% of the total PWD, mental disability accounts for 6.0% and intellectual disability accounts for 2.9%. About 2% of the total PWF are deaf-blind. This clearly indicates that more than one third of the total PWD have a physical disability. Combining two types of disabilities, namely physical disability and blindness/low vision, accounts for more than fifty per cent of the total PWD. Similar patterns can also be observed among the total disabled males and total disabled females as shown in Table 9.4.

Table 9.4: Distribution of disabled population by type of disability

Type of disability	Disable persons	Percentage of disable population	Disable males	Percentage of disable males	Disable females	Percentage of disable females
Total	513,321	100.0	280,086	100.0	233,235	100.0
Physical disability	186,457	36.3	108,279	38.7	78,178	33.5
Blindness / low Vision	94,765	18.5	47,041	16.8	47,724	20.5
Deaf / hard to hearing	79,307	15.4	41,204	14.7	38,103	16.3
Deaf-blind	9,436	1.8	4,803	1.7	4,633	2.0
Speech Problem	58,855	11.5	33,190	11.8	25,665	11.0
Mental disability	30,997	6.0	16,787	6.0	14,210	6.1
Intellectual disability	14,888	2.9	8,280	3.0	6,608	2.8
Multiple disability	38,616	7.5	20,502	7.3	18,114	7.8

Source: National Population Census Report I, 2011, Vol 1, Table 24.

The percentage of disabled population by the type among the total population of the country has been presented in Figure 9.2.



For the total population of the country, 0.70% were found to have a physical disability, the highest percentage, followed by blindness/low vision (0.36%), deaf/hard of hearing (0.30%), speech problems (0.22%), more than one type of disability (0.15%), mental disability (0.12%), intellectual disability (0.06%) and deaf-blind (0.04%).

The prevalence estimates clearly show that in each one thousand Nepalese population, there are seven persons suffering from physical disability, four persons with blindness/low vision, and three persons with deafness or hard of hearing respectively.

9.7 Disability by sex and residence

The distribution of disabled population by sex and residence is presented in Table 9.5. Disability in rural areas is more prevalent (2.1%) than in urban areas (1.2%). Male disability was also higher (2.4%) among rural males compared to female disability (1.8%) among rural females. There was a nominal difference in disability between males and females (1.3% compared to 1.1%) in urban areas. Of the total persons with a disability, about 89% resided in rural areas, while only 11% were from urban areas..

Table 9.5: Distribution of disable population by sex and residence

Residence	Total population	Disable population (%)	Total males	Disable males (%)	Total females	Disable females (%)
Rural	21,970,684	458,517 (2.1)	10,542,992	250,139 (2.4)	11,427,692	208,378 (1.8)
Urban	4,523,820	54,804 (1.2)	2,306,049	29,947 (1.3)	2,217,771	24,857 (1.1)

Source: CBS, Population Census Report I, 2011, Vol I, Table 24.

The odds of having a disability (OR = 1.74, 95% C.I.: 1.72 – 1.75) for people living in rural areas is estimated to be 1.7 times more compared to the odds of having a disability for people living in urban areas (for detailed calculations, see Annex 9.1). This indicates that the risk of having a disability is considerably higher for rural residents compared to their urban counterparts..

9.8 Age group wise disability

Of the total disabled persons, about 18% were found to be less than 15 years of age. More than one third of disabled persons were 30 years or younger and only one-fourth of disabled persons were aged 60 years or above (see Table 9.6). It is a serious concern that a significant proportion of disabled persons are of a very young age. This might also reinforce the conjecture that the official disability rates might not have fully captured the functional disability incidences faced by old aged persons. It also indicates that government policy and programmes should focus on early mainstreaming of these young persons with disabilities for a long-term solution.

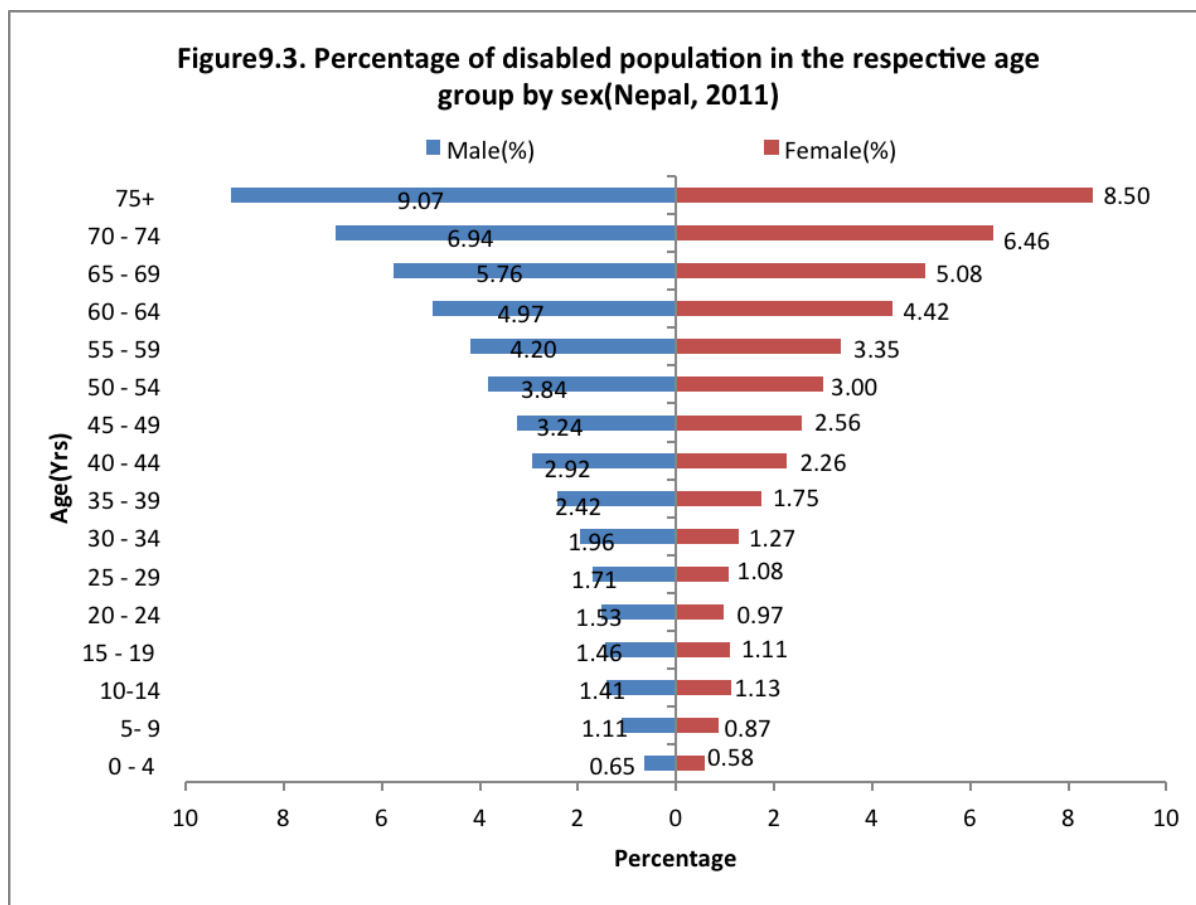
Table 9.6: Total number and distribution of disabled persons in different age groups

Age (years)	Total number of PWD	% of disabled in each age group for different population categories				
		Total	Male	Female	Rural	Urban
0 – 4	15,887	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	2.9
5 – 9	31,816	6.2	6.5	5.9	6.3	5.2
10 – 14	44,309	8.6	8.9	8.3	8.7	7.7
15 – 19	37,539	7.3	7.5	7.1	7.3	7.7
20 - 24	28,711	5.6	5.7	5.5	5.4	7.2
25 – 29	28,243	5.5	5.6	5.4	5.4	6.6
30 - 34	27,380	5.3	5.4	5.3	5.2	6.2
35 – 39	33,057	6.4	6.4	6.5	6.4	6.8
40 – 44	35,696	7.0	6.9	7.0	6.9	7.0
45 – 49	33,959	6.6	6.7	6.6	6.7	6.2
50 – 54	34,404	6.7	6.9	6.4	6.7	6.5
55 - 59	30,950	6.0	6.2	5.8	6.1	5.4
60 – 64	35,484	6.9	6.5	7.4	7.0	6.0
65 – 69	30,056	5.9	5.7	6.0	5.9	5.2
70 – 74	26,494	5.2	4.9	5.4	5.2	4.8
75+	39,336	7.7	7.1	8.3	7.6	8.6
	513,321	100	100	100	100	100
Total number of PWD		513,321	280,086	233,235	458,517	54,804

Source: CBS, Population Census Report 2011, Individual Tables Vol. 5, Part III, Table 15.

In Table 9.6, it can be clearly observed that the percentage of disabled persons in the working age-group 15–59 years is higher in urban areas (59.5%) than in rural areas (56.1%), although overall the rural disability rate is higher than the urban disability rate. This might be attributed to the fact that people of working age are compelled to live in urban areas for better employment opportunities. These people of working age might be much more exposed to mechanised equipment and construction work at their place of employment and in their day-to-day activities compared to rural people. The proportion of disabled in older ages (60 years and above) was found to be higher among disabled women (27.2%) compared to disabled men (24.3%).

The age group wise percentage distribution of disabled males and females among the total males and total females in their respective age groups is presented in the Figure9.3.



The proportion of disability is observed to be increasing in both males and females as age increases. However, there was a slight decline in the proportion of disabled females in the age groups from (15 -19) years to (20 -24) years of age as shown in Figure 9.3.

The type of disability across different age groups is presented in Table 9.7. Physical disabilities are the main type of disability, irrespective of age. More than one third of disabled children (aged 0 -14 years) are suffering due to a physical disability. At least 50% of disabled children are suffering from two types of disabilities, namely physical disabilities and the disability of blindness/low vision. Multiple disabilities are also more common in children, as compared to other age groups. Speech was another major disability in children. Hearing difficulties and visual problems are observed to be common in people of old age.

