Participation

A Nepalese Journal of Participatory Development

Monitoring & Evaluation Special Issue

NEPAN

NEPAN HOUSE

(National Participatory Development Resource Centre)

NEPAN members, Old and New, always aim for developing NEPAN as a **National Participatory Development Resource Centre** in future, the long-term vision are therefore putting lots of effort to ensure that vision to be materialised. NEPAN has its own three-storied building (NEPAN GHAR) with necessary equipment, spaces, including an official training hall for workshops, trainings, meetings and other activities along with WiFi facilities. NEPAN has its own Resource Centre (RC) for promoting participatory approach in development interventions and decision making of public affairs.

Participation
Peer Reviewed Journal
Year 17, No. 16, August, 2015

The opinions expressed in these articles are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views of NEPAN.

Price: Individual   Rs. 100/-, Institutional   Rs. 200/-

CONTENTS

EDITORIAL

It is our pleasure to announce the publication of the 16th issue of PARTICIPATION. It is a special issue on participatory monitoring and evaluation process. Through the publication, we seek to provide knowledge on various aspects of development programming and hope to make a difference in the lives of the poor and marginalized groups of society.

The participatory monitoring and evaluation process is an action learning process in which socially marginalized groups such as women, children, Dalits and the disabled, participate along with men, project staff and external consultants. The participatory monitoring and evaluation process facilitates the empowerment of marginalized section of the community, leading to a sense of belonging in the community. Its success depends on the participatory attitude (bichar) and behavior (achar) of the development partners. In other words, participation is an ideology, an approach and a way of life. It rests on the premise that people have 'knowledge' and that knowledge is power.

People produce a lot of information but do not always use this information in traditional evaluation system. The participatory monitoring and evaluation process, however, challenges the unequal power structures and promotes social equity and social justice.

In order to change the lives of the poor and the marginalized, the participatory monitoring and evaluation process should be more than a lip service. It is a challenging work. The process of social transformation is painful, but is inevitable. The feudal social structures threaten the fundamental rights of people. The real participatory monitoring and evaluation process is possible only in inclusive democratic system of governance.

It is said that Nepal is a champion when it comes to formulating development policies and strategies. The implementation, however, is weak and inadequate monitoring and evaluation in development programming results in poor performance. The top-down ideology, rampant corruption, shouldering of low responsibility, poor rule of law, dependency on external sources, lack of political commitment to action, weak discipline, among others, challenge the institutionalization of participatory democracy and political stability in Nepal. Nepal is rich in natural resources and human capital. However, we are not able to recognize our strengths and opportunities and promote participatory democracy, economic prosperity, social cohesion, good governance and effective mobilization of national resources. We need a visionary leadership, a rule of law, commitment to action, a reward and punishment mechanism, an appreciative attitude/positive thinking and respect for labor and people for the development of the country.

A total of 14 diverse articles, including book reviews and readers' comments written by NEPAN members and well wishers, have been published in this issue. We hope that the articles will be useful to development professionals, practitioners, students, teachers and change makers in reshaping their lives and making a difference in that of others.

We are grateful to all those who have contributed towards the publication of the PARTICIPATION. We appreciate the volunteer participation of NEPAN members and well-wishers. We welcome your constructive criticism to improve the journal in the days to come.

We are always with you !

Editorial Board
Participation **Annual Journal**

Monitoring & Evaluation System: Measuring Development Results

- BHOLA PRASAD DAHAL, PhD & UTTAM UPRETY

Abstract

Monitoring and evaluation is an integral part of each development plan, project, program and policy intervention. Notion and modalities of development are constantly changing to make it more efficient, effective and sustainable. Understanding and application of Monitoring and Evaluation differ place-to-place, agency-to-agency and country-to-country. There is a growing demand to demonstrate evidence and result of each development endeavor and public spending at all levels. This is an article based on literature review and classroom discussion & reflection with MPhil/PhD students in Kathmandu University during Feb-August 2015.

There is a paradigm shift on Monitoring and Evaluation globally that moves from activity driven project management to delivering results together with people and service providers. Results based management of project including monitoring and evaluation is a precondition for each development aid after 2010. Parliamentarian, donors, civil society and implementing agencies are working together to make the development efforts more efficient, effective, sustainable and people centric. The end of MDGs and beginning of SDGs in 2015 at global and national levels has more pressure to development actor in delivering results to people from rights perspectives. This has led to address both the demand and supply side of development endeavors to advocate and promote evaluation and evidence based policy making at all levels. This is only possible through institutionalizing the participatory and result based monitoring and evaluation system in each project, program and plan at all levels and all sectors.

Key Words: Development, Result-based Management, Monitoring and Evaluation, Results Chain, Delivering Results.

1. Context

This article summarizes the development interventions carried out by different actors since 1950s and presents the understanding and tools for results based management of development policies, plan, programs and projects of different scales and sectors. Measuring results is a key issue in development intervention. Lack hereof means organizations fail to demonstrate its accountability. Development interventions aim to produce different results and expect its deliverables to be used by the intended beneficiaries. However, the widespread confusion about the term 'results' and varying use of the same terms with different perceptions has also contributed significantly to make segment of development actors excuse buy-in the approach.

For example, expected results, outputs, immediate results, short-term results are interchangeably used by different organizations and as a result any organization working with more than one development partners (usually the donors) are mostly confused as they are compelled to use different terms, depending on the organizational culture of specific donor, to mean the same thing. Though 'harmonization' is a buzzword among development actors, it seldom takes place when it comes to development jargons as each development partners have their own set of terminologies, which they want, their local partners (CSOs) to voluntarily adopt. This is just one example of such confusions minefield. There are several issues that make things complex though all of the tools, literally at least, meant to simplify the job.

In this article we have attempted to shed light on the basic premise of RBM&E and the way it differs from conventional M&E approaches. In addition to that we outline how the RBM&E could be materialized without being bogged down too much on the jargon war. Moreover, we highlight the status of its use in the Nepali development sector so far.

2. Development Rhetoric to Reality: From Charity to Rights

Development means making a better life for everyone. It has different meanings for different people, topographies and agencies. Some defined it as an interaction between three pillars of the society: i) People; ii) private sector and business, and, iii) state and the government. It has been also argued as a mean and a process of making life and livelihood better for everyone.

Some believe development is economic growth whereas some advocate it is about human capability development. Since 1990s when UNDP started publishing the world human development report, there is a common understanding among actors (government, civil society and private sector) that development is about improving living conditions of the common people through enlarging choices (UNDP, 1990). Amartya Sen (2000) argues development as a freedom from deprivation, exclusion, exploitation, discrimination and injustice. This enables individual and society to transform from one stage to another stage where they can make their voices, choices and enjoy their rights and entitlements from state as the duty bearer.

This is also a deliberate process of making

peace and social harmony not only in a society but also in the world. Ultimately development is about every people (Freire, 2005): children or elderly, able or disable, poor or rich, Hindu or Muslim or people of any caste, religion, ethnicity, topography, language and region has equal access to decision making process for position, property, policy and power over resource generation, allocation and utilization. This has been further indicated as the combination of increase in per capita, longevity and year of schooling of each individual. The following table summarizes the development discourses and its focus since 1950s after the Second World War:

Table 1: Global Development Trends

Years	Priority Theme	Development Means/Approaches	Results
1950s	Reconstruct war destructed countries	Relief to development through cash transfer to poor countries "Developed and Underdeveloped" debate	Created more dependency
1960s	Technology development and transfer	Growth and development through skills and employment, industrialization and modernization in poor countries	Widened the gaps between rural and urban people
1970s	Integrated rural development	Development from rural areas combining education, health, employment and infrastructure development as a package	Low ownership of people on experts guided project
1980s	Fulfilling basic needs	Development in consultation with people "participatory approach"… bottom up planning and prioritization	Unmet promises and limited resources
1990s	People centered development	Equitable and sustainable development of all and special focus for deprived group…criticism of blanket approach	Failure of one size fits all, brought democratization
2000s	People-led rights based development	People as subject of development… targeted approach to most marginalized and excluded groups in all interventions of MDGs	Low country ownership and ignored CSOs
2010s	Results based development for rights realization	Fulfilling human rights of each citizen: a normative framework of state obligations that people's legal power to make government more accountable and responsive towards their needs and priorities	Climate change and regional security diverting the priority

(Compiled and adopted by authors from Chambers, 1997, 2004/5; Korten, 1990; Maskay, 2002; UNDP, 1990-2014; Pieterse, 2009; Rapley, 2007; Richard & Hartwick, 2009; Wills, 2005).

In the development sector, the mainstay of our work is in the forms of projects and programs. We are constantly working on a variety of projects since 1950s. These projects could be related to health, education, infrastructure, livelihood, child rights and so on depending on the mandate and mission of an organization. Universal declaration of human rights in 1948 by UN and other international instruments particularly of two conventions: i) International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights of 1966, and ii) International Covenant on Economic Social and Cultural Rights of 1966 lay foundations for shifting development notion and its modalities from charity to rights approach. These instruments including global initiatives like MDGs and EFA strongly argue that unless people can participate meaningfully in the events and processes of any development interventions that shape their lives, national development paths will be neither desirable nor sustainable (UNDP, 2013). This has pushed to make development a reality of people.