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Table 9.7: Total number and distribution of type of disability in different age groups

Age (years)	Total no. of PWD	Percentage of type of disabled in each age group								
		Physical disability	Blindness/low vision	Deaf/hard to hearing	Deaf-blind	Speech problem	Mental disability	Intellectual disability	Multiple disability	Total
0-4	15887	35.9	28.4	6.0	1.5	13.0	2.1	3.1	10.1	100.0
5-9	31816	36.6	12.8	11.5	1.2	18.8	4.7	4.2	10.2	100.0
10-14	44309	35.6	14.0	13.8	1.4	14.7	6.8	5.4	8.2	100.0
15-19	37539	37.6	14.2	11.7	1.2	13.1	8.3	5.8	8.1	100.0
20-24	28711	39.3	13.9	9.6	1.2	12.4	10.0	4.9	8.7	100.0
25-29	28243	41.0	13.6	10.1	1.1	12.5	10.4	4.0	7.3	100.0
30-34	27380	40.8	13.4	11.2	1.3	13.1	9.9	3.5	6.8	100.0
35-39	33057	36.0	12.4	14.8	1.3	16.2	8.6	3.0	7.9	100.0
40-44	35696	34.3	12.8	16.4	1.4	16.8	7.5	2.7	8.1	100.0
45-49	33959	35.4	15.5	17.6	1.5	14.0	6.4	2.3	7.3	100.0
50-54	34404	36.9	17.2	18.0	1.6	12.1	5.5	1.9	6.7	100.0
55-59	30950	39.1	20.8	18.0	1.7	8.7	4.5	1.4	5.7	100.0
60-64	35484	37.6	25.5	18.3	2.1	6.3	3.6	1.0	5.5	100.0
65-69	30056	36.9	27.6	18.9	2.5	4.7	2.8	0.9	5.6	100.0
70-74	26494	33.2	29.6	20.5	3.3	3.7	2.4	0.7	6.6	100.0
75+	39336	27.8	29.8	24.0	4.6	2.7	2.0	0.8	8.2	100.0
All ages	513321	36.3	18.5	15.4	1.8	11.5	6.0	2.9	7.5	100.0

Source: CBS, Population Census Report 2011, Individual Tables Vol. 5, Part III, Table 15.

9.9 Disability by type and residence

The percentage distribution of disability by type across rural and urban residents of Nepal is presented in Table 9.8. Physical disability accounts for one third of the total disabilities in rural (36.4%) as well as in urban areas (35.8%).

Table 9.8: Disabled persons and their percentage distribution by type of disability in rural and urban residence

Residence type	Total disabled persons	Distribution of disabled persons by disability (%)							
		Physical disability	Blindness /low vision	Deaf / hard to hearing	Deaf-blind	Speech Problem	Mental disability	Intellectual disability	Multiple disability
Rural	458517	36.4	18.4	15.7	1.8	11.5	5.9	2.8	7.6
Urban	54804	35.8	19.1	13.7	2.5	11.3	7.6	3.3	6.6

Source: CBS, Population Census Report I, 2011, Vol 1, Table 24.

More than 50% of the total disability in rural (54.8%) and urban areas (54.9%) is accounted for by combining both physical disabilities and the problem of blindness and low vision. Although any type of disability is a serious problem, physical disabilities and disabilities related to blindness and low vision seem to be the two major disabilities, followed by deafness and hard of hearing in both urban and rural areas. There were a considerable proportion of people with mental disabilities, an important public health problem. The percentage of people with a mental disability in urban areas was slightly higher (7.6%) than in rural areas (5.9%). Effective public health initiatives to control mental illness could be better focused based on these estimates.

9.10 Disability by sex and ecological belt

In Mountain Ecological Belt, the prevalence of disability was observed to be considerably higher (3.0%) than that in Hill (2.2%) and in Tarai (1.6%). The odds of having a disability in Mountain Ecological Belt were almost twice as high (OR = 1.94, 95% C.I.: 1.92-1.96) as compared to the odds in Tarai. Likewise the odds of having a disability in Hill Ecological belt were 1.4 times (OR = 1.42, 95% C.I.: 1.41-1.43) more compared to that in Tarai (Annex 9.1). Again, in Mountain Ecological Belt, the prevalence of disability among males (3.4%) was higher than that of females (2.6%). Male disability also appeared higher than female disability in the Hill and Tarai Ecological belt as shown in Table 9.9.

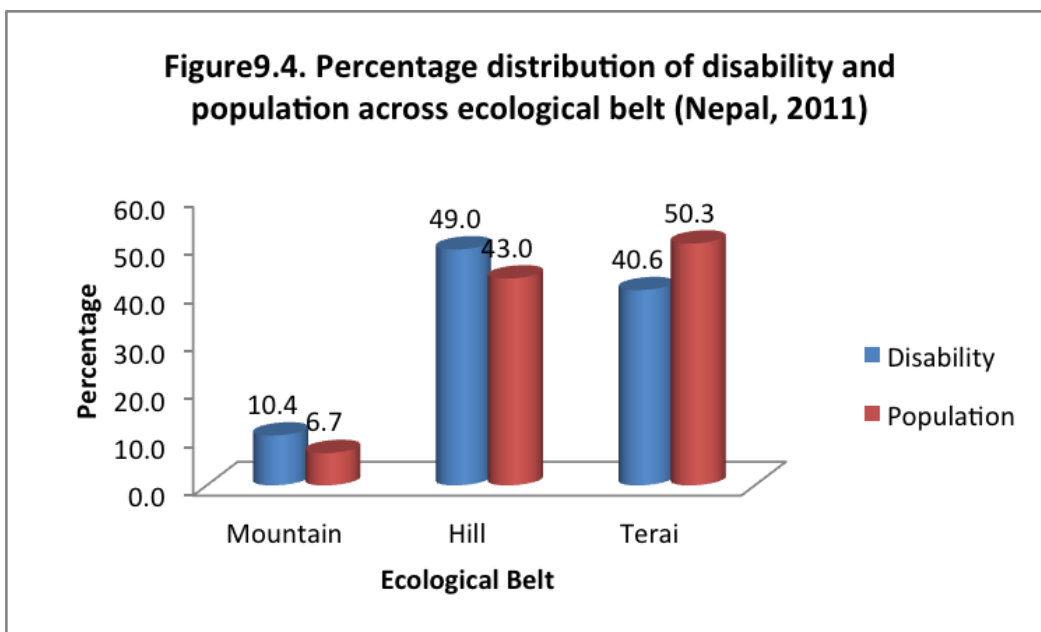
Table 9.9: Distribution of disabled population by sex and ecological belt

Ecological belt	Total population	Disable population (%)	Total males	Disable males (%)	Total females	Disable females (%)
Mountain	1,781,792	53,240 (3.0)	862,592	28,939 (3.4)	919,200	24,301 (2.6)
Hill	11,394,007	251,780 (2.2)	5,440,067	135,232 (2.5)	5,953,940	116,548 (2.0)
Tarai	13,318,705	208,301 (1.6)	6,546,382	115,915 (1.8)	6,772,323	92,386 (1.4)

Source: CBS, Population Census Report I, 2011, Vol I, Table 24.

Among PWD, almost half of the disabled population lived in the Hill (49.0%), approximately 41.0% were in the Tarai and the remaining 10% were in the Mountain ecological belt.

Comparing the percentage distribution of the population and the percentage distribution of disabled persons across the three ecological belts, the distribution of disability seemed to be higher in Mountain and Hill ecological belts and lower in Tarai (see Figure 9.4).



9.11 Disability by type and ecological belt

In each ecological belt, physical disability was common, and accounted for at least one third of total disabilities as shown in Table 9.10. Multiple disabilities accounted for at least 7% of the disabled persons in each ecological belt.

Table 9.10: Disabled persons and their percentage distribution by type of disability in ecological belts

Ecological belt	Total disabled persons	Distribution of disabled persons by disability (%)							
		Physical disability	Blindness / low vision	Deaf / hard to hearing	Deaf-blind	Speech problem	Mental disability	Intellectual disability	Multiple disability
Mountain	53,240	38.4	17.9	18.6	1.8	10.1	4.1	2.0	7.1
Hill	251,780	37.1	17.0	16.7	1.7	11.3	5.7	3.1	7.5
Tarai	208,301	34.9	20.4	13.2	2.0	12.1	6.9	2.9	7.6

Source: CBS, Population Census Report I, 2011, Vol I, Table 24.

In Mountain Ecological belt, deafness and hard of hearing accounted for 18.6% of the total disabilities, blindness and low vision (17.9%) and speech problems accounted for 10.1%. Only 2% of PWD had an intellectual disability in this belt.

In Hill Ecological belt about 17% of PWD suffered from blindness/low vision and deafness and hard of hearing respectively. Mental disability accounted for about 6% of PWD in Hill, which was higher than in Mountain Ecological belt at 4%.

In Tarai, the second commonest type of disability was blindness and low vision (20.4%) followed by deafness and hard of hearing (13.2%) and speech problems (12.1%). About 7% of the disabled persons in this belt suffered from a mental disability, which was the highest among the three ecological belts.

9.12 Disability by sex and development region

Among the five development regions of the country, the prevalence of disability is higher in the Far-Western development region at 2.7%. The prevalence of disability for the remaining regions is Mid-Western development region (2.6%), Western development region (2.0%) and Eastern development region (1.9%). See Table 9.11.

Table 9.11: Distribution of disabled population by sex and development region

Development region	Total population	Disable population (%)	Total males	Disable males (%)	Total females	Disable females (%)
Eastern	5,811,555	111,349 (1.9)	2,790,483	61,435 (2.2)		3,021,072 (1.7)
Central	9,656,985	144,671 (1.5)	4,841,624	80,058 (1.7)	4,815,361	64,613 (1.3)
Western	4,926,765	96,194 (2.0)	2,292,597	52,442 (2.3)	2,634,168	43,752 (1.7)
Mid -Western	3,546,682	93,275 (2.6)	1,706,450	50,488 (3.0)	1,840,232	42,787 (2.3)
Far -Western	2,552,517	67,832 (2.7)	1,217,887	35,663 (2.9)	1,334,630	32,169 (2.4)

Source: CBS, Population Census Report I, 2011, Vol 1, Table 24.

The prevalence of disability in the Central development region was 1.5%, which was the lowest among all development regions. A similar pattern in the prevalence of disability could clearly be observed among males and females. The disability rate of males is higher compared to females in each development region, as at the national level.

9.13 Disability by type and development region

In each development region, physical disabilities account for at least one third of total disabilities as shown in Table 9.12. Among the five development regions, the proportion of total PWD with a physical disability was highest in Far-Western Development region (39.2%), followed by Mid-Western Development region (38.8%), Eastern Development region (35.6%) and Central and Western Development region (34.9%).

Table 9.12: Disabled persons and their percentage distribution by type of disability in development region

Development region	Total disabled persons	Distribution of disabled persons by disability (%)							
		Physical disability	Blindness / low vision	Deaf / hard to hearing	Deaf-blind	Speech problem	Mental disability	Intellectual disability	Multiple disability
Eastern	111,349	35.6	15.8	14.9	1.7	13.0	6.8	3.1	9.2
Central	144,671	34.9	21.4	13.2	2.0	12.1	6.4	3.1	6.9
Western	96,194	34.9	15.7	16.1	1.6	12.9	7.2	3.6	8.0
Mid-Western	93,275	38.8	18.0	18.4	2.1	9.3	4.4	2.3	6.7
Far-Western	67,832	39.2	21.1	16.2	1.8	8.5	4.7	2.0	6.5

Source: CBS, Population Census Report I, 2011, Vol 1, Table 24.

The total of PWD with more than one type of disability was highest in Eastern Development region (9.2%), followed by Western Development region (8.0%). Central Development region, Mid-Western Development region and Far-Western Development region accounted for about 7% of the total disabilities. The problem of blindness and low vision was observed to be highest in Central Development region, while deafness and hard of hearing was highest in Mid-Western Development region and speech problems were highest in both Eastern and Western Development regions.