3. Project: Completion of Activities to Delivering Results

The wide ranging activities constitute the domain of what we do in a project against the project objective or what we achieve when a project is realized or implemented. Thus to put simply, what a project seeks to achieve is a certain objective within a specified time, using fixed resources and by carrying out certain specific activities. Project will have a set of consciously chosen activities implemented in a specific time and with specific resources to achieve a specific objective in a specific place with specific targeted people (project beneficiaries).
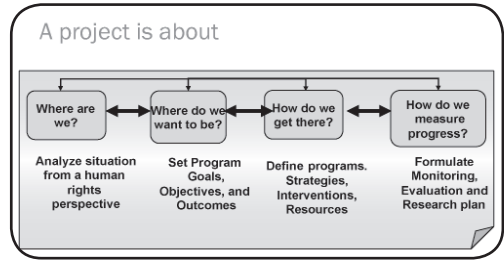
There are usually two approaches in managing projects. One talks about simply compliance to rules, procedures and budget of the project with a focus on inputs and activities. This approach is called a traditional project management, which is focused on completing the set of activities without looking its results and effects on targeted people and in their lives. Another approach as shown in the figure one talks about performance of the project that ensures the delivery of results or achievement of the project objectives on people and local institutions. This marks a definite shift from the realm of inputs and activities to that of outcomes and impact where people make something by utilizing the project outputs and products. This means from 'what are we doing' to 'what we have achieved or done'.

In performance based management, for example, we do not ask the question how many teachers are trained on child friendly schooling but rather whether there has been a change in classroom delivery and learning achievement of children. In this regard, global initiatives like education for all (EFA) and millennium development goals (MDGs) put pressure with states both from so called developed and developing countries to set up some standards and mechanism for making aid more effective and results driven. Among state actors Paris Principles on

Aid Effectiveness was agreed in 2005 followed by Accra Agenda of Action in 2008 and Bussan commitment in 2011. These international commitments of the state party strongly argue for participatory monitoring and evaluation in each aid project and to measure its development results.

4. Theory of Change: A Foundation for RBM

Results based management (RBM) is a performance-based approach to development, which encourages results in planning, implementation and monitoring and evaluation. A results-chain is simply a means-end relationship between different results to be achieved at different stages of project life cycle (UNDP, 2011). Usually, outputs, outcomes and impact constitute three different types of results in a results-chain and are presented in a first column of the log-frame (or results-frame). While 'Output' should be considered 'means' to deliver specific outcome, an 'ends' the same outcome should be considered 'means' taking the impact as an 'ends' (WB, 2004).

In other words, there is a shift in the language of project itself from the domain of simply actions to one of results that are from 'teachers training' to 'learning improved'. A 'result' in RBM is a describable or measurable development change resulting from a cause and effect relationship (Norad, 2011). A results approach involves shifting management attention away from a focus on inputs, activities and processes to a focus on benefits – from what you have done to what they have done. Results management also focuses on using information on results to improve decision making. Thus, RBM seeks to focus project strategies towards impact, outcomes and outputs (products or services) as shown in the figure 2 and aligning inputs and activities accordingly towards achieving them and in other words, rather than 'putting the cart before the horse'. The theory of change is the foundation for RBM of a project including its monitoring and evaluation.
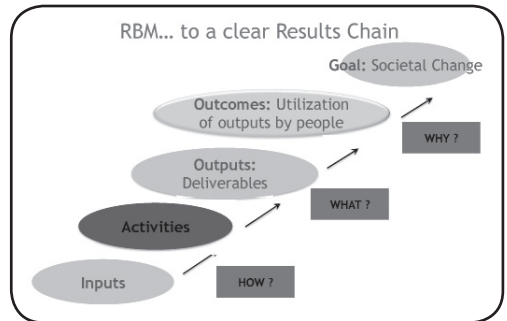
Every project, we know, has its own rationale and logic of interventions – one that clearly address the 'nuts and bolts' of the problem of 'what', 'when', 'why', 'who', and 'where' (NPC, 2013). The clearer a project is about the logic of change underpinning its project activities or processes, the better it is able to deliver the results or achieve the objective

it has in mind. The hierarchy of change in the results chain starts from inputs/resources 'use', processes 'do', outputs 'deliver', outcomes 'achieve' and impact 'contribute' towards societal change (Figure 3). RBM looks not only on delivery of activities and outputs; it looks what happened to people and how are they using the project services and products in to their day-to-day life and livelihoods.

There are a number of reasons why it is important to demonstrate results in a project, such as: i) credibility; ii) accountability to the community, project beneficiaries, intermediaries, donors and to taxpayers; iii) continuous learning; and iv) informing decision making and resource allocation (UNDP, 2011; WB, 2004; OECD, 2009).

RBM clearly sets out the results that project seek to achieve and plans the project activities and strategies in such a way that they deliver the same. RBM involves some of the following dimensions:

1. Defining realistic results based on appropriate analysis of the contexts, beneficiaries and duty bearers;

2. Clearly identifying program beneficiaries and designing programs that meet their needs and priorities

3. Using results information to make effective management decisions

4. Monitoring the progress of expected results and resources spent with the use of appropriate indicators

5. Increasing knowledge and improving practice through lessons learned

6. Identifying and managing risks

7. Reporting on results and resources used.

In order to understand the essentials of RBM&E, it is essential to first understand some of the key terms including: 'Results-chain', Output, Outcome, Impact, control and accountability of the project (WB, 2004; UNDP, 2011; MFA, 2013). Let's first discuss these terms in a little detail:

Results Level	Description	Accountability	Example
Impact/ Goal	Benefits to, or achievement by TG, change in conditions, MDG	What they achieve	Improved movement of goods and people
Outcome	Change in behavior, social action, policy formation, decisions	What they do	TG puts in place inter-country transport agreements...
Outputs	Goods & services, skills, knowledge, motivation	What we achieve	TG has knowledge, skills and motivation to negotiate agreements...
Activities	Training, advisory services, develop curriculum, recruit, procure, etc.	What we do	Workshops, study, forums
Inputs	Human & financial resources, equipment, technology	What we invest	cash, number of work months

Outputs: Output, usually known as 'expected result', is any service or product or combination of both that is directly delivered by the project activities. It clearly means that output is a 'project deliverable' and it should be directly attributable to the project activities. It is to be noted that if any product or service in the project area is found difficult to be attributed to the project activities, it may not be the 'project output'. It is within the realm of direct 'project control'. In addition to that any service or product should 'reach to the beneficiaries' in order to be considered project 'output'. From 'accountability and control' perspective, outputs are essentially within the sphere of direct project control.

Outcome: A situation that is achieved when the project outputs (deliverables) is used by the intended beneficiaries. It implies that the project is accountable to achieve the project outcome (this is a reason why logframe approach calls it 'project purpose') but does not have direct

control over it. It means, the contribution of beneficiaries is important for the outcomes to be achieved. Behavioral changes at the intended institutions and individual level should be considered project outcome.

Outcome is expected to be achieved fully by the end of project period. As the outcome is not within the direct project control while belongs to the sphere of project accountability, there is an attribution gap between the outputs and outcome. Literally, it means any project team can claim all of the project outputs as the results of its activities but claiming all of the outcomes (changes at the behavioral levels of the people) is difficult as different results generated by other than the project also have some contribution to the achievement of that outcome.

Impact: This is a change achieved at the broader societal level as a contribution of project intervention. However, contribution of various projects achieving different set of objectives is must for the impact to be achieved. Impact is expected to be achieved only after the project period though the contribution of the project towards the impact could be somehow traced out (this is one of the reasons some organizations advocate for bringing Impact to the scope of monitoring). Impact simply belongs to the sphere of project interest, i.e. something the project wish to see in the long run.

Control & Accountability: Not all results that a project is accountable to achieve are within its management control'. Though control and accountability are two different concepts development practitioners are largely found to get confused with the concept of 'Control & Accountability'. As a result, output and outcome statement is wrongly formulated and usually something

that is beyond the direct project control is claimed to be the project output. Once the means-end relationships between different level or project results are not logical it affects the entire project management including monitoring and evaluation.

5. Monitoring and Evaluation: Commonalities and Differences

Monitoring and evaluation plays an important role for effective and meaningful implementation of plans, policies, programs and projects. Every country and agency needs a systematic, simplified, result-oriented, reliable, and effective monitoring and evaluation system to make a project successful in its mission. As discussed above, this is an accountability issues towards people and authorities. Thus, it demands engagement of beneficiaries, employees, line agencies, suppliers, policy makers and donors in each stage of project implementation and monitoring.
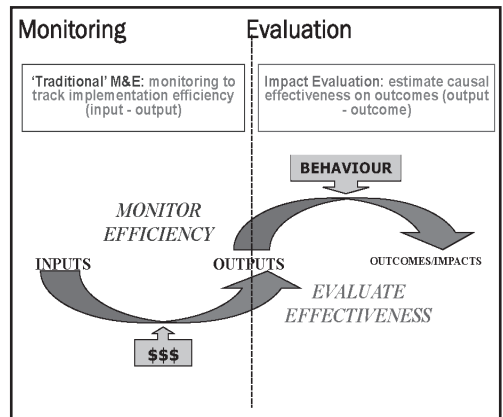
In this direction, National Planning Commission (NPC) of Nepal has recently issued a National Guideline on Results-based Monitoring and Evaluation by consolidating and contextualizing the various frameworks from past monitoring and evaluation (M&E)

initiatives (NPC, 2013). There are difference in the notion of monitoring and evaluation. The first one focuses on doing things rightly and the second one is judging whether rights things are done (Figure 4). The following section briefly distinguishes monitoring with evaluation:

Monitoring: This is the process of keeping track of progress on a continuous and/or periodic basis by project management team itself at different levels of an institutional hierarchy, or the individual or agency entrusted by the management. The monitoring scrutinizes whether the inputs and resources meant for the implementation of plans, policies, programs and projects are being properly utilized. Furthermore, the role of monitoring is t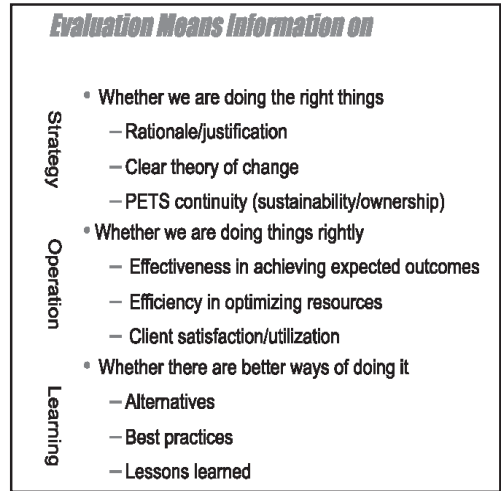o verify whether the project activities are being implemented the way it were planned and whether or not the intended outputs are being delivered in accordance with the plan against stipulated budget and time.