9.14 Disability by sex and eco-development region

The prevalence of disability by Eco-Development Region is presented in Figure 9.5. Among the 15 Eco-Development Regions of Nepal, the prevalence of disability (percentage of disabled of the total population) was highest in Mid-Western Mountain (3.7%), followed by Far-Western Hill and Western-Mountain (3.3%), Far-Western Mountain (3.1.%) and Mid-Western Hill (3.0%) while it is comparatively low in Western-Tarai (1.3%).

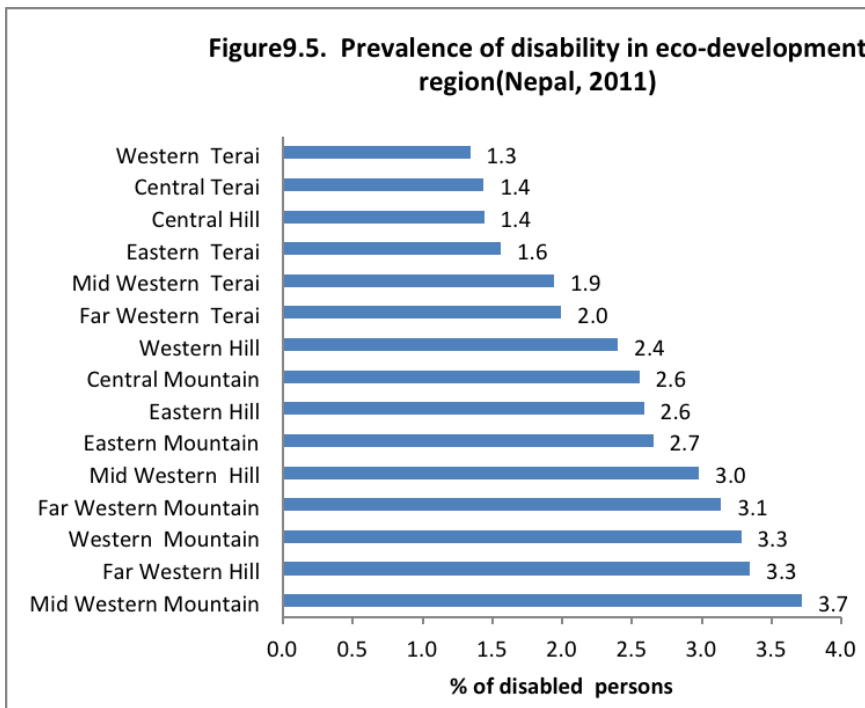


Table 9.13 presents the number of disabled persons by gender and their percentage distribution for each Eco-Development Region. The percentage of disabled males was observed to be higher than that of disabled females in all Eco-Development Regions except for Western-Mountain. The highest percentage of male disability was in Mid-Western Mountain (4.1%), followed by Far-Western Hill (3.7%), while the lowest was in Central Hill and Western Tarai (1.5% respectively). Similarly, the highest percentage of female disability was observed in Western Mountain (3.5%), followed by Mid-Western Mountain (3.4%), while the lowest was in Western Tarai (1.1%). Distribution by type of disability for the Eco-development Regions is provided in Annex 9.2.

Table 9.13: Distribution of disabled population by sex and eco-development region

Eco - development region	Total population	Disable population	Total males	Disable males (%)	Total females	Disable females (%)
Eastern Mountain	392,089	10,393	186,977	5,667 (3.0)	205,112	4,726 (2.3)
Eastern Hill	1,601,347	41,409	756,522	22,532 (3.0)	844,825	18,877 (2.2)
Eastern Tarai	3,818,119	59,547	1,846,984	33,236 (1.8)	1,971,135	26,311 (1.3)
Central Mountain	517,655	13,211	246,829	7,208 (2.9)	270,826	6,003 (2.2)
Central Hill	4,431,813	63,798	2,221,717	34,375 (1.5)	2,210,096	29,423 (1.3)
Central Tarai	4,707,517	67,662	2,373,078	38,475 (1.6)	2,334,439	29,187 (1.3)
Western Mountain	19,990	656	10,754	330 (3.1)	9,236	326 (3.5)
Western Hill	2,811,135	67,442	1,260,376	36,344 (2.9)	1,550,759	31,098 (2.0)
Western Tarai	2,095,640	28,096	1,021,467	15,768 (1.5)	1,074,173	12,328 (1.1)
Mid -Western Mountain	388,713	14,440	195,827	7,973 (4.1)	192,886	6,467 (3.4)
Mid -Western Hill	1,687,497	50,289	800,229	27,052 (3.4)	887,268	23,237 (2.6)
Mid-Western Tarai	1,470,472	28,546	710,394	15,463 (2.2)	760,078	13,083 (1.7)
Far-Western Mountain	463,345	14,540	222,205	7,761 (3.5)	241,140	6,779 (2.8)
Far-Western Hill	862,215	28,842	401,223	14,929 (3.7)	460,992	13,913 (3.0)
Far-Western Tarai	1,226,957	24,450	594,459	12,973 (2.2)	632,498	11,477 (1.8)

Source: CBS, Population Census Report I, 2011, Vol I, Table 24.

9.15 Disability and literacy

Disability was found to be significantly higher among illiterates (3.87%) as compared to their literate counterparts (1.25%). Considering the literacy status for aged 5 years and above, as shown in Table 9.14, the odds of being disabled was more than threefold times higher in illiterates (OR = 3.1, 95% C.I.: 3.16 3.19) compared to literates, which clearly indicates that disability was higher in illiterates (Annex 9.1). This may be due to the fact that disabled persons might not get an opportunity to learn to read and write.

Table 9.14: Distribution of disabled population by sex and literacy

Literacy status	Total population	Disable population (%)	Total males	Disable males (%)	Total females	Disable females (%)
Literate	16,380,563	205,045 (1.25)	8,949,990	139,084 (1.55)	7,430,573	65,961 (0.89)
Illiterate	7,524,427	291,481 (3.87)	2,575,935	131,950 (5.12)	4,948,492	159,531 (3.22)

Source: CBS, Population Census Report

Further, male disability among illiterate males was considerably higher (5.12%) than male disability (1.55%) among male literates. Female disability among illiterate females was also significantly higher than female disability among literate females as shown in Table 9.14. Bearing these figures in mind, the government or other concerned policy making organisations should implement a literacy programme focusing on disabled persons, which would be very constructive for the personal wellbeing and welfare of disabled persons.

9.16 Findings and recommendations

Disability can be considered as a part of a human condition. Disability, in human beings, can be presented irrespective of age, race and sex. Almost everyone will be temporarily or permanently impaired at some point of time in his/her life.

The prevalence of disability has been increasing from the 2001 Population Census to the 2011 Population Census of Nepal. However, these estimates are not compatible with disability estimates reported by other official studies, even if carried out at similar periods in time. There have been considerable variations in the disability estimates in Nepal from one study to another. These differences are expected, and can partly be explained by the differences in the concept of disability, definitions, type of disability questions incorporated, methodology adopted for collecting information, etc.

The prevalence of disability in Nepal (1.94%) was far less compared with the disability prevalence of the world (15%). This was indicative of under reporting of disabled persons in Nepalese disability studies. This could happen because past studies and the Population Census of 2011 did not incorporate functional disability, which is more common in elderly people. In addition, social stigma attached to disability, lack of awareness about disability and its type, etc. might account for under reporting of disabled persons. Due to social stigma and a lack of awareness, only visible disability or severe disability is reported frequently. Therefore the official estimates on disability in Nepal might be considered as

the lower bound estimates with a strong bias towards more serious disabilities only. However, the disability estimate of Nepal did not seem to be much less than that of the disability estimates reported by the 2011 Population Census of India (2.2%).

Disability is more prevalent in males (2.2%) than females (1.7%). Physical disability was the most common type of disability. The prevalence of disability is higher among people residing in rural areas (2.1%) compared to those who reside in urban areas (1.2%) of the country. However, the percentage of disabled in the economically active age-group (15 – 59 years) is higher in urban areas (59.5%) compared to rural areas (56.1%). The prevalence of disability was the highest in Mountain ecological belt (3.0%) followed by the Hill (2.2%) and the Tarai (1.6%), indicating that people who were residing in Mountain ecological belt were at a higher risk of disability.

More than one third of disabled persons are less than 30 years old and only one-fourth of disabled persons are 60 years or above, which is a matter of grave concern as the significant proportion of disabled persons are of a young age. This estimate also implies that the functional disability of old aged persons was not completely captured. The proportion of disabled persons in older ages (60 years and above) was considerably higher among disabled women (27.2%) compared to disabled men (24.3%).

Most children suffer from physical disability followed by blindness and low vision. Multiple disabilities were also more common in children compared to other age groups of people. Literacy and disability were significantly associated with each other, as more disabled persons were illiterate, probably due to a lack of access to literacy programmes.

On the basis of the analysis carried out in this chapter, the following recommendations are made for policy formulation.

1. **Adopt standard definition of disability:** On the basis of past studies on disability, including the National Population Census of 2011, there was a marked variation in disability estimates, and these variations were partly due to the differences in the definition of disability and the type of disability adopted in each study. In order to have less varied estimates, uniformity in the definition and type of disability should be maintained. To achieve this, concerned government authorities may need to adopt a standard definition so that each and every official survey that is conducted in the country follows the same definition. Furthermore, WHO has already updated the definition and classification of disability, which incorporates the International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF). It would be useful to adopt a definition of disability that is not only uniform nationally but also follows international standards. By adopting the ICF, the issue of under reporting of disabled cases in Nepal would also be addressed to some extent.
2. **Increase public awareness and understanding of disability:** It has been realised that under reporting of disability cases in Nepal is partly due to no or limited awareness, and not understanding or little understanding of disability. Therefore, an awareness programme around disability should be effectively implemented so that disabled persons can openly share the difficulties they face due to their disability. It is very important to improve public understanding of disability and to remove the stigma people may attach to it.
3. **Arrange literacy programmes focusing on disabled persons:** This study revealed that literacy and disability are strongly associated with each other. More disabled persons were illiterate compared to disabled persons who were literate, which might be attributed to a lack of access to education. Therefore, literacy programmes focusing on disabled persons should be established.

- 4. Improve the comparability of data:** The data quality on disability plays a very important role for implementing plans and policies to overcome difficulties or barriers due to disability. The data gathered at national level should be comparable with the standards at international level. This can be achieved by adopting the comparable definitions of disability, uniform methods in collecting data, and computations of different disability estimates in line with international standards.
- 5. Effective Implementation of Intervention programmes on disability:** Disability is a complex area, and the interventions required to overcome the disability will vary depending on the type of disability, severity, context, etc. The analysis of this study has also identified that the status and dimension of disability is different by gender, place of residence, age group, etc. For example: disability was more in rural areas compared to urban areas; the percentage of disabled in the economically active age group was higher in urban than in rural areas; more than one third of disabled persons were less than 30 years of age; the proportion of disabled in older age (60 years and above) was higher among disabled women compared to disabled men; multiple disability was more common in children; and mental disability was higher in urban than in rural areas. Addressing such complex issues around disability in Nepal, requires that the Government revisits existing plans, and draws up a national disability strategic plan of action based on the latest disability estimates, which should be implemented effectively.