The following aspects are analyzed in the process of monitoring of plans, policies, programs and projects (NPC, 2013; UNDP, 2011, Kusek & Rist, 2004):

1. Whether or not resources are available to and used by the constituent units within the limits of an authorized budget and stipulated timeframe.

2. Whether or not expected outputs are achieved in a timely and cost-effective manner.

3. What is the level of implementation capacity?

4. What kind of problems and constraints are being faced and what kind of remedial measures are called for?

Evaluation Means Information on

- Strategy
  - Whether we are doing the right things
    - Rationale/justification
    - Clear theory of change
    - PETS continuity (sustainability/ownership)
- Operation
  - Whether we are doing things rightly
    - Effectiveness in achieving expected outcomes
    - Efficiency in optimizing resources
    - Client satisfaction/utilization
- Learning
  - Whether there are better ways of doing it
    - Alternatives
    - Best practices
    - Lessons learned

During monitoring, data and information on the above mentioned aspects are collected, processed, analyzed and reported in a continuous, systematic, and time-bound manner to the various layers of management and policy makers including funder. This helps identify problems and initiate corrective measures before it is too late. Essentially, a monitoring system provides regular information on the degree of achievement of results at a particular point of time. While monitoring provides records of activities and results, and ideally signals challenges and risks to be handled along the way, it will probably not be able to explain why a particular problem has occurred or why the program is not reaching its planned outcome (Norad, 2008). That kind of analysis, to understand questions of cause and effect, will normally be done through Reviews and evaluation exercises.

Evaluation: Evaluation is a systematic and purposeful undertaking carried out by internal or external evaluators to appraise the relevance, efficiency, effectiveness of, as well as the impacts and sustainability generated by the plans, policies, programs

and projects under implementation. The main objective of evaluation is to draw lessons from the strengths and weaknesses experienced in the implementation of plans, policies, programs and projects so as to improve their design and implementation in the future as well as to hold the officials and agencies involved in the process accountable for its implementation and results.
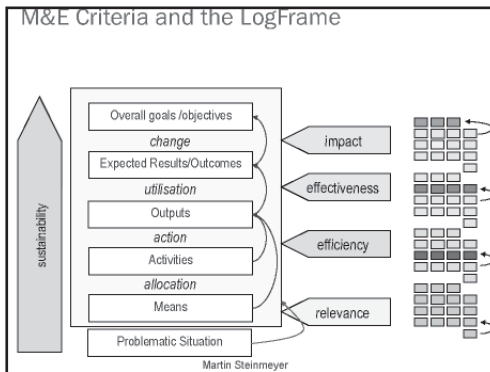
Thus, an evaluation answers two very basic questions plus learning: i) Whether there is a change; and ii) is it because of the project The first question pertains to what we call as the 'measurement' question and the second as the 'attribution' question. To sum up (Figure 5)., an evaluation is geared towards assessing and evincing impact and outcomes on: i) whether we are doing the rights things (strategy); ii) whether we are doing things rightly (operation); and iii) where there are way of doing it better (learning). Furthermore, an evaluation also answers a number of related questions (Figure 6) such as (OECD, 2009; NPC, 2013; UNDP, 2011, WB, 2004):

1. *Relevancy (allocation):* whether the rationale of the project holds true and contextual with beneficiaries, target areas and country policies and plans.

2. *Efficiency (action):* how well the

inputs have been used and supplied in timely manner and qualitatively.

3. *Effectiveness (utilization):* what is the level of achievement of project objective 'translated inputs into outputs' Results/Outcomes: what is the level of achievement of immediate, intermediate and long term project results to beneficiaries and institutions.

4. *Impact (change):* what is the incremental change in the society that could be attributed to the project both intended and unintended.

5. *Sustainability:* whether or not the change is long lasting from political, economic, social, cultural, environment and technological perspective.

Out of the above five elements, the first three are continuously followed up during monitoring. Thus evaluations or reviews are complementary to regular monitoring and should selectively deal with information that monitoring cannot adequately provide. For an Evaluation or a Review to be feasible, however, monitoring data must be available as a starting point.

Generally, monitoring and evaluation are being used as synonyms. In reality, both are interdependent. As a combination of two words "Monitoring and Evaluation" is a management system and a tool, which can be an important aid in effective implementation of plans, policies, programs and projects. Yet, monitoring and evaluation are not the same. They have their own distinct characteristics and specialties, which can be summarized as follows:

Table 2: Comparison between Monitoring and Evaluation

Monitoring	Evaluation
It is a continuous process carried out throughout the implementation period	Carried out at different stages such as ex-ante, on-going, terminal and ex-post.
This is an internal function of the project.	This is generally an external and independent function
It is performed only in the formative and operational stages.	Performed from selection stage and after the operation stage.
It is an institutional process to rectify gaps and weaknesses experienced during the formative and operational stages.	It is a means for initiating timely corrective measures during formative and operational stages as well as drawing lessons from the past strengths and weaknesses to inform future interventions.
It is directly related with assessing the relationship and ratio of inputs, processes and outputs.	It is an assessment of progress against pre- determined goals, outcomes and their effects and impacts on stakeholders.
It is a part of the management system as a corrective measure	It is an operational management tool to derive lessons from implemented plans, policies, programs and projects.
It is generally conducted by the implementing agency.	It is generally conducted by independent indiv iduals and institutions outside implementing agency.

Source: compiled by authors, 2015

Results-based Monitoring and Evaluation is a management tool that enables a management team to specifically define the results to be achieved, develop a plan to gather appropriate data and measure the results of any development intervention and ensure that all of the stakeholders are facilitated to make more-informed decision-making.

6. Requirement for RBM&E system

Broadly speaking, M&E system is a well-defined mechanism that entails how the relevant information is communicated in an organization in order to facilitate informed decision making process for various levels of management on resource allocation and policy formulation.

An effective M&E system is more than a statistical task or an external obligation. Thus, it must be planned, managed, and provided with adequate resources. Managing research projects for impact implies that the M&E system must be linked to overall project operations, as well as with outputs, outcomes, and impact, usually summarized in the project Logframe. The instruments necessary to build up a good M&E system are (NPC, 2013; UNDP, 2011; MFA, 2013): i) develop and use of a logical framework; ii) the setting of monitorable indicators; iii) effective training and capacity building; and iv) data analysis and processing and reporting.
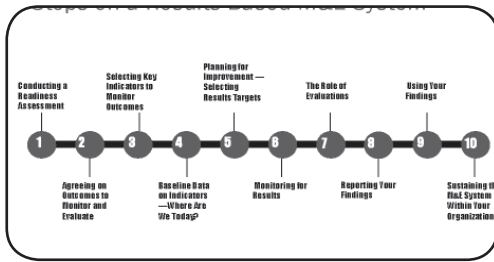
A critical initial task in the design of an M&E system is to identify the information needs of stakeholders. This guides project strategy, ensure effective operations and meet external reporting requirements. Research managers have to decide on how to gather and analyze the information as well as document a plan for an M&E system. Setting-up a participatory M&E system is desirable to improve ownership and sustainability of each intervention. This helps to build stakeholders' understanding of the project and creates a learning environment by sharing understanding of terminology and action, develop a framework, approach or system that is designed within the institutional context, and standardize data collection to ensure that results are valid and comparable.

The WB advocates ten steps (Figure 7) for setting up a results-based M and E System in each project and agency (Kusek & Rist, 2004). However there are following six common steps involved in designing an effective M&E system in practice:

• Establishing the purpose and scope of the M&E system – Why do we need M&E and how comprehensive should the M&E system be?

• Identifying performance questions, information needs and indicators – what do we need to know in order to monitor and evaluate the project so that it can be managed effectively?

• Planning information gathering and organization – How will the required information be gathered and organized?

• Planning critical reflection process and events – How will we make sense of the outcome of the information gathered and how will it be used to make improvements in project implementation?

• Planning for quality communication and reporting – How and to whom do we want to communicate project results? What project activities and processes do we need to communicate?

• Planning for the necessary conditions and capacities – What resources and capacity do we need to ensure that our M&E system works effectively?

These steps help to ensure that M&E is a relevant guide for project intervention strategy for all key stakeholders. This way, the M&E can contribute directly to measuring project's impact within the context of a problem based, impact-driven research agenda. As shown in the diagram above about ten steps on a results-based M&E system, as proposed by the World Bank also illustrates the elaborated version of the above mentioned six key questions to make sure that M&E system is functional and it serves the information requirement at various levels of decision making. Moreover, a key to an effective RBM&E system is the organizational readiness.

7. Logical Framework and Quality Indicators: Basis for RBM&E

To what extent the RBM&E differs with other M&E approaches such as conventional M&E and participatory M&E remains one of the concerns among development practitioners. Value addition of RBM&E to the M&E discipline as such needs to be clearly

articulated to make it distinct approach. In a nutshell, there are a couple of specific features that, unlike other approaches, RBM&E possesses:

- Defining a clear scope of M&E at the beginning

- Defining specific results that a project aims to achieve at the different phases of the project.

- Ensuring the ownership of the key stakeholders and well-defined roles to supervise, monitoring and evaluation of the different types of project results.

- Ensuring that results are planned that is relevant, enough and of good quality and that is reached to the beneficiaries so that likelihood of the results being used by the beneficiaries is high.

- Ensuring results, especially the outputs and outcomes, are defined well with pre-determined indicators of success and are even brought into the scope of monitoring.