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Annex 9.1 : Computation of Odds Ratio (OR)

Description	Disability		Odds Ratio(OR) with 95% Confidence Interval(C.I.)
	Yes	NO	
Sex			
Male	280,086 (a)	12,568,955 (b)	OR = (a)(d)/(b)(c) = 1.28 95% C.I. : (1.27 1.29)
Female	233,235 (c)	13,412,228 (d)	-
Residence			
Rural	458,517 (a)	21,512,167 (b)	OR = (a)(d)/(b)(c) = 1.74 95% C.I. : (1.72 1.75)
Urban	54,804 (c)	4,469,016 (d)	-
Ecological belt			
Mountain	53,240 (a ₁)	1,728,552 (b ₁)	OR = (a ₁)(d)/(b ₁)(c) = 1.94 95% C.I. : (1.92 1.96)
Hill	251,780 (a ₂)	11,142,227 (b ₂)	OR = (a ₂)(d)/(b ₂)(c) = 1.42 95% C.I. : (1.41 1.43)
Terai	208,301 (c)	13,110,404 (d)	-
Literacy(5 years and above)			
Illiterate	291,481 (a)	7,141,965 (b)	OR = (a)(d)/(b)(c) = 3.18 95% C.I. : (3.16 3.19)
Literate	205,045 (c)	15,978,383 (d)	-

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Annex 9.2 : Disabled persons and their percentage distribution by type of disability in eco- development regions

Eco-dev region	Total disabled persons	Distribution of disabled persons by disability (%)							
		Physical disability	Blindness / low Vision	Deaf / hard to hearing	Deaf-blind	Speech problem	Mental disability	Intellectual disability	Multiple disability
Eastern Mountain	10,393	37.43	15.90	16.11	1.65	11.52	5.13	2.37	9.91
Eastern Hill	41,409	34.92	14.83	16.95	1.75	12.72	5.78	3.34	9.72
Eastern Terai	59,547	35.75	16.42	13.29	1.61	13.40	7.74	3.05	8.74
Central Mountain	13,211	39.18	16.75	15.48	2.21	12.09	5.04	2.22	7.03
Central Hill	63,798	35.47	18.64	14.80	1.96	12.16	6.29	3.62	7.07
Central Terai	67,662	33.49	24.95	11.22	1.89	12.15	6.70	2.77	6.82
Western Mountain	656	21.65	11.59	23.78	0.91	17.07	7.01	4.12	13.87
Western Hill	67,442	34.57	15.05	17.44	1.52	12.86	6.85	3.68	8.02
Western Terai	28,096	35.95	17.39	12.67	1.85	12.76	8.03	3.55	7.80
Mid -Western Mountain	14,440	38.42	17.28	22.54	1.56	9.31	2.98	1.75	6.16
Mid -Western Hill	50,289	41.96	16.91	18.05	1.46	8.94	4.15	1.99	6.53
Mid -Western Terai	28,546	33.40	20.23	16.93	3.48	10.01	5.70	3.05	7.20
Far-Western Mountain	14,540	39.09	21.29	19.06	1.73	7.65	3.61	1.73	5.85
Far-Western Hill	28,842	41.13	20.91	16.21	2.06	7.59	4.20	2.09	5.81
Far-Western Terai	24,450	37.09	21.27	14.43	1.66	10.06	5.92	1.94	7.63

CHAPTER 10

POPULATION POLICY IN THE CONTEXT OF CHANGING DEMOGRAPHIC PICTURE OF NEPAL

Ram Hari Aryal, Ph.D.*

Abstract

The main aim of this chapter is to suggest plausible population policies in the context of the changing demographic picture of Nepal. The information for this study is based on census data and other related secondary sources. It is suggested that the formulation of population policy must be based on a comprehensive understanding of various socio-economic and demographic inter-relationships. One of the main reasons for fertility transition in Nepal is the effective social interaction process and its impact on the timing and pace of fertility. While life expectancy continues to increase, fertility rates have been decreasing in recent years. Net migration is far more volatile and rises and falls in response to the strength of job opportunities and other attractions/distractions to the place of destination/origin. The population is also becoming increasingly diverse and mobile and these factors make it increasingly challenging to measure population change accurately. Population policy combined with effective public policies during this time period of the demographic dividend can help facilitate more rapid economic growth and put less strain on families. Poverty and environmental change and their relationship with population are addressed. All these inter-relationships are presented in the Nepali context and policy and strategies are suggested. Moreover, institutional development and monitoring and evaluation mechanisms are suggested. Risks and assumptions and financial managements are also outlined.

10.1 Background

Population concern touches upon nearly all the facets of economic and social life of people. Similarly, social and economic development also affects population elements. Since population is multi-sectoral and a cross cutting issue, all stakeholders should be involved in effective population management processes. If the population structure and distribution are managed properly, the population can positively contribute to the development of the country. Population policy refers to a formalised set of procedures designed to guide human behaviour about population related activities (Demeny, 2003). Policies are designed keeping in mind future perspectives. Population policies can be either direct or indirect. Direct policies affect population variables directly that need a direct policy intervention, such as encouraging immigration can result in an increase in the growth rate. Indirect policies do not have a direct effect on population variables but have an indirect effect upon them. It is documented that educated women have lower fertility. Therefore educating women can be an indirect policy in reducing fertility. Population policy also depends upon the country's context as to whether to formulate pro-natal policy or anti-natal

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policy. Given the socio-economic situation of the country, reducing the population growth and fertility rate has always been a priority in Nepal's population policies. In other words, it is called an anti-natal policy.

These days population management is more important than fertility control. Population is changeable and should be dealt with within the country's context and population density. Nepal is experiencing demographic change and due to a higher percentage of young aged population, population momentum has been persistent. Similarly, high fertility in the past and a recent decline has given rise to youth bulge. The aged population 60 years and above has been increasing at an accelerated rate as a consequence of increasing life expectancy at birth and the proportion of death at each age has been decreasing. These population elements are directly related to the economic development of the country. To manage these issues and manage overall population management, collective efforts from all stakeholders are needed. The purpose of this population policy is to bring all stakeholders on board and to contribute to population management by working together in an integrated manner.

10.2 Review of past efforts related to population policy of Nepal

10.2.1 Population policies in planning documents.

Population issues have been an integral part of development planning in Nepal since the First Plan 1956-61. The importance of population policy has been explicitly mentioned in development planning since the third plan, 1965-70.

The First Plan 1956-61 and second plan 1963-65 focused only on resettlement policy. In these periods, there was a programme to redistribute the population from the densely populated Hill region to the sparsely populated Tarai region. However, in first plan period in 1959 "The Family Planning Association" was established at the private level.

The Third Plan 1965-70 focused on family planning programmes and an official family planning programme was started in 1968. The objective of the plan was to bring about a reduction in the crude birth rate (CBR).

The Fourth Plan 1970-75 to the Seventh Plan 1985-90 addressed the issue that both family planning and development are needed to control population growth rate and manage migration. In these periods bringing changes about in the socio-economic conditions and cultural practices of people were addressed. A vital registration system was introduced in some districts as a pilot project with UNFPA's assistance. In the sixth plan, due attention was given to manage population distribution and internal migration. In 1983 the National Population Strategy was developed. Both short term and long term strategies were developed. Major policy goals were to reduce the TFR from 6.3 to 5.8 by the year 1985, to 4.0 by the year 1990 and to 2.5 by the year 2000. In the Seventh Plan, the population policy document was more comprehensive in dealing with different issues such as "women and development", "child development", "family planning and the concept of unmet need", "population and development" and various other social issues.

The Eighth Plan 1992/97 revised the population strategy and addressed consequences of high population growth rate and focused on economic and social development to reduce fertility. The objectives of the plan were to bring about a balance between population growth and socio-economic development and the environment.

The Ninth Plan (1997-2002) addressed the need of the Population Perspective Plan to manage population and reduce poverty. The long-term objective of reducing the total fertility rate to replacement level within the 20 years was adopted.

The Tenth Plan, 2002-2007, was called the poverty reduction strategy paper (PRSP), therefore poverty alleviation remained the major objective in the tenth plan (NPC. 2003)

Objectives of the population management policy in the tenth plan were to:

- a. Develop small and quality family
- b. Integrate population into development activities
- c. Manage the migration process.

One of the emphasised programmes in the tenth plan was to prepare the Population Perspective Plan (PPP).

The objectives of Three Year Interim Plan, 2007-2010 were: to support poverty alleviation by reducing the population growth rate, to integrate the population management process with development programmes, to promote reproductive and sexual health rights of females and males, to manage the migration process, and to support poverty alleviation by reducing the population growth rate.

The objectives of the Three Year Plan, 2010-2013 were: to increase access to people at the village level by preparing an action plan related to population based on PPP, to increase public awareness in order to develop small families as well as to reduce the population growth rate, to launch special programmes targeting youth, with priority given to youth aged 10-24 years, to increase access to reproductive health services and promote population awareness programmes to all classes, sectors, and ages of the population, to have replacement level fertility by 2022, and to contribute to a balanced social and economic development by effective population management (NPC, 2010).

A Public Private Partnership (PPP) model will be used to implement population programmes effectively. An effective monitoring system will be used to monitor whether population programmes are effectively reaching the local level.

The 13th interim three-year Plan, 2013-2015, has a long-term perspective of transforming Nepal into a developing country from the least developed country status within the next ten years. Improving the living standard of people with the alleviation of poverty in the country is the strategy of the 13th three-year plan. The plan has a goal of reducing the number of people below the poverty line to 18% from the existing 23.8%. Empowerment of targeted groups of people and minimisation of the negative impacts of climate change, are other strategies of the 13th three-year development plan (NPC, 2013)

The government has a target of an average annual growth rate of 6% over the next three years, with agriculture sector growth and non-agriculture sector growth targeted at 4.5% and 6.7 % respectively. The target for maternal mortality ratio (per 100,000 birth) is 134 from 229 in 2013. The net enrolment rate at primary education's target is 100% from 95.3% in 2013. Contraceptive prevalence rate is expected to reach 67%, the Total Fertility Rate will decrease to 2.4 and life expectancy will reach 71 by the end of the plan period.

Strategies are to:

- Establish reproductive health as a basic human right by increasing awareness.
- Ensure effective gender equality and social inclusion in population management programmes, these will be implemented in targeted groups.
- Create a balance between the population and development programmes.

Several working policies and programmes are recommended in the planning document. One of the working policies is to form a National Population Policy.