- Ensuring baseline data is in place to compare the project progress well.
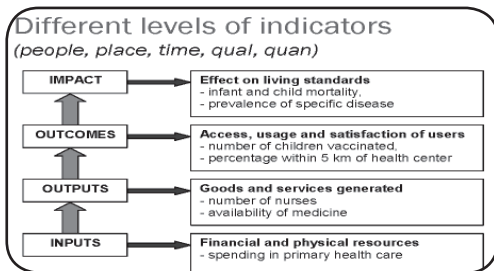
The effective monitoring and evaluation system depends on results indicators defined in each project. The good indicators should be SMART (specific, measurable, attainable, realistic and time bound) consisting of the five key elements (Figure 8) for each result areas: i) people/beneficiaries of development (whom); ii) place/area (where); iii) time

period (when); iv) quantitative targets (how much); and v) qualitative achievement (how well). Many agencies do not have a proper baseline data/situation for each project and has poor understanding of good result indicators.

Making RBM&E system an integral part of project/program management and ensure its full-fledged implementation begins with a critical reflection on why there is still no appetite among development actors to adapt it. Experience shows that there are several reasons why M&E system is poor:

It is not considered as a learning process. Poor institutional commitment to strengthen M&E system is the result of this understanding.

It is considered as unnecessary function that kills time, resources and energy which could rather be mobilized elsewhere to solve problems

M&E Division is the most ignored and poorly resourced unit in organizations including CSOs and government line agencies

It is considered an activity to be accomplished to demonstrate upward (donor) accountability only

It is taken by some practitioners as an opportunity to punish someone. Mostly, it has been perceived and used as a weapon to find out the flaws in the program and punish those involved in the implementation. As a result, M&E has perceived negative image among various actors.

It is usually not linked to further planning so people don't see its use in policy formulation and programming rather than one-off event.

Usually, a realistic scope and mechanism is not developed as a part of M&E system. Even, many organizations that talks about M&E lack it.

M&E function is usually isolated. Except those labeled as 'M&E person' in an organization many staff don't consider themselves a part of it.

There is a lack of competent human resources to carry out M&E function in its true sense. Mostly, investment in capacity development in this regard is not enough.

Frequent changes in management approach in organization also have made management and leadership reluctant investing in improving the system.

In order to make sure that Results-based M&E Framework is good, one has to first make sure that the logic of results-chain, as appeared in either logical framework or results-framework, is clear from means-ends relationship. As the same results from the logical framework is taken as reference while designing RBM&E Framework. Similarly, results indicators, especially outputs, outcomes and impact are to be sensible enough to measure corresponding level of results in term of delivery of services and products and its utilization by beneficiaries. The standard logframe recommended by NPC is as follows:

A complete logframe is a summary version of the project/program and it is a basis for any monitoring and evaluation plan. An M&E framework is a summary version of M&E system that helps setting a scope of monitoring and evaluation and broadly outlines the milestones of the project, identify the frequency of the data to be collected and responsible person to gather and manage specific information in the due course of project management. So, it is better to first prepare a RBM&E framework right after project formulation (logframe).

Upon completing the project M&E framework (the common format for RBM&E Framework a shown in Figure 9) it becomes easy to elaborate how to Operationalizing the M&E function in the project. Thus elaboration of M&E plan requires RBM&E Framework first.

M&E Plan is a descriptive document that primarily elaborates key components from the RBM&E Framework in detail, includes the tools and formats that needs to be utilized in order to gather data. While completing the M&E plan, it is important to decide on the methods of data gathering, storage and usage so that appropriate formats and tools

Table 3: Logical Framework - Template

Title of Project: Duration of Project: Date of Start:		Date of Preparation: Date of Completion:	
Narrative Summary	Performance Indicators	Means of Verification	Assumptions
Impact (societal change)	Impact indicator		
Outcome (utilization of outputs)	Outcome indicator: what they do?		
Outputs (products & services)	Output indicator: what you do, how much and how well		
Activities (interventions)	Inputs	Cost	

M&E Plan- Template

Indicator	Indicator Definition (& unit of measurement)	Data Collection Methods/Sources	Frequency & Schedule	Responsibilities	Information Use/Audience
GOAL:					
Indicator G.a					
Assumption G.a					
OUTCOME 1:					
Indicator 1.a					
Indicator 1.b					
Assumption 1.a					
OUTPUT 1.1:					
Indicator 1.1a					
Assumption 1.1a					
OUTPUT 1.2:					
Indicator 1.2a					
Assumption 1.2a					
OUTCOME 2:					
Indicator 2.a					
Assumption 2a					
OUTPUT 2.1:					
Indicator 2.1a					
Assumption 1.1a					
OUTPUT 2. 2:					
Indicator 2.2a					
Assumption 2.2a					

Continue adding objectives and indicators according to project/program logframe.

could be designed and piloted before organizing an orientation to all of the staff members. There are several data collection methods. However, we need to make a right decision in using right methods of data gathering taking several factors into consideration as follows:

- What are the types of data we need to gather?
- How many alternative methods are there to collect those data?
- How reliable will the data be if we take any specific method?
- Would the end-users confirm the methods?
- How cost-effective will the method be?
- Would the key informant find the method comfortable to them?
- Do we have competent human resources to use the method?

Orienting the team members on M&E plan has two key benefits: first, entire team members have a same understanding on what the scope of its M&E system is and what are expected from them. They further she how they are a part of M&E system and it finally creates 'ownership' of the system. The M & E system depends on project results framework and M & E plan. The M & E plan is about collection, compilation, analysis, interpretation and reporting of the data into information and knowledge for managerial decisions. The M and E data can be collected from both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection as shown in Figure 10.

Furthermore, to roll-out the RBM&E plan it is required to have a baseline

Data Collection Methods
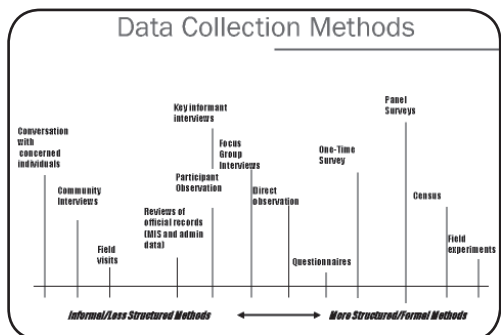
created for the key results the project/ program aims to monitor and evaluate periodically. A baseline is a backbone of RBM&E against which the performance data, that is collected at certain period of time is compared.

The process to make RBM&E system functional seems quite straight-forward. However, as mentioned earlier, there are several barriers that prevent the M&E system to be either developed or make best use of it. To tackle all these challenges one can simply consider a couple of questions as follows to start with in designing a functional RBM&E system (WB, 2004):

- Why do we want RBM&E?
- Who is this RBM&E for?
- What are the key questions that we want our RBM&E system to answer?
- Who has the answer to our questions?
- How do we want to ensure that we have relevant and enough data to make more informed decision?
- How will we mobilize resources, including human resources, to make the RBM&E system in our organization?

Answer to these simple questions will help to: i) set a scope of RBM&E and its potential users so that their key concerns could be well addressed in the M&E plan; ii) set out broad as well as specific questions that need to be answered, at different states of program/project management, to monitor and/or evaluate the program/project; iii) assess the sources and mechanism to gather, document and analyze the data; and finally iv) identify organizational capacity so as to make the human resource competent to lead the RBM&E system.

8. Conclusions

Monitoring and evaluation recently has been in the forefront and priority issue for all. It is not only the government institutions but civil society organizations are also not implementing RBM&E to the extent they talk about. Most of the organizations lack clearly defined results where outputs are fully within the organizational control. It leads to a state of confusion in making a realistic M&E plan, RBM&E Framework and thus preparing data gathering tools and Management Information System.

An absence of specific results defined for the program and project makes it difficult to set out relevant and sensitive indicators. It has been observed that usually proxy indicators are used that can't be directly attributed to the specified level of results-chain. In addition to that, absence of M&E framework has created confusions in many organizations on:

- What is the depth and breadth of the data requirement for organization/ progra m
- How to gather and store the information
- Who are involved in gathering and managing information at different levels of management
- What level of information analysis is required at different stages of management and how to use the information

Overall, RBM&E has not been linked to the knowledge management. As a result, those organization that gather data are not been able to use the data wisely towards conscious decision making at different levels of management, which is a fundamental premise of monitoring and evaluation system. However, nature of the organization, the resources available,

available human resources and the nature of their core business determine the status of their M&E system.

Since last five years, M&E has been prioritized in each agency and authority including by the Parliament. Each ministry in Nepal has set up an M&E division including in NPC, which are not yet effectively functional. It is due to not having a clear mandate and appropriate understanding and resources. People who are assigned in these divisions feel punished by the system. Furthermore, M&E reports are not used as a basis for decision making at all levels. There is a similar situation in all developing countries.

This has led for a joint collaboration among actors at global level with a motto "Evidence for the World we want: using evaluation to improve people's lives through better policymaking" since 2012. A network of evaluation partners (EvalPartners) has formed to do something collectively by Voluntary Organizations for Professional Evaluation (VOPE), donors, government agencies and private sector. There is growing demand from all to demonstrate development results.

With the clear demand for accountability on development results, development actors in the world while gathering on the third international conference on national evaluation capacities in Sao Paulo, Brazil during 29 Sept-2 Oct 2013 had declared 2015 as the international year of evaluation. The UN Evaluation Group (UNEG), Independent Evaluation Office of UN-Women, the International Organization for Cooperation in Evaluation (IOCE), the International Development Evaluation Association (IDEAS) have joined hands to celebrate 2015 as the Evaluation Year and 2016-2020 as shaping the global evaluation agenda. EvalPartners have agreed strategic

partnership, innovation and inclusion as its guide principles. They have started to work with parliamentarian to strengthen demand and use of evaluation in public policies. Building EvalYear in 2015 is to bring global leaders together to advocate and promote evaluation and evidence based policy making at international, regional, national and local levels in line with the review of the MDGs achievements and endorsement of the SDGs for 2030. This requires political commitment (parliament), enabling environment (policy reform), strong enforcement mechanism (state) and a clear measurement system (M&E) as shown in the figure 11 (Sothath, 2008).