10.2.2 Population Perspective Plan (PPP)

The general objective of the PPP is to enhance the quality of the lives of Nepal's population. The specific objectives suggested are:

- Integration of population concerns in all areas of development and environment.
- Facilitation of rapid demographic transition.
- Facilitation of spatio-economic development processes conducive to poverty alleviation, sustainable urbanisation and migration.
- Institutional arrangements and implementation mechanisms for the coordination, implementation and monitoring of population programmes.

The need for the PPP was conceived on three main grounds:

- Integration of population concern at the policy level so that the PPP becomes the comprehensive document that compliments other sectoral plans.
- To help prioritise specific sectoral policy/programme areas related to population that impact on poverty alleviation and sustainable development.
- To attempt to address commitments that Nepal made in endorsing plans of action related to issues of population in various international forums, particularly ICPD (1994) and MDGs 2000-2015.

Core areas of PPP

Demographic Analysis : Under this area, the trend and differentials in demographic indicators of Nepal according to 25 years projection at five year intervals are analysed.

Reproductive Health (RH) : Reproductive health is one of the main focus areas of the ICPD. Accordingly, the plan in the RH area attempts to develop reproductive health as rights within the socio-cultural context of the country.

Economic Dimension : This includes the integration of population and development and shows the impact of economic policies on access to social services. Also discussed is the implication of economic activities on population processes, with a special emphasis on the poor and disadvantaged populations.

Poverty Dimension : This reviews the poverty situation of Nepal and attempts to establish the link between population and poverty.

Spatial Dimension : This section emphasises the issue of urbanisation and migration in Nepal.

Gender Mainstreaming : This discusses the legal, institutional and socio-economic aspects of women and discusses measures for interventions against discrimination.

Social Dimension : This section focuses on the social and cultural aspects of Janajati and Dalit in detail.

Decentralisation: This focuses on local level population management and includes the importance of decentralising population management and data collection at the local level.

Institutional Mechanism: Institutional mechanism is suggested particularly to monitor and evaluate the implemented population and development programmes.

10.2.3 Local level population management programme

The Population Division of the Ministry of Health and Population launched the Population Management Program (LLPM) from 2065/66 in 10 districts which is now extended to all districts. The main aim of the LLPM is to raise awareness among local communities about population and reproductive health issues. The major population programmes under the LLPM are ageing, safe migration, establishment of district population information centres, adolescents etc. Although this programme is very important from both a programme and policy point of view, this programme was not implemented well due to a lack of committed manpower in the population division and because it was viewed as a low priority programme in the ministry. One of the main programmes of the 13th interim three-year Plan, 2013-2015 is to implement local level population management programmes.

10.3 Present demographic situation of Nepal

The median age of the population is 22.6 years. One third of the total population is made up of children below 14 years and 8% is 60 years and above, indicating the young age structure of Nepal's population. The age 60 years and above population has been increasing at an accelerated rate as a consequence of increasing life expectancy at birth and decreasing the proportion of death at each age. High fertility in the past and a recent decline has given rise to a youth bulge. Young people (10-24 years) account for 33% of the total population and the youth population age 15-24 years stands at 20%. Nepal has a demographic opportunity on the basis of its current age structure of population. Population growth has a negative effect on economic growth but growth in the share of the population that is economically active will be beneficial to the nation (Bloom, Canning and Sevilla, 2003). However, Nepal is facing massive youth migration overseas. This reality leads to the conclusion that the demographic dividend is not automatically translated to the nation's economic development; it requires the right policy environment. Moreover, due to the higher percentage of the young age population, population momentum has been persistent in Nepal.

The Total Fertility Rate (TFR) has reduced over time. The TFR was 6.3 per woman in 1981, which dropped to 2.6 in 2011 (MOHP, 2011). Although the age at marriage of both sexes has increased over-time, it is still low and has not had a significant impact on fertility. The contraceptive use rate was only 3% in 1976, which has increased to about 50% in 2011. The contraceptive use rate has not increased as expected in recent years. Contraceptives are used to stop child bearing altogether rather than space child birth. There is still a 27% unmet need for family planning methods. One of the main challenges of the

population policy is to narrow the unmet need of family planning.

Mortality is another important factor of population change. One of the main indicators of mortality is the Infant Mortality Rate (IMR), which has also declined over time. In 1986, the IMR was 108 per 100 live births that has decreased to 46 per 100 live births in 2011. Life expectancy at birth is also increasing, which is 68 years in 2011. The overall components of reproductive health have not yet been implemented effectively, as a result expected outcomes have not yet been achieved. Due to inadequate coordination among different stakeholders, there has been duplication and overlapping in the implementation of programmes related to population. Although the demographic indicators are changing positively, sustaining these trends is another challenge of population policy.

Spatial distribution of the population is another important issue of the population policy. Due to unbalanced development, people are moving to Tarai and accessible parts of the country. Urban areas and the Tarai are overcrowded and there is a problem of high population density. Uneven distribution of the population and safe labour migration are the emerging issues that should be dealt with carefully. The pattern of the population is changing. The base of the population pyramid of the country has started to shrink.

10.4 Problems and challenges

Problems

In Nepal's population both qualitative and quantitative problems are prevailing. In regard to the qualitative problems, it is well established that educated and employed women have lower fertility compared to their uneducated and unemployed counterparts. Therefore access to both education and employment result in low fertility that has a multiplier effect on population related programmes. Similarly, existing pro-natalist social norms and values have encouraged families to have many children in general and a son in particular. Therefore changing the existing social norms and values with collective efforts by communities is one of the ways of reducing fertility in a country such as Nepal, where social norms and values regarding fertility are entrenched.

Quantitative problems are another important aspect to be considered in population management. The existing socio-economic structure of the country leads to the conclusion that the size of the total population of the country is high. Moreover, the age structure, where young and children are high in number, resulting in a high potential for future growth of the population, is another quantitative issue. How to address the population momentum and young peoples' demands and aspirations is a major issue of the population policy of the country. Fifty per cent of the total population live in the Tarai area whereas only 8% live in the Mountain area, indicating the uneven distribution of the population. How to narrow these gaps is also a concern of the population policy.

Challenges

It is advisable to identify demographic and institutional challenges and opportunities of the population issues. In regard to demographic challenges, as mentioned above, social norms and values are encouraging early marriage and early childbirth in Nepal. Although the percentage looks small, the number of old age population is increasing. Infant mortality rates and maternal mortality ratios are still high although they have decreased over time. The population is heavily concentrated in urban and Tarai areas, indicating the uneven distribution of the population that is one of the major challenges of

the population programmes of the country. Young people have high demands and aspiration resulting in a change in family relationships. This negative change in family relationships impacts on the social values of society. One of the responsibilities of the population policy is to protect and value the social system, which has a direct relationship with social behaviour. Positive social behaviour has a direct and indirect relationship with the fertility behaviour of society.

Using remittances in the productive sector in general, and using the existing demographic dividend of the country for sustainable development in particular, is the major challenge of the country. Developing programmes and policies and implementing them collectively against a backdrop of population momentum is also a challenge for a country such as Nepal, where young people are in the majority.

Institutional challenges include a lack of effective coordination among various implementing agencies that result in duplication and overlapping of programmes. Weak institutional capacity and lack of trained human resources have weakened both the formulation and implementation process of population programmes. More importantly, due to a lack of population related information at the district and local level, appropriate programmes have not been developed. There is a need for research to identify programme gaps. Narrowing these gaps is a challenge of the country. A lack of an effective monitoring and evaluation mechanism is another challenge that needs to be addressed.

The rapid population growth in urban and semi urban areas has put excessive pressure on social and physical infrastructures. Similarly, ambiguous policies on urbanisation without linkages to infrastructure, energy, basic services, and governance have also caused population problems in the country. Population policies are not linked with education, health, infrastructure and communication, community development, and quality of life. Spatial distribution of the population is worsening due to the imbalance between governments' investment and population distribution. It should be understood that population/or its growth is not a problem in itself, rather its unbalanced distribution and growth has caused various problems. These issues are also a concern of the national population policy.

10.5. Review of national policies and international commitments related to population policy

10.5.1 International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) and Millennium Development Goals (MDG)

Nepal is a signatory of these two important conferences and committed to implement programmes of action of these conferences. These two conferences are related to population and development policies and national governments are responsible for formulating and implementing these policies. Accordingly, while formulating population policy, it is better to highlight how they are related to population and development within the country context.

ICPD 1994 enlarged the scope of earlier population policies and called on governments to take action in many areas to promote human development and to stabilise population growth. Similarly, the MDGs give people the power to claim their fundamental human rights, such as a right to food, education, health and shelter, and allow ordinary citizens to become active advocates for development.

The first goal of the MDG was to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger which is very close to the ICPD objectives to “raise the quality of life through population and development policies and programmes

aimed at achieving poverty eradication, and sustained economic growth in the context of sustainable development”.

The second goal of the MDG was to achieve universal primary education by 2015. Similarly, the ICPD stated that countries should further strive to ensure complete access to primary school or the equivalent level of education for girls and boys as quickly as possible, and in any case before 2015

The third goal of the MDG was to eliminate gender disparity at all levels of education by 2015. Similarly, the ICPD mentioned in its principle 4 that advancing gender equality and equity and the empowerment of women, and the elimination of all kinds of violence against women, and ensuring women’s ability to control their own fertility, are cornerstones of population and development related programmes.

The fourth goal of MDG was to reduce under-five child mortality by two thirds before 2015. ICPD stated that by 2015, countries should aim to achieve an infant mortality rate below 35 per 1000 live births and an under 5-mortality rate below 45 per 1000 live births

The fifth goal of the MDG was to reduce maternal mortality ratio by two thirds by 2015. ICPD stated that countries should strive to effect significant reductions in maternal mortality by 2015, a reduction by one half of 1990 levels by 2000, and a further one half by 2015.

The sixth goal of the MDG was to cut HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases by half by 2015, where as ICPD mentioned a target date of 2005, to ensure at least 90% and by 2010 at least 95%, of the 15-24 age group has access to Information, Education and Communication (IEC) and services to develop life skills required to reduce their vulnerability to HIV infection, that by 2005 prevalence is reduced globally, and by 25% in the most affected countries.

The seventh goal of the MDGs was to integrate the principles of sustainable development into national policies and programmes and to reverse the loss of environmental resources. Similarly ICPD stated that population issues should be integrated into formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes relating to sustainable development.

The eighth goal of the MDGs was on partnership development. The ICPD goal is also to strengthen the partnership between governments, international organisations and the private sector in identifying new areas of cooperation.

10.5.2 Nepal’s Second Long-Term Health Plan (SLTHP), 1997-2017

The Ministry of Health and Population developed a 20-year Second Long-Term Health Plan (SLTHP) for 1997-2017. The main aim of the SLTHP is to guide health sector development in the improvement of the health of the population. Moreover, the aim is also to provide a guiding framework to build successive periodic and annual health plans that improve the health status of the population.