Nepal has a 15-member parliamentary sub-committee on Monitoring and Evaluation under Good Governance Committee since 2013. The M&E Division of the NPC is providing Secretariat support for the EvalYear celebration. Nepal government is hosting the international conference on EvalYear during 23-27 November 2015. There will be an opening session of the EvalWeek in the Nepalese parliament on 25 November in which world parliamentary forum for evaluation will be declared.

This clearly shows that not only donors but parliamentarian are also committed and accountable to make monitoring and evaluation of the development work more efficient and effective for better resource allocation and making national government more accountable and responsive in delivering development results. Thus, monitoring and evaluation of projects, programs, plans, policies and priorities are on the forefront of any development aid and budget allocation.

References

Chambers, R. (1997). Whose Reality Counts? Putting the First Last, Intermediate Technology Publications, London

Chambers, R. (2004). Ideas for development: reflecting forwards (Working Paper 238). London: The Institute of Development Studies

Chambers, R. (2005). Ideas for Development. Earthscan, London and Sterling VA

EC. (2004). Aid Delivery Methods: Volume 1 Project Cycle Management Guidelines. Brussels: European Commission

Friere, P. (2005). Pedagogy of the Oppressed (30th ed.). New York, London: he Continuum International Publishing Group Inc

Korten, D. C. 1990. Getting to the 21st Century: Voluntary Action and the Global Agenda. London: Earthscan Publications,

Kusek, J. Z., & Rist, R. C. (2004). A Handbook for Development Practitioners: Ten Steps to a Results-Based Monitoring and Evaluation System. Washington, D.C., USA: The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, the World Bank

MFA. (2013). Grant Management Manual: Management of grants by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Norad. Oslo, Norway: Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Norad. (2008). Results Management in Norwegian Cooperation: A Practical Guide. Oslo: Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs/Norad

NPC. (2013). National Monitoring and Evaluation Framework and Guidelines. Kathmandu: National Planning Commission, Nepal.

Pieterse, J. N. (2009). Development Theory: Deconstructions/Reconstructions (7th Ed.). New Delhi, India: Vistaar Publications.

Rapley, J. (2007). Understanding Development: Theory and Practice in the Third World (3rd ed.). USA: Lynne Rienner Publishers.

Richard, P. & Hartwick, E. (2009). Theories of development: Contentions, arguments, alternatives (2nd Ed.,). New York: The Guilford Press.

Sen, A. K. (2000). Development as Freedom. New York: Anchor.

Sothath, N. (2008). Accountability and managing results: Accountability to whom? Who hold whom accountable? Cambodia: NGO Forum.

UNDP. (1990). Human Development Report: Concept and measurement of human development. New York: United Nations Development Program.

UNDP. (2000). Human Development Report: Human rights and human development. New York: United Nations Development Program.

UNDP. (2009). Nepal Human Development Report 2009: State transformation and human development. Kathmandu: United Nations Development Program, Nepal.

UNDP. (2010). Human Development Report: The real wealth of Nations, pathways to human development. New York: United Nations Development Program.

UNDP. (2013). Human Development Report 2013: The rise of the South, human progress in a diverse World. New York: United Nations Development Program

UNDP. (2014). Nepal Human Development Report 2014: Beyond geography unlocking human potential. Kathmandu: United Nations Development Program, Nepal and Government of Nepal, National Planning Commission

Willis, K. (2005). Theories and Practices of Development. London and New York: Routledge.

The author Dr Dahal has done his PhD from Kathmandu University and also contributes as visiting faculty for MPhil and PhD students. E-mail: bholaprasadd@gmail.com

The author Mr Uprety is pursuing his PhD from the same University. E-mail: uttam.uprety2010@gmail.com

Community Practices in Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation System

- GOPAL TAMANG

Abstract

Community based learning and practices are found relevant, effective and sustainable. It aims to realize a conceptual approximation to participatory monitoring and evaluation approaches based on participation, from the identification and analysis of factors and actors associated. Building a monitoring and evaluation system with effective participation ensure that stakeholders feel a sense of ownership of the system, commitment to take action and contribute to strengthened systematic planning and outcomes assessment. Transformation of local resources and materials in an optimum way using approaches as early community orientation, knowledge management, community appraisal and change agent for action research and advocacy. Experiential learning based participatory planning, monitoring and evaluation relies on learning from experience. Participatory Monitoring & Evaluation is a social process, cultural process, or a democratic process for examining the values, progress, constraints and achievements of projects and programs by stakeholders. It helps to bringing all stakeholders together around the issues and establishes mutual trust and respect. It promotes shared knowledge, creation and learning; helps transfer skills and develop the capacity of community and the organization. The participatory monitoring and evaluation system is for all stakeholders.

Key Words: Experiential learning; Participatory Monitoring; Transparent; Ownership; participatory monitoring and evaluation.

1. Introduction

Although the concept of participatory monitoring and evaluation (PM&E) itself is not new, the historical legacy of Nepalese voluntary self-help and charity sectors is the pivotal to community development and activities. It is observed in villages, there was real participation with collective efforts of people in the community development activities such as construction, repair and maintenance of irrigation canal, repair and maintenance of paths and school building. In recent years participation has become a critical concept in development.

A rural development project is located in a web of relationships between several stakeholders, which includes local people, people's organizations, management, implementing partners, cooperating institutions, government departments, consultants and International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) staff. These relationships need to be established, understood and managed well so that each group of stakeholders can make the best possible contribution (IFAD). Without participatory planning, monitoring and evaluation system, it is not possible to judge if the work is going in the right direction, whether progress and success can be claimed, and how future effort will be improved (UNDP, 2002). Mobilizing key stakeholders and other community people in each stage of program cycle is the part of monitoring and evaluation strategy. Experiential learning based Participatory M&E can indicate whether a strategy is relevant and efficient or not.

A careful designing of planning, monitoring and evaluation components can be simple and user friendly as possible. Since Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation (PM&E) enhances the effectiveness of development assistance and intervention by establishing clear links between past, present and future interventions and results. Relevant information is needed from the past and on-going activities that can subsequently be used as the basis and evidence for programmatic fine-tuning, reorientation, planning and implementation along with the measurement and assessment of performance. In addition to assessing inputs and implementation of processes, participatory monitoring and evaluation focuses on assessing the contributions of various factors and actors to a given development outcomes, including community partnerships and coordination, social mobilization, communication, policy advice and dialogue, advocacy and awareness raising. The essence of PM&E is to help staff and all stakeholders be accountable and reposition ourselves, get involved, make informed decisions and learn from experiences.

Generally four types of monitoring is considered in; i) project implementation tracking, ii) financial and outputs tracking, iii) benefit tracking, and iv) outcomes tracking. So, they form a coherent and integrated system for monitoring, which is closely linked with the participatory monitoring and evaluation system. Every monitoring activity has its foundation in the planning system. Monitoring is one of the planning tools. During the planning process information and data provides how a project will be implemented and set out targets. Thus participatory monitoring and evaluation is just not a function of assessing success and future in a particular or a piece of project or program. PM&E is a social process that uses news ways to bring people together around the issues, it is a cultural process that helps people to understand different views and actions. Ideally, participation happens during all phases of monitoring and evaluation, from the planning and designs to preparing an action to improve the action plan to improve the performance of the program/projects. For example, it should begin through inception such as community orientation across project cycle.

Field practices have identified and experienced different approaches and

methods, which involves stakeholders more directly in building sustainable development results through real participation in all dimensions of the project cycle. The stakeholders include primary stakeholders and other community people within community and outside the community. This article describes experiential learning based participatory monitoring & evaluation to assess some of the following basic questions.

- What is the difference between conventional monitoring and evaluation and experiential learning based participatory monitoring and evaluation?

- What is the purpose of experiential learning based participatory M&E and different experiential learning based approaches?

- How does it go about understanding a PM&E?

Generally, we have been more familiar with the M&E, which is based on program and project and views performance in terms of outputs. Today, the challenge is to go beyond the traditional monitoring and evaluation level and link performance with all levels with rigorous and credible assessments of progress. The most important characteristics and dimensions are bringing key stakeholders to a process that promote share knowledge, creation and learning, help transfer skills and develop the capacity of community or the organization. There are some terminologies we have been using in the development fields such as supervision, follow up, monitoring and evaluation including participatory M&E, which supplement and complements each other.

2. What is Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation?

Participatory Monitoring & Evaluation (PM&E) is a democratic process for examining the values, progress, constraints and achievement of projects and programs by stakeholders. It recognizes and values the subtle contributions of local people and empowers them to get involved and contribute to nation's development progress (Pact/USAID, 1998). PM&E differs from conventional approaches to participatory monitoring and evaluation in a sense that it seeks to engage key project stakeholders actively in reflecting and assessing the progress of their project and in particular, the achievement of results. The process of monitoring is continual in a sense that is not time bound so that function of monitoring can be existed and perceived. Whereas, as part of development projects and programs, most often periodic monitoring is done through field visits by managers, project staffs or the hiring of an external monitors, and evaluation is typically undertaken at the mid-point or end of the project by a third party evaluator. The development change is not achieved in isolation. We can do it in true way when it is participatory. Active participation builds "ownership", encourages joint actions based on mutual understanding of performance issues and successes and contributes to strengthened future planning and action. For participatory monitoring and evaluation program managers recognize a collective strategy so that local all stakeholders have collective and affirmative actions.

3. The Purpose of Participatory M&E

It is a kind of experiential learning, means learning from experience or learning

by doing. The purpose of essence of experiential learning based participatory M&E is four fold; (1) to build local capacity of project stakeholders to get involved to reflect, analyze and to make more informed decisions; (2) to learn from experience, adjust and take affirmative action to ensure the achievement on on-going activities; (3) to be multi stakeholders accountable and active participation at all levels from the community, organizational level to those responsible for the implementation and funding of the project; and 4) to share experiential learning and build on what is working and locally relevant. It is learning from experience. Using PM&E other various factors and actors associated with meaningful participation and actions about outcomes and outputs can be captured and mobilized.

4. How Experiential Learning Based Participatory M&E works?

Good practices that suggests how and why different strategies, tools and processes work in different situations. Using PM&E requires a commitment to and understanding of purpose and benefits it can bring to all stakeholders and partners of a project. Building an M&E system with effective participation will ensure that stakeholders feel a sense of ownership of the system and commitment to it. Community people are the primary actors in monitoring their own program. Through participatory M&E, we will be able to judge; we are getting where we want to go, whether we can credibly claim progress and success or how to improve our efforts. A careful program design and then participatory M&E clarifies on what should be monitored, why, by whom and how. When a project or program is poorly designed or based on assumptions,

even best monitoring is unlikely to ensure its success. Monitoring strategy is part of the action plans, which is followed during the implementation.

Assistance with true development requires an appreciation of culture and the local people. Participatory monitoring and evaluation enables people to understand the views and values they share work through their differences with others. It allows different voices to tell their story from their different perspectives, contexts and settings. So monitoring and evaluation take place at two levels. The first level focuses on the outputs, which are the specific products, and services that emerge from processing inputs through program, project, and other activities. The second level focuses on the outcomes of development efforts, which are the changes in development conditions. In a participatory approach, stakeholders who are directly or indirectly involved in a program take part in collecting information, planning, monitoring inputs, outputs, processes and evaluating. Through experiential learning a continuous process of interaction (immersion) build on then encourages reflection about the experience to develop new skills, new attitudes or new ways of thinking. Immersion informal and demonstrates the commitment of community people, based on mutual trust and respect.

5. Why Experiential Learning Based Participatory M&E?

The optimal transformation of inputs into outputs begins with the quality of project design including participatory monitoring and evaluation. Since there are other associated various factors and actors to be considered. Experiential learning based monitoring and evaluation can be effective

tools to enhance the quality of project planning and management. It is flexible and comprehensive tools and it is used in step-by-step processes. While getting information from child labor are not only ones to be interviewed; parents, employers, local officials and other relevant people are also part of the process of monitoring. The strengths of participatory approaches lies in the fact it is through them that the Parent Teacher Associations/School Management Committees (PTA/SMCs), child club and women group members were able to access out-of-school children or child labor and rendered them visible. Processes and tools can be used in different ways by different interventions and implementation process to involve stakeholders/right holders. Experiential learning based monitoring and evaluation is taking place on a number of levels; it enables to identify problems, find out why those problems were occurring, find out solution, enhance the program plan and implementation (with a logical in vertical and horizontal sequence). It allows primary and other stakeholders to learn each other's experiences, building expertise and knowledge in each stage. Experiential learning based M&E, which works in collaboration with various stakeholders in order to build shared ownership of objectives and approaches. It is like a value chain system. Thus, the local level groups/ organizations are more likely to bring about the sustainable changes and improved power relations among stakeholders by virtue of being resident in project areas and able to provide backstopping and monitoring services.

There are some community practices on participatory M&E tools, methods and approaches. Here it also describes some of the monitoring instruments and its associated factors based on the community practices, and integrated in community practices and learning. Experiential learning approach is simple and straightforward in practice; therefore, it does not require specialized skills. It is systemic approach gathering and documenting. Valuable experiential learning is documented and adopted in monitoring and evaluation mechanism.

6.   Good Practices on PM&E Tools, Methods and Approaches

There is no single, blanket set or specific approach of participatory monitoring & evaluation (PM&E) that can be recommended for every situation and nature of the projects and programs. However, there are four main aspects of PM&E that have been worked out overtime and through experience: participation, learning, negotiation and flexibility. When people are actually involved in the whole process, is when PM&E become a real partnership in development. Learning within the PM&E process can encourage capacity building for communities. Negotiation is seen a contribution to building trust among stakeholders and changing the perceptions, behaviors and attitudes.

An agency generally defines the outcomes and selects indicators for which to measures their achievements. It is important to take into account participation and measuring performance that can describe the different approaches and strategies to be addressed. Although selecting indicators and participatory approaches may take more time and efforts, stakeholders needs, priorities and expectations but it requires a good PM&E system. This article aims to realize a practical and theoretical approximation to M&E approaches based

on participation, from the identification and analysis of main components. To source relevant information, the author conducted field visits, interaction with community people, past associations, explored NGOs reports and conducted searches via Internet search.

PM&E can improve the knowledge and skills of participants, increase teamwork, and create opportunities for the information generated to be used to enhance performance.

7. Community Based Participatory Methods

Processes, products and services contribute to the achievement of clearly stated results. This needs to strategic planning and management by improving and accountability. Participation applies not only to primary stakeholders. It means giving space to other stakeholders such as non-beneficiaries, grass roots organizations, groups, and or networks. For this learning about local perspectives, contexts and priorities identify problems and trouble shooting problems or gaps during the implementation, evaluating a project, program, or policy, in participatory methods are useful to design more responsive and sustainable interventions. Bringing together community people that results in sharing of best practices and useful knowledge which reduce the amount of times and money expended. It provides timely, reliable information for management decision-making and generates sense of ownership in the M&E results. Sometimes regarded as less objective but it enhances local learning, management capacity and skills.

If we are really seeking people participation and contribution to effective monitoring

and evaluation management, we cannot do in a true way unless it is transparent at first. And respecting local customs, language, context and experiences are the knowledge base. This is possible through living with people, believing and seeking the knowledge that marginalized or illiterate people have of their own environment. Getting stated properly can have a major impact and contribution on the progress of participatory M&E.

Some of these following tools and approaches are low to medium, depending on extent and depth of process used. Thus facilitating a process of learning, change and action is important to large measures on good design and indicators to success.

i. ***Village/Community Orientation Program:*** Planning of M&E begins as early as formulation stage of program. Similarly, a structure of implementing PM&E should begin with community orientation in which project partners (NGOs) focus on participation of primary stakeholders and other community people. Giving information about program through community orientation to community and stakeholders/right holders means getting it right from the start. Village or community orientation program is one of the important steps of starting of a program or project and effective tool to inform about what the program/project include its objective and intended benefits and working strategies. People will 'open up' if they are allowed to participate. Through this orientation process that makes more transparent on program activities, budget, expected targets and expectation and needs of

people, or their contribution. When asking people why did you join this management committee the answer was we could contribute to children regular attendance in non-formal education class? With transparency it builds trust and leads to participation.

ii. *Establishing a System-based Supervision:* Although supervision is considered as old terminology but its essence is still vital. A system should work as well even absence of a manager or staff. Supervision is a process where program mangers work with individuals and teams to achieve its objectives through joint planning, problem solving and monitoring and evaluation. Supervision links you and others to wider needs and processes within the organization. The physical distance between staff and in frequency with which we see each other complicates sometimes supervision, in an organization. It is possible when we are able to bring people together around the issues and give them roles as they can do. Management committees, child clubs, child protection committees, child friendly local governance, youth groups they became a part of supervision and monitoring as well as a change agent. Supervision can become a part of the PM&E system, when the role is given to these groups. The importance of 'handing over the stick' and creating the space for people are bringing together around the issues, respect and participation to work on the monitoring. The community people share that our involvement in monitoring and supervision has

recognized community; it has helped and empowered local people to control their own development.

iii. *Social Audit:* There are various barriers: the voices of marginalized/poor people are rarely heard, valued and their participation is absent. Now a day, civil society organizations and government agencies are undertaking social audit to monitor and verifying the social performance **claims the organization or a program**. Social audit is a tool it can help to plan, manage, and measure non-financial activities and monitor both internal and external consequences. It is a participatory tool through transparency leads clear communication; build trust, increased participation and collective actions. Remember here the scope of social audit is not verification and investigation of transactions as public audit does. However, social audit is distinct from evaluation. This become innovative or more comprehensive mechanism and participatory technique to involve all stakeholders/right holders in the process of measuring social performance as well as to report accurately what has been done. Number of public agencies has prepared their Citizen's Charter for the statement of services being announcement and put into effect. Here some of the impressions from people during the social auditing.

• Have chances to reflect the view (voices) of all those people (stakeholders) involved with or affected by the program.

• Reports all aspects of the

organizations work and performance. It also encourages participation and sharing our views.

- Audited accounts are disclosed with all stakeholders and the wider community.

- This is the good way of transparency and communication of information.

iv. *Links to Knowledge Management:* Knowledge management is part of participatory M&E and providing information to the right people, to the right time and right period of time. The three key terms are as the building blocks of knowledge management; i) data, ii) information, and iii) knowledge. For example, holding review and reflection workshops in which participants are encouraged to share ideas, learning experience as well as strategies review, system audits and program reports that bring together all stakeholders and beneficiaries to share and learn from one another. Children formed a child clubs and child protection committee members in remote areas of *Khotang* drew attention through weekly wall magazine about not distributing scholarships to children on time that influenced the school authority to distribute scholarship support on time. They also engaged in collecting data of out-of-school children around their village and prepared actions and action taken to enroll out of school children into school. The child clubs, Parent Teacher Association/ School Management Committees (PTA/ SMCs), Women Groups are part of monitoring, and door-to door visits as well as increasingly using innovative ways to put social pressure on parents who are not sending their children to school or prevent from entering child labor.

v. *Change Agents*: With the community leaders/activists, management committee members, facilitators are organized a group to be influential/ opinion leaders is referred to as "Change Agents" who all have potential influence over local services. Through a facilitated process a group of community level activists work closely with community level opinion, as discuss the root causes of vulnerability, for instance, girls'/youth vulnerability in their communities and what needs to be done to reduce this vulnerability. Then they pick up one of the government service that needs to be improved at a time, then identify who will lobby and how. They identify what data would help strengthen their lobbying. They design their own simple research tools to collect this data. The Change Agents make regular visits to a village over to collect data. They use their data/ information and their experience to make their own lobbying message and action plan. They then conduct their own lobbying actions with concerned local organizations, e.g. school head teachers, Parent Teacher Association/ School Management Committees, Village Development Committees, District Education Office or District Development Committee to care about. This reflects a decision about priorities based on learning experience about how can best be mobilized to effect change.

vi. ***Work Planning***: Planning for monitoring and evaluation provides everyone involved in the project with an understanding of what the project is supposed to do and the time lines and strategies for doing it. Thus work planning is comprehensive tools that help people to translate information, ideas and efforts into operational terms. Where M&E is integrated part of overall work plan which is interrelated at each level.