The SLTHP vision is a healthcare system with equitable access and quality services in both rural and urban areas. Most of the population related targets are also fixed in the long-term health plan. However, some of the targets have already been achieved such as TFR. The target of TFR was to reduce it to 3.03, it is now 2.6. Some of the indicators are targeted as follows:

- To reduce the infant mortality rate to 34.4 per thousand live births.
- To reduce the under-five mortality rate to 62.5 per thousand.
- To reduce the total fertility rate to 3.05.
- To increase life expectancy to 68.7 years.
- To reduce the crude birth rate to 26.6 per thousand.
- To reduce the crude death rate to 6 per thousand.
- To reduce the maternal mortality rate to 250 per hundred thousand births.
- To increase the contraceptive prevalence rate to 58.2%.
- To increase the percentage of deliveries attended by trained personnel to 95%.
- To increase the percentage of pregnant women attending a minimum of four antenatal visits to 80%.
- To decrease the percentage of new born weighing less than 2500 grams to 12%.
- To have essential healthcare services (EHCS) in the districts available to 90% of the population living within 30 minutes' travel time of such facilities.
- To have essential drugs available at 100% of facilities.
- To equip 100% of facilities with full staff to deliver essential health care services.
- To increase total health expenditure to 10% of the total government expenditure.

10.5.3 National Health Policy 2071

Recently the Government of Nepal affirmed the National Health Policy 2071. The main objective of the National Health Policy 2071 is to provide quality health services to all citizens of Nepal by skilled health workers in order to protect and promote citizens' rights of achieving basic health services. The policy has emphasised the preventive, promotive and curative health services, basic primary health services, ayurvedic and other traditional health services, community participation and development of human resources for health, resource mobilisation and coordination and participation of concerned stakeholders. Strategies and programmes contained in the policy document are also related to population concerns. For example, there are integrated programmes to provide care, support and effective and appropriate health services to old age people. Intensive care units for new born children will be established up to the district level. Targets are also fixed to reduce the Maternal Mortality Ratio to 25 and less, new born mortality to 10 and less, under five mortality to 15 and less and life expectancy to increase by 75 years. It is also stated in the policy document that family planning services related policies will be developed for effective population management (MOHP, 2014)

To reduce infant and maternal mortality and to provide quality maternal services, the government has decided to begin midwifery education. The government announced the new budget for the fiscal year 2014/15 and allocated over 33 billion Rs. to the health sector. Since the health policy is related to population issues and vice versa, the National Health Policy will be complementary to and supplemented by the national population policy.

10.5.4 National Child Policy 2069

Since children are the major proportion of the population of Nepal, it is useful to highlight some issues related to population from the National Child Policy 2069. The main objectives of the National child

policy 2069 are to protect children from any kind of exploitation such as physical, mental, sexual, and misbehaviour and to focus on children's mental, physical and educational development. To increase children's involvement in any kind of programmes that affect them is also an objective of the policy. The policy also states that all types of child labour should be diminished and programmes should be conducted to control child labour. There should be no discrimination against children and child justice should be strengthened. Every child should have access to education and a programme should be designed and implemented accordingly. Basically this policy protects the rights of children with a focus on children's education. The population policy should be in line with these objectives.

10.6 Rationale for population policy in the context of changing demographic picture of Nepal

Nepal is facing many population and development problems. The population policy is justified by its multifaceted impact on all aspects of economic and social life. The need for realistic policies to incorporate demographic variables into development planning is constrained by a lack of expertise, insufficient data, varying economic development, and a lack of stakeholders' involvement. The integration of population concerns with development is discussed in the absence of an operational mechanism. The policy provides an operational mechanism but there is confusion in the inter-linkages between goals, strategies, plans of action, programmes of action, policies, working policies, programmes and targets. Linkages between population and poverty are also confused and not explored. Since population and health is interrelated and both programmes are under the same Ministry, health components should be considered as important in the population policy. However, given the magnitude and complexity of the developmental problems Nepal faces, it no longer makes sense to justify the enactment of a population policy on the grounds of health alone. Therefore population factors have to be regarded as both determinants and consequences of the level of economic and social development.

Institutional arrangements and mechanism are very weak from policy formulation and programme development to monitoring and evaluation. Similarly, a lack of dedicated and trained manpower is lacking in any sector and Ministry that also affects implementing policy. In order to integrate population issues in to development planning, the responsibility for integration with different line ministries and national plans must rest with an officially endorsed contact person. Unless the role and responsibility of this person is addressed in policy documents, population elements will not be addressed in the planning process of the line ministries. Similarly, if population factors are to be integrated into the development planning process, sectoral planning officials need to be well versed in population related issues. A concerted effort needs to be made to expose all these officials to the uses of population projections and variables in their specific work. The population policy is also directed to provide integrated population and development services at all levels. Policy should address the national and international population and development commitments. Policy should also provide guidelines to empower women and families to plan how many children they want. Moreover, it is well understood that effective population policy can have a significant influence in overcoming the demographic and population challenges of the country.

The policy should understand the causes of fertility change. Nepal is in a fertility transition process. One of the main reasons for the fertility transition in Nepal is the effective social interaction process and its impact on the timing and pace of fertility. It is well established that diffusion dynamics have affected the timing and pace of fertility change in developing countries (Cleland and Wilson, 1987). In a society where education levels have not yet advanced the diffusion process play a vital role in changing social and behavioural norms of couples and individuals. These are some of the issues that the policy should address while formulating policies regarding fertility.

Another important component of population change is mortality, which is also decreasing in Nepal. Life expectancy at birth for Nepal rose from 48 years in the 1950s to over 68 years in 2010. Due to an improvement in medical facilities and health awareness, mortality levels are decreasing in Nepal. The epidemiologic transition influences mortality trends in a population by shifting the age pattern of mortality over time. The epidemiology transition shapes the mortality patterns of the demographic transition, while the shifting age structure that occurs with the demographic transition influences the distribution of deaths by cause observed in the epidemiologic transition (United Nations, 2012). While life expectancy continues to increase, fertility rates have also been decreasing in recent years.

Migration has become of primary importance in development planning in Nepal. Migration is also a main driver of the development process. Population change is a function of two components: natural increase (births minus deaths) and net migration (people moving into minus people moving out). Net migration is the primary driver behind population growth trends in the country. Net migration is far more volatile and rises and falls in response to the strength of job opportunities and any other attractions/distractions to the place of destination/origin (Puget Sound Regional Council, 2012). These issues should be understood while developing migration policies and programmes.

Demographic trends describe the historical changes in demographics in a population over time. Both distribution and trends of values within a demographic variable are of interest when developing population policy. The demographic can change in terms of its size, the age of the demographic, lifestyle expectations etc. Demographic can be viewed as the essential information about the population of a region/ district and the culture of the people.

The population of Nepal is ageing. This will have major implications for future policy and service provision. The population is expected to continue to grow because of population momentum. The population is also becoming increasingly diverse and mobile and these factors make it increasingly challenging to measure population change accurately.

There are two demographic changes that affect family life. Declining births rates and an increase in the average age of the population has the most far-reaching consequences for family life. One of the main reasons for the changing demographic picture of Nepal is the change in social norms and values resulting in a change in family relationships. Diffusion dynamics have weakened the traditional social values and norms regarding fertility behaviour. Diffusion theories should not only be considered in regard to fertility but should also be considered when developing the population policy for Nepal.

The demographic shift has initiated a demographic dividend, one of the important issues that should be addressed in the policy. The population policy, combined with effective public policies during this time period of the demographic dividend, can help facilitate more rapid economic growth and put less strain on families. In many countries this time period has led to increasingly smaller families, rising income, and rising life expectancy rates. However, dramatic social changes can occur during this time, such as increasing divorce rates, postponement of marriage, single person households, female headed households, changing family relationships etc. This situation increases labour supply and human capital. These issues should be addressed properly while developing the population policy of the country.

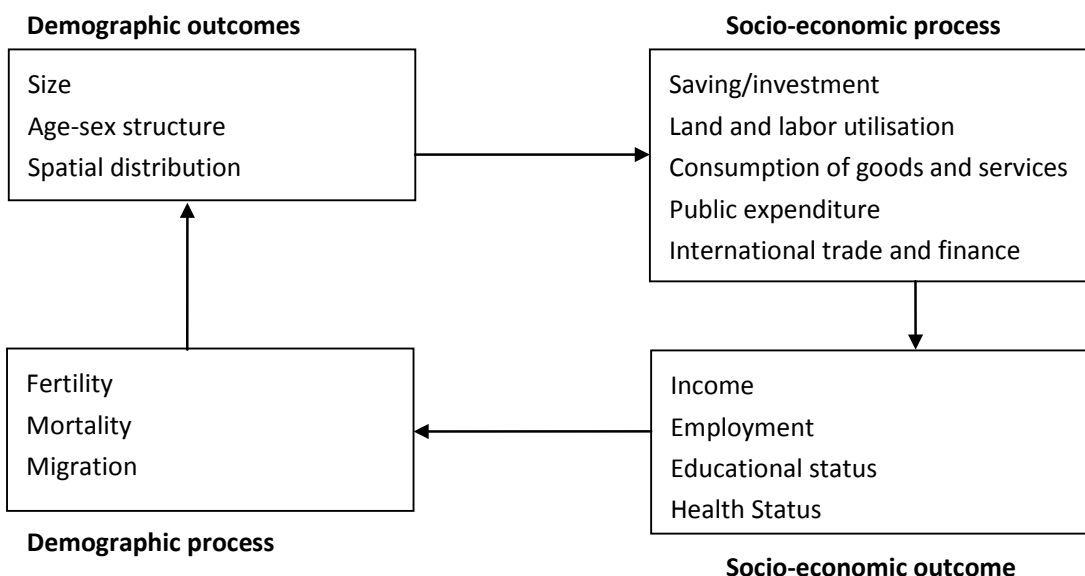
The age structure of the population is very important from a policy and programme point of view. The median age of Nepal is just over 22 years indicating the young age structure in the population. The median age is the age in a country that divides a population into two equal-sized groups. The population pyramid shows the distribution of the population by sex and by five year age groups. The chang-

ing patterns of population can be easily seen from the population pyramid. The population pyramid of Nepal has changed. The population pyramid has started to narrow at the bottom. This should also be understood while developing population policy of the country.

10.7 Framework for integrating population factors in development process.

Before developing population policy, it is useful to examine a conceptual framework that illustrates the complex interrelationship between population factors and socio-economic development. This framework provides information about why population and development integration is complex and difficult to implement in practice.

Figure 10.1 Framework of population and development interrelationships



Adopted from: Herrin, Parkodo, Tan Boon Ann and Hingladorom, 1986

The demographic processes of fertility, mortality and migration determine the size, structure and spatial distribution of the population. The resulting demographic outcomes in turn affect the operation of socio-economic processes. These socio-economic processes then determine the socio-economic outcomes. And the circle is completed by these socio-economic outcomes in turn affecting and determining the basic demographic process where the process started. Thus policies must be formulated and implemented in a comprehensive and consistent, and not isolated, manner. The formulation of population policies and programmes must be based on a comprehensive understanding of various socio-economic and demographic interrelationships. Population goals and policies must be considered to be integral parts of social, economic and cultural development, aiming at improving the quality of lives of people. All political, social and religious organisations should be reviewed to determine which ones are helping and which are not and policy made accordingly.