Community based experiential learning M&E design entails in order to see right trajectory and productive working relationships among all stakeholders to demonstrate results and take corrective actions to improve service delivery. These are some of the practices in the community they are directly or indirectly connected to monitoring and evaluation. This list is not comprehensive, nor is it intended to be. These tools and approaches support and complement a participatory monitoring and evaluation.

8. Conclusions

Building an M&E system with effective participation ensure that stakeholders feel a sense of ownership of the system and commitment to projects. Some community based participatory learning and action through community orientation, system based supervision, social audit, knowledge management and change agents are the basics of participatory M&E. It helps to bringing stakeholders together around the issues and establishes mutual trust and respect. It promotes shared knowledge, creation and learning; helps transfer skills and develop the capacity of community and the organization. It is a process of learning from experience or learning from changes. Community based participatory learning and action, participatory monitoring and evaluation, and the processes associated as participatory traditions are the pillars of participatory monitoring and evaluation. The PM&E system is for all stakeholders.

References_____

IFAD (n.d.). Managing for Impact in Rural Development: a guide for project M&E; www.ifad.org
Pact/USAID. (1998). Participatory Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting: A Organizational Development Perspectives for South African NGOs Quarterly Progress Reports (2009- 2013) of NGOs JSSN/Khotagn, BSS/Sarlahi.
Panday, D.R. (1999). Nepal's Failed Development: Reflections of the Mission and the Maladies
RWG-CL. (2000). Improving Action Oriented Research on the Worst Forms of Child Labor
UNDP. (2002). Handbook on Monitoring and Evaluating for Results.
WE. (2013). Annual Report (2009-13). Combating Exploitive Child Labor through Education in Nepal.

The author has past experience in development field and currently working as a freelancer.
E-mail: gopal.tamang0615@gmail.com

Monitoring and Evaluation on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in Nepal

- PRAKASH BUDHA

Abstract

Human rights, particularly economic, social and cultural rights have recently garnered much attention in Nepal. It must be acknowledged that Nepal has made significant progresses in regard to promoting human rights in recent years, particularly those rights related to economic, social and cultural rights. Various socio-economic national development indicators support such claims. Nevertheless, it is unfortunate that very less scholars have highlighted the importance of disaggregated information in the process of evaluating the claims. When the development indicators of the progress made by Nepal are evaluated in disaggregated modes, it is observed that the share of progress has not benefited all social groups in similar manner. Those factors that should not be overlooked while evaluating and examining economic, social and cultural rights in reference to the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR), to which, Nepal is a member-state. Eventually, it is discussed importance of considering the provisions laid in ICESCR and its implication for Nepalese society. It has evidence that some of the preceding provisions of the ICESCR have been neglected while fulfilling the rights enunciated in ICESCR.

Key Words: rights; international human rights law; development indicators; monitoring and evaluation

1. Introduction

After decade-long Maoist insurgency (1996-2006), human right discourse has significantly increased in Nepal; both at political and societal level. However, this discussion is not based on end products of the conflict nor are they based on civil and political rights. Instead, it will be exploring the factors that need to be considered while measuring and evaluating economic, social and cultural rights. Just as human rights are important, provisions enshrined in the process while fulfilling those rights within human rights framework are equally important. A group of independent experts within United Nations framework that closely monitors various economic, social and cultural rights is the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (CESCR), which lays down various important factors that needs to be considered while measuring and assessing impact or monitoring and evaluating these rights. In last couple of decades, numerous development indicators have shown significant achievement of economic, social and cultural rights. Nevertheless, when these accomplishments are seen from the lenses of the CESCR, various disappointing results are observed.

As a human being, we are all entitled to rights since our birth, which are well explained by three prominent bill of rights: Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), International Covenant for Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) and International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR). ICESCR is the most relevant treaty body mechanism to monitor and evaluate ESC rights under international human rights law (Senyojo, 2009). Nepal ratified this Covenant in 1991.

Monitoring and evaluating human rights promotional activities of States' obligations is an important part of acknowledging, as well as, an opportunity to critique State Parties' activities. It is an important aspect of human rights to critically analyze rights that are being violated, who violets, and their remedies. By doing so, it is expected to identify the gaps; both 'within' and 'in between' principle theory of human rights and practice in ground. Nevertheless, it is claimed that measuring human rights is immensely difficult due to various reasons, such as conceptual ambiguities, unavailability of reliable and valid data information, and limited human rights framework to evaluate (Anaya, 2009). On the other hand, some have even argued over listing the 'number of rights' as a factor hampering the measurement of rights (Donnelly, 1988).

Generally, rights can be measured through identification of incremental development of legal standard formulated internationally or within a State in a given period of time (Landman and Carvalho, 2010). Abiding to international standards, adoption of human rights law, plans and policies into national legal system, and their monitoring of the implementation are some of the ways to evaluate the commitment made by a State to promote human rights. In order to have a proper balance, human rights can be measured through progress achieved on the ground and adoption of legal and non-legal reforms with time.

Measuring progress or the realization of ESC rights in Nepal under ICESCR can be undertaken through several provisions laid down in the covenant. There are two approaches to evaluating ESC rights. The first provisions are mentioned in the

preceding articles of the covenant, while the second one can be measured and evaluated through statistical measurement of indicators and benchmarks of respective rights enunciated in the covenant. These two provisions must work in conjunction to each other, according to the Committee on ESCR. Failure to abide by any provisions can be a violation of the obligations enshrined in the Covenant and failure of a State to promote human rights in rightful manner (Landman and Carvalho, 2010).

Nepal as a duty-bearer has its duty to respect, protect, and fulfill human rights of its citizen. Even though human rights obligations are also stretching to hold non-state actors accountable, they are much more complicated and complex. The concept of complicity in the recent years, particularly to hold corporate accountable, has invoked similar international human rights law framework for non-state actors as well. In this paper, it is going to explore provisions laid out by the ICESCR, which is legally binding document for Nepal.

2. What does the preceding articles of the ICESCR mandate?

- **Take Steps and Progressive Realization**

Nepal, being a member State to ICESCR has legal obligation to 'take steps' and 'progressively realize' the enshrined rights of the covenant (ICESCR, 1996, Article 2.1).The Committee on ESCR has the provision of 'progressive realization' as a recognition of the fact that the rights enshrined in the covenants are difficult to be achieved in short period of time and with limited resources (CESCR 1990, GC 3, Para 9). As a result, examination or evaluation of realization of rights under

ICESCR requires assessment of progress made within a time frame, from the date of ratification to the time of study. However, some of the obligations such as adopting legislations, policies and other required measures like formulating legal framework are of immediate effect that Nepal must comply immediately (Schutter, 2010). Therefore, it is important to see whether Nepal has taken steps progressively towards realization of the rights enshrined.

- **Maximum Utilization of Available Resources and International Cooperation**

Articles 2(1) of the ICESCR strictly obliges State Party to take steps and show progress with no excuse of scarce resources (ICESCR, 1996).The Committee on ESCR incorporated obligation of seeking/ providing international assistance to fill-in the vacuum of lacking national available resources. In other word, the Committee expects States to undertake 'deliberate, concrete and targeted steps' even if it has to be achieved through international cooperation by all means despite of lack of resources (Maastricht Principle, 2011, no. 29).Under the obligation of ICESCR, Nepal has both joint and individual responsibility to promote and protect rights enshrined in the covenant. Whether or not the rights to seek assistance are a right, States must utilize maximum available resources or seek international assistance when felt necessary to realize the rights promulgated in the covenant. The Maastricht Principles concludes all States having 'obligation to seek international assistance and cooperation ... when that State is unable, despite efforts, to guarantee economic, social and cultural rights within its territory' (Maastricht Principle, 2011,

no. 34). Consequently, it must be seen whether Nepal has taken this step to fulfill the rights enshrined under the Covenant.

• **Core Obligation and Immediate Effect Provisions**

The concept of 'progressive realization' in ICESCR may have the impression of time taking, but one must be aware of 'immediate effect' provision, which is misunderstood many times (Young, 2013). These are the obligations that States must undertake immediately after ratification of the covenant. Nepal is legally obliged to ensure some provision with immediate effect, such as non-retrogressive measures, elimination of discrimination, 'take steps' and work towards meeting minimum core obligations (OHCHR, Fact sheet no. 33). Even though positive and negative nature of obligation of rights have influence in determining immediate or progressive nature of the rights, the CESCR compels States to immediately fulfill minimum essential level of some rights in accordance to maximum available resources (Sepulveda, 2003). The Committee argues that it 'would be largely deprived of its raison d'être,' if such requirements are neglected (Sepulveda, 2003). Various rights under general comments (GC) such as rights to adequate housing (CESCR, 1991, GC 4, Para 10); Action plan on primary education (CESCR, 1999, GC 11, Para 10); right to adequate food (CESCR, 1999, GC 12, Para 16); right to education (CESCR, 1999, GC 13, Para 31); right to the highest attainable standard of health (CESCR, 2000, GC 14, Para 30) have emphasized that a minimum level of these rights (core obligations) must be complied immediately.