10.8 Objectives in the context of changing demographic picture

The paths to the attainment of the goal of harmonising the interrelationship between population dynamics and other factors affecting the probability of development are many. Given the assumption that there is a two-way interaction between demographic factors on the one hand and development indicators on the other, sound population policy requires that action be taken in carefully selected areas in both spheres. Policy should aim at pursuing the following objectives:

1. Integration and internalisation of population elements in the sectoral developmental process at all levels for sustainable development.
2. Reproductive health, family planning, and abortion should be made more effective and manageable.
3. Mortality should be reduced and physical weakness and care programmes should be made manageable and qualitative.
4. Both internal and international migration process should be managed and safe labour migration and the use of remittance in the productive sector should be addressed.
5. The carrying capacity of the environment should be maintained/improved by taking appropriate environmental protection/conservation measures.
6. The relationship between population and poverty should be addressed.
7. Population and development programmes should be included in gender equality, social inclusion and sustainable development activities.
8. The social and economic status of vulnerable groups (women, youth, children and the elderly) should be improved significantly.

10.8.1 Policies and strategies to fulfil the objectives

Objective 1

Population and Development: For balanced economic and social development of the country, there should be a balance between population elements and the development process.

- 1.1 Population momentum should be reduced through a delay in age at first birth, changing birth spacing patterns and a reduction in family size as desired.
- 1.2 Population factors should be integrated into development, existing population related sectoral policies, plans and programmes should be revisited and their institutional and management aspects modified for effective implementation.
- 1.3 On the basis of the population census of 2011, human resource projections should be carried out on a regional basis and population management should be tied in with human resources development.
- 1.4 To remove the overlapping of population and development related programmes, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms should be effective.
- 1.5 Different elements of the population should be integrated in to social, economic and geo-political development aspects of the country.
- 1.6 Population management should be adopted and implemented according to the changing context of the economic, social and political situation of the country.

- 1.7 Effective mechanisms should be developed and implemented for sectoral coordination.
- 1.8 Vicious poverty should be addressed integrating the population into all elements of development.
- 1.9 For overall development of the country, existing means and resources should be used to the maximum to improve the quality of lives of people.
- 1.10 To improve the quality of vital registrations, its coverage should be expanded and the partnership of working jointly with related Ministries should be strengthened.
- 1.11 To address the challenges and issues of unemployment, other related sectoral policies such as industry, tourism, agriculture etc. should be revisited.
- 1.12 Changing values and technology should be adopted while developing new development programmes.
- 1.13 An officially endorsed population programme contact officer should be identified in every ministry.
- 1.14 An officially endorsed contact officer should be trained to understand the population and development relationship.

Objective 2

Reproductive health, family planning, and abortion should be made more effective and manageable.

- 2.1 Access to sexual and reproductive health services should be ensured to all in general, and women, youth and adolescents living in rural and remote areas in particular.
- 2.2 Information about the advantages of small families should be provided to matured persons and couples and they should be encouraged to use family planning as they think about completing their family size.
- 2.3 Family planning services should be extended to areas where matured persons and couples are concentrated.
- 2.4 Infertility problems should be addressed.
- 2.5 Information, education, and communication (IEC) as well as behavioural change communication programmes should be conducted to promote late marriage and discourage early childbirth.
- 2.6 Social and cultural norms which support and oppose fertility should be identified and addressed accordingly.
- 2.7 Reproductive health rights should be enshrined as Human Rights.
- 2.8 Special efforts should be initiated to improve the health of newborn babies.
- 2.9 Access to family planning services should be increased and expanded to target groups to address the unmet need for family planning.
- 2.10 Awareness programmes should be developed to provide information that breastfeeding is good for both child and maternal health development.
- 2.11 The access of safe abortion should be ensured and these services should be provided to poor and marginalised groups at no cost.
- 2.12 Unsafe means of family planning should be replaced.
- 2.13 Special awareness and fertility related programmes should be implemented in communities where there is high fertility.

- 2.14 Targeted programmes should be developed for adolescents and youth to ensure access to reproductive and sexual health education in an open and free manner.
- 2.15 In Nepal, men have a dominant role in decision making in the family setting, their active involvement is, therefore, essential in planning family size, supporting contraceptive use, assuring adequate nutritional status of pregnant women, arranging skilled care during delivery and avoiding delay in seeking emergency obstetric care. Therefore men's roles and responsibilities relating to fertility behaviour should be defined clearly by developing IEC programmes specially designed to promote male involvement in family planning.
- 2.16 Methods of contraception should be diversified with particular attention to increasing the availability of male oriented methods.
- 2.17 The diversity and coverage of family planning service delivery should be expanded through clinical and community based outreach services.
- 2.18 The participation of non-governmental organisations should be encouraged and supported in the delivery of population and family planning related services.
- 2.19 A conducive environment should be created that allows users the widest possible choice of contraceptives by diversifying the method mix available in the country.

Objective 3

Mortality will be reduced and physical weakness and care programmes will be made manageable and qualitative.

- 3.1 Life expectancy should be increased by reducing mortality in the country.
- 3.2 The quality of temporary methods of family planning should be increased to space births resulting in reducing infant mortality rates and the maternal mortality ratio.
- 3.3 Physical weakness and care programmes should be made manageable and qualitative to reduce mortality.
- 3.4 Effective health services should be ensured to reduce maternal mortality in remote and backward areas.
- 3.5 Birthing centres should be extended to provide facilities to mother and care to new born children.
- 3.6 Old age care centres should be established to improve the health of old aged persons and make them more active.
- 3.7 Pre and post delivery services should be extended and made effective to reduce both maternal and child mortality.
- 3.8 Different types of quality immunisations should be provided free of cost to specified age groups of children.
- 3.9 Safe abortion should be encouraged and unsafe abortion should be controlled.

Objective 4

Manage both internal and international migration process, address safe labour migration and use remittance in the productive sector.

Population Monograph of Nepal 2014

- 4.1 Policies should be formulated to develop small towns to integrate scattered settlements.
- 4.2 Existing related programmes should be revisited to effectively manage and implement migration related programmes.
- 4.3 An emphasis should be placed on establishing an agro-based industry to provide employment and economic opportunities in order to reduce internal migration.
- 4.4 Skill development opportunities should be provided to those who want to go abroad for employment.
- 4.5 To protect the rights of the labour migrants, labour diplomacy should be enhanced and promoted.
- 4.6 A conducive environment should be created and programmes should be developed to use remittances in the productive sector.
- 4.7 An environment should be created to develop different programmes to retain returned migrants using the skills they have learned abroad.
- 4.8 The national capacity for migration (overseas employment) should be strengthened or developed by adopting national policies, legislation and administrative structures and adequate resources.
- 4.9 A planned urbanisation policy should be implemented to reduce the danger of unplanned urbanisation.
- 4.10 The urban poor should be addressed and their earning capacity should be increased.
- 4.11 Appropriate opportunities should be created to use the existing demographic dividend.
- 4.12 Steps should be taken to ensure that migration policies and processes are transparent, accountable, safe, rights-based and gender sensitive.
- 4.13 There should be a greater participation and promotion of civil society, including migrant workers' associations, in the development and implementation of safe migration (overseas employment) policies.
- 4.14 The respect for and the protection of the rights of migrants should be enhanced without discrimination of any kind or xenophobia in collaboration with destination countries.
- 4.15 The needs of children of migrating individuals/families should be addressed and their rights protected based on the best interests of the child.
- 4.16 There is a need to ratify and comply with international treaties such as ILO Conventions and the 1990 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, and provisions of these instruments should be implemented within national legislation.
- 4.17 Strategies for decent and productive work of youth should be developed and implemented

Objective 5

Address relation between population and the environment.

- 5.1 Programmes should be developed to increase awareness of the environmental and social costs of overpopulation.
- 5.2 The relationship between climate change and population in the Nepali context should be identified.
- 5.3 Programmes should be developed to balance the equation between population dynamics, consumption and production, both at the national and local level.
- 5.4 There should be a balance between the carrying capacity of land and other resources, and the population size should be created focusing on sustainable environmental and climate change.
- 5.5 An effective population redistribution policy in the country should be implemented addressing the internal migration problem in the country.

Objective 6

Address the relationship between population and poverty.

- 6.1 Poverty anywhere is a danger to peace. Therefore programmes should be developed to contribute to poverty reduction activities through effective population management.
- 6.2 Poverty alleviation is very much the function of the extent of sustainable production and consumption patterns, therefore programmes should be developed accordingly.
- 6.3 Programmes should be developed that identify the effect of the changing demographic elements, such as fertility, mortality, migration, age structure, increasing ageing population and population distribution on development.
- 6.4 A public-private partnership approach should be adopted to focus on the implementation of development programmes to reduce poverty.
- 6.5 A study on the overall carrying capacity at district level should be initiated.
- 6.6 Private sector cooperation should be enhanced so that the benefits of information and communication are made available.
- 6.7 The gap between female and male education should be reduced to reduce poverty in the country.
- 6.8 Excessive population growth is considered a major determinant of poverty in Nepal. Unlike in other countries where poverty is largely the result of mismanagement of resources, Nepal has too many people on a very narrow resource base. One of the ways to reduce poverty in the country is to reduce the population growth rate of poor regions. Therefore programmes should be developed to reduce the growth rate of poor regions
- 6.9 At the regional level, total fertility rates are much higher in mid-western and far-western development regions, with an incidence of poverty that is higher than the national average. Targeted programmes should be developed to address these problems.
- 6.10 In Nepal, the poor are those who are small and marginal farmers, landless, tenants and Dalits. At the macro level, Far western and Mid western development regions are the most disadvantaged regions. These are also groups in which human fertility is much higher than in other regions. Special programmes should be implemented to address these targeted groups.

Objective 7

Include population and development programmes in gender equality, social inclusion and sustainable development.

- 7.1 Income earning activities should be increased targeting women, backward and marginalised groups of the population.
- 7.2 An environment for 100% of enrolment of adolescents in primary and secondary level should be created to fulfil the objectives of education for all.
- 7.3 Farmers should be encouraged to diversify agriculture farming.
- 7.4 Existing formal and informal education curriculum should be revisited and reproductive and age appropriate sex education should be made compulsory.
- 7.5 Population issues should be included in every development project.
- 7.6 Marginalised groups should be mainstreamed by providing them with food and shelter, education and economic security.
- 7.7 New steps should be taken to advance deprived communities.
- 7.8 Targeted and backward communities should be involved and included in development programmes.
- 7.9 Gender budgets should be managed to empower women to decide how many children they want.
- 7.10 Inclusive programmes should be developed to address the needs of socially marginalised, backward communities and helpless people.
- 7.11 Special programmes should be implemented to protect minority groups such as Raute, Kusunda, Praja etc.

Objective 8

Significantly improving the social and economic status of vulnerable groups (women, youth, children and the elderly)

- 8.1 Maternal, infant and child mortality rates should be reduced and the level of general welfare of the population should be promoted by designing different programmes.
- 8.2 All legal and customary practices militating against the full enjoyment of economic and social rights by women, including the full enjoyment of property rights and access to gainful employment, should be removed.
- 8.3 A coherent and long-term policy should be designed and implemented to create conditions facilitating an increased integration of women in to the modern sector of the economy.
- 8.4 Family life related education and information should be made widely available via formal and informal media.
- 8.5 All laws impeding, in any way, the access of women to all social, economic and cultural resources and their control over them, including the ownership of property and businesses. should be amended.
- 8.6 Teenage and youth counselling centres in reproductive health should be established.
- 8.9 Appropriate strategies should be developed to improve the working ability of adolescents and youth to increase their productivity.

10.9 Institutional development

Population is a cross cutting issue with multi-sectoral and multi-dimensional characteristics so there is a need for an integrated and comprehensive institutional framework for effective implementation of population policies, strategies and programmes. Considering data as a basic requisite in formulating policy and strategies, in implementing policy and programmes, and in monitoring and evaluating these implemented programmes, each and every institution, including government and non-government agencies, should strengthen and build their capacity on database management at least within their programmes. Each agency should have at least one trained database manager to maintain up-to-date statistics on their programmes.

For national level data generation, the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) should be strengthened with capacity and skilled manpower, so that it is more efficient. The responsibility of the CBS should be specific to coordinating data producing activities and providing required data to the government as well as research organisations.

The existing national population committee, which was established to provide guidance in policies and strategies relating to population, has not been working effectively and its role has been minimal in the ministry. Accordingly, this committee should be converted into the National Population Research Council established in order to constantly provide feedback on research outputs and policy recommendations in the emerging and burning issues of population and social justice. This council should coordinate, evaluate and assess population programmes implemented by other ministries and agencies and act as a national focal point on donor support in the field of population. It should act and advise on population related projects and programmes proposed by different agencies and determine demographic indicators or project or estimate as needed. A key aim of the proposed council is to minimise and better understand the future divergence between the rolled forward and census based population estimates.

The Population Division under the Ministry of Health and Population should be converted into the Department of Population Management to effectively discharge its functions. This department should act as the secretariat of the proposed Council. Formulation of policies and plans related to population and their implementation or cause implementation should be the function of the department. This department should support the implementation of population programmes by different governmental and non-governmental organisations and support in the development of acts, regulations, and guidelines related to population. It should analyse and publish, as necessary, data derived from the national census and other periodic studies and the research council. The department should support concerned ministries in effectively expanding the coverage of the vital registration system and undertake other activities related to population as required.

10.10 Legal aspect

Existing scattered population related laws and rules should be revisited and refined as per policy requirements. To implement population policies and programmes in a coordinated and effective manner an Umbrella Population Act should be formulated. This Umbrella Act should also address immigration and safe labour migration issues of the country.

10.11 Monitoring and evaluation (M&E)

This policy should be revisited and amended every three years. Monitoring and evaluation is one of the most important components of ensuring implementation of formulated policies and programmes. Therefore M&E mechanisms should be made more effective and implementable. The system of research audit should be implemented. The impact of remittances on economic development should be monitored and evaluated and programmes developed accordingly.

10.12 Risks and assumptions

Risks

There is a possibility of a lack of both human and physical resources to implement this policy.

Coordination and support as expected by the policy from different stakeholders may not be forthcoming.

Related stakeholders may not include the provision of the policy and may not own the programmes of this policy within their own programmes.

Assumptions

The Umbrella Population Act, which will include all issues of population, will be formulated in two years time.

Population issues will be recognised and owned as crosscutting issues by all related stakeholders. Thereby, integration in all sectoral policies of development will be emphasised.

Collaboration among government, non-governmental organisations and the private sector will be ensured.

Firm commitments from the state will be expressed to implement the policy and the policy will be accepted as an abiding obligation.

The responsible agencies (government as well as non-government organisations) will make detailed work plans to implement policies.

This policy will be complimentary, supplementary and supportive to the other existing policies of the line ministries.

10.13 Financial management

The financial management aspect is very important to implement policies and programmes. Existing budget allocations for population programmes will be gradually increased to ensure policy implementation.

New arrangements will also be made to manage financial resources for effective implementation of the policy.

The assistance by the population related donors should be more effectively used in targeted sectors and groups as envisaged by the policy.

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Glossary

<i>Absentee Population</i>	An individual absent from the household and gone abroad for more than six months before the census date.
<i>Age Dependency Ratio</i>	The ratio of persons in the ages defined as dependent (under 15 and over 60 years) to persons in the ages defined as economically productive (15–59 years).
<i>Ageing Index</i>	The number of persons 60 years and above per hundred persons under age 15 years.
<i>Age Specific Fertility Rate</i>	Number of births to women of a particular age group, in a specific calendar year, to themid-year population of women in that same age group.
<i>Average household size</i>	Average number of usually residing population of a household. Total population of a specific area divided by the total number of household of that area provides average household size.
<i>Child Mortality Rate</i>	Total number of deaths of children aged one to four years during a specific year divided by the mid-year population of children aged one to four years.
<i>Crude Birth Rate (CBR)</i>	The total number of live births per 1,000 population in a given year.
<i>Crude Death Rate (CDR)</i>	The total number of deaths per 1,000 population in a given year.
<i>Children Ever Born (CEB)</i>	Total number of children born alive throughout the child bearing age (15-49 years) of a female.
<i>De' factoPopulation</i>	Consists of all persons who are physically present in the country or area at the reference date of census/survey, whether or not they are usual residents.
<i>De' jure Population</i>	Consists of all usual residents, whether or not they are present at the time of the enumeration.
<i>Economically active population</i>	Economically active population comprises all persons ofage tenyears and above of either sex who furnish the supply of labor for the production of economic goods and services as defined by the United Nations System of National Accounts during a specified time-reference period.
<i>Emigrants</i>	Persons who move out of a country for the purpose of establishing a new usual residence.

<i>Household</i>	Refers to a group of people who normally live together and share a common kitchen.
<i>Head of the household</i>	The person whether male or female reported by the household as being mainly responsible for the maintenance and management of the household. The person should be usual resident of the household and should be aged 10 years and above
<i>Immigrants</i>	Persons who enter into a country for the purpose of establishing a new usual residence.
<i>Infant Mortality Rate (IMR)</i>	Total number of deaths of children under one year of age per 1,000 live births in a specific period (normally one year).
<i>In-migrants</i>	Persons who move into a different area within a country for the purpose of establishing a new usual residence.
<i>Internal migration</i>	The movement of people within a country for the purpose of establishing a new usual residence.
<i>International migration</i>	The movement of people between and among countries for the purpose of establishing a new usual residence
<i>Labour force</i>	Population of age 10 years and above who are economically active. In labour force, persons employed and unemployed are included; and persons those are not seeking employment, housewives and students are excluded.
<i>Labour force participation rate</i>	The number of persons in the labour force (economically active) divided by the corresponding total number of persons (usually those 10 years and above).
Literacy	The ability to read and write in any language with understanding and ability to do simple arithmetic. Literacy pertains to persons at ages five years and above. In Nepal population aged five years and above who can read and write is considered as literate.
<i>Institutional Population</i>	Population reported to be residing in institutional residence/housing units such as barracks, hostels, cantonments, prisons etc. at the time of census.
<i>Life Expectancy(e_x)</i>	Represents the average number of years remaining to a person who survives to the beginning of a given age or age interval x .

<i>Life Expectancy at Birth(e_0)</i>	Number of years a newborn child can be expected to live under a given mortality condition of an area in a given year.
<i>Life Table</i>	A tabular display of life expectancy and the probability of dying at each age (or age group) for a given population, according to the age-specific death rates prevailing at that time. The life table gives an organized, complete picture of a population's mortality.
<i>Marital Status</i>	Refers to the personal status of each individual in reference to the marriage laws or socio-religious customs of the country. All persons except the single are ever-married persons. Information on marital status are gathered from all persons at ages 10 years and above.
<i>Median Age</i>	The age that divides a population into two numerically equal groups; that is, half the people are younger than this age, and half are older.
<i>Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR)</i>	The number of women who die as a result of pregnancy and childbirth related complications per 100,000 live births in a given year.
<i>Maternal Mortality Rate (MMR)</i>	The number of women who die as a result of pregnancy and childbirth related complications per 100,000 female population of reproductive age in a given year.
<i>Migration</i>	Movement of people across a specified boundary for the purpose of establishing a new usual residence.
<i>Natural increase</i>	Population increase that is the result of births and deaths; growth occurs when the number of births in a given time period (e.g. a calendar year) exceeds the number of deaths; negative growth, or population decline, occurs when the number of deaths exceeds the number of births.
<i>Net Migration Rate</i>	Difference between in-migration and out-migration of a particular place, divided by the mid-year population of that place expressed in per 1,000 population. For international migration, difference between immigration and emigration is taken as numerator.
<i>Out-migrants</i>	Persons who move out of an area within a country for the purpose of establishing a new usual residence in a different area of the same country.

<i>Population Census</i>	The total process of collecting, compiling, evaluating, analyzing and publishing demographic, economic and social data pertaining to all persons in the country or in a well-limited territory.
<i>Population Change</i>	The difference between the size of the population at the end and the beginning of a period.
<i>Population Density</i>	Number of persons usually residing per square kilometer of land area in a specific spatial area.
<i>Population Distribution</i>	The patterns of settlement and dispersal of a population.
<i>Population Growth Rate</i>	The average annual rate of change of population size during a specified period usually expressed as a percentage.
<i>Population Projection</i>	Computation of future changes in population numbers, given certain assumptions about future trends in the rates of fertility, mortality and migration based on given base population size, structure and distribution.
<i>Population Pyramid</i>	Diagram, usually a bar chart depicting the distribution of a given population by age and sex. By convention, the younger ages are at the bottom, with males on the left and females on the right.
<i>Sex Ratio</i>	The number of males per 100 females in a population.
<i>Singulate Mean Age at Marriage (SMAM)</i>	The probability of being single (not married) cohort of the population below 50 years of age who have attained age of 15 years and above. It represents the mean age of persons' first entry into marital union (departure from single status).
<i>Total Dependency Ratio</i>	The number of persons under age 15 plus persons aged 60 or older per one hundred persons of age 15 to 59 years. It is the sum of the childdependency ratio and the old-age dependency ratio.
<i>Total Fertility Rate</i>	The average number of children that would be born alive to a woman during her lifetime if she were to pass through her childbearing years conforming to the age specific fertility rates of a given time period.
Usual place of residence	It refers to the place of residence of members of household where they were usually residing or their intention is to reside usually at that place in future days for at least six months and over.
<i>Youth dependency Rate</i>	The number of persons 0 to 14 years per one hundred persons 15 to 59 years.

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