• **Provision of Non-discrimination**

Apart from taking steps progressively, utilizing maximum available resources, and international cooperation enunciated under Article 2 (1) of ICESCR, it also obliges State Parties to protect, respect and fulfill the covenant rights in conjunction with non-discrimination provision under Article 2 (2) of the covenant (ICESCR, 1996). One of the main goals of 'non-discrimination' is to ensure equality, which is considered as the main purpose of promoting human rights. This Article obliges the States Parties to guarantee the rights enunciated in the covenant to be exercised "without discrimination of any kind as to race, color, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status" (ICESCR, 1996). The Committee on ESCR obliges States to guarantee elimination of both formal and substantive discrimination (CESCR, 2009, GC 20). The non-discrimination principles are applicable to all the rights recognized in the covenant (CESCR, 2009, Para 3).

3. Linking the Preceding Articles to ESCRs' Achievements in Nepal

Nepal is considered to have made significant progress in the realization of some economic, social and cultural (ESC) rights and in fact have received worldwide recognition for these achievements (UNDP, 2014). For instance, Nepal received "Motivational Award" and MDG Achievement Award" for its remarkable effort to reduce IMR to 9 per 1000 live births (UNDP, 2014). Likewise, the Awards also included achievements regarding MMR that was 539 per 100000 births in 1996 to lowering figure of 229 per 100,000 births. Nepal also received 'Resolve Award' from 'Global Leaders Council for Reproductive Health' in 2012 for making

significant advancement in reproductive health sector (Global Leaders Council for Reproductive Health, Geneva, 2012).

It is to be acknowledged that Nepal, along with international cooperation, have endeavored to fulfill its many of the obligation enshrined in the ICESCR. Nevertheless, when the preceding articles of the covenant is evaluated and examined, Nepal doesn't seem to have complied with the provision fully. The aforementioned provisions of the covenant should be considered when taking steps to fulfilling ESCR. For instance, maximum utilization of resources also means to use 'deliberate, concrete and targeted steps' to fulfill rights. It is reported that there are many non-dominant social groups, as oppose to those belonging to dominant social groups in Nepal, have not progressed with time in a speedy manner (Third State Periodic Report Nepal, 2012). It is against the spirit of what has been asked to take into consideration. While some dominant social groups have made significant progress, others remain slow; and the gap between the dominant and non-dominant social groups remain significantly high in some of the ESC rights' achievement in Nepal.

On the other hand, the covenant also keeps the non-discrimination criteria as important factors to consider when promoting ESCRs. When Johnson and Bradley re-analyzed evidences of the trend of a decade in Nepal, they concluded inequalities in access to and use of important health services has been worsening and severe (Johnson and Bradley, 2006).In fact, experience of discrimination based on caste and ethnicity is so deeply rooted in the society that it became one

of the main agenda for the recent political movements and changes, which was also reflected in the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA), which helped end the 12-year conflict (Pandey et al., 2013).

The Committee on ESCR argues formal approach to non-discrimination as insufficient, and therefore request to eliminate discrimination in practice by paying special attention to groups of individuals who suffer 'historical or persistent prejudice instead of merely comparing the formal treatment of individuals in similar situation' (CESCR, 2009, GC 20, Para 8.b).It's a States' obligation within some circumstances to adopt special measures to prevent or suppress persistent discriminations as long as they are temporary to achieve the objective with some exceptions (CESCR, 2009, GC 20, Para 9). Provisions like this have significant importance for Nepal as people in this country have long history of persistent discrimination and inequality based on gender, caste, religion, ethnicity and geographic location (Pandey et al., 2013). The CESCR is also clear that some provision of non-discrimination is of immediate effect, irrespective of available resources or progressive realization clauses, which is expected to be implied fully and immediately to all aspects of rights enshrined in the covenant by the member Parties.[1]Likewise, even though non-discrimination strictly means equality, CESCR doesn't prevent States from taking affirmative action when needed and are completely legitimate (CESCR, 2009, GC 20, Para 9).

Consequently, CESCR also advocates to use disaggregate data when evaluating and monitoring the progress made in ESCR

---

1.   UN Doc. HRI/GEN/1/Rev.7, General Comment No.16, The Right to Water (Art 11 and 12 of ICESCR), para 17; GC 12, The Right to the Highest Attainable Standard of Health (Art 12), para. 30; GC 13, The Right to Education (Art 13) para 13 and 43; GC 3, The Nature of States Obligations (Art 2) para 1

rather than evaluating the overall progress. It suggests using indicators and benchmarks to assess and take constant note of the progress in this regard. It is expected that such a way is helpful for developing all sections and groups of societies in just manner. The State Parties are required to ensure formal and substantive equality giving a space for States to take positive actions in order to prevent discrimination (CESCR, 2009, GC 20).

4.   Indicators and Benchmark

Indicators and the concept of benchmarks are powerful tools that can assist measuring and evaluating ESC rights achievements, as they have statistical characteristics. These concepts not only help measure results, but also assist determining maximum available resources and international cooperation (Hunt and MacNaughton, 2007). On the other hand, indicators help set benchmarks which have the potential to bring statistical precisions as they are increasingly being used to set specific and time-bound targets for making progress. The CESCR monitors and assesses benchmarks during State reporting as these benchmarks are set with Committee's consultation according to the priority of the States (Schutter, 2010, p 461).While the indicators help monitor and evaluate the situations, State Parties are encouraged to set appropriate national benchmarks. As against indicators, these benchmarks contribute the accountability of member States by making them committed to perform and achieve the goal under assessment.

Some scholars argue the use of indicators not only as measuring instrument, but also a tool to assist determining targets, allocating resources and ease international cooperation, under necessary conditions (Hunt and MacNaughton, 2007).It is therefore important to see disaggregated national data to verify that State Parties have consider various categories while progressively realizing the rights enunciated in the covenant.

5.   Conclusion

It is important that all the provisions of ICESCR are evaluated in conjunction with preceding Articles of the covenant. It is vital as it gives certain specific guidelines which otherwise is taken for granted. The main purpose of these provisions is to avoid differences in distribution of resources in a manner that will otherwise exclude socially excluded, backward and marginalized groups. The main purposes of promoting human rights are to promote interest of voiceless and backward societies. If numerical majorities and elites were to be prioritize than there is no use of promoting human rights. Consequently, it is the interest of promoting human rights to emphasize and give priorities to marginalized and excluded groups of the society. In order to achieve this goal, the ICESCR has laid two separate provisions in the covenant that must be considered together with similar importance, and monitor and evaluate progress made in the area of economic, social and cultural rights accordingly.

Nepal is a member state of ICESCR. It has ratified the convention to abide by the values of UN and the Committee. Likewise, Nepal has made numerous international commitments that are legally and morally binding. Accordingly, if Nepal fails to abide by the standards progressively, it can be considered as violation of international human rights law. If current scenario of some ESC human rights is to be evaluated, it can be concluded that Nepal has failed to comply with the promises it has made to international world.

References_____

Anaya, J. (2009). *Promotion and Protection of All Human Rights, Civil, Political, Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, Including the Rights to Development, Report by the Special Rapporteur on the Situation of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedom of Indigenous People, Report on the Situation of Indigenous People in Nepal, A/HRC/12/34/Add.3, 20 July.*

Available at http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Issues/ESCR/FAQ,ESCR.

Donnelly, J., and Howard, R. (1998). *Assessing National Human Rights Performance: A Theoretical Framework, Human Rights Quarterly 10:214-48.*

Global Leaders Council for Reproductive Health, Geneva, Switzerland. (2012). *First-Ever Resolve Awards Recognize Nepal, Malawi, Rwanda, and Ethiopia*, Available at: http://www.aspeninstitute.org/sites/default/files/content/docs/Press%20Release%20_Geneva%205.22.12.pdf

Hunt, P. and MacNaughton G. (2007). *A Human Rights-Based Approach to Health Indicators, in Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in Action*, Baderin, M., and MacCorquodale, R., (eds), Oxford Scholarship Online.

International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. 1996. General Assembly resolution 2200 (XXI).

Johnson, K. and Bradley,S.E.K. (2008). *Trends in Economic Differentials in Population and Health Outcomes, Further Analysis of the (2006) Nepal Demographic and Health Survey*, Calverton, MD, USA: Macro International.

Landman,T. and Carvalho, E. (2010). *Measuring human rights.* USA: Routledge.

Maastricht Principles on Extraterritorial Obligations of States in the area of Economic, Social and Cultural Right. (2011). Available at: http://www.lse.ac.uk/humanRights/articlesAndTranscripts/2011/MaastrichtEcoSoc.pdf

OHCHR, Fact Sheet No 33, *Frequently Asked questions on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.*

Pandey,J.P. et al. (2013). *Maternal and Child Health in Nepal: The Effects of Caste, Ethnicity and Regional Identity, Further Analysis of the (2011) Nepal Demographic and Health*

Survey, Calverton Maryland, USA. Nepal Ministry of Health and Population, Kathmandu: New ERA, and ICF International.

Schutter, O. (2010). .*International Human Rights law, Cases, Material, Commentary*, Cambridge University Press.

Sepulveda, M. (2003).*The Nature of the Obligations under the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights*, Utrecht University Institute for legal Studies, Intersentia.

Ssenyonjo, M. (2009). *Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in International Law.* Hart Publishing.

UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. (1990). *General Comment No. 3: The Nature of States Parties' Obligation* (Art. 2 Para. 1 of the covenant), 14 December.

UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. (1991). *General Comment No. 4: The Right to Adequate Housing* (Art. 11 (1) of the Covenant, 13 December (1991), E/1992/23.

UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. (1999). *General Comment No. 11: Plans of Action for Primary Education* (Art. 14 of the Covenant), 10 May (1999), E/1992/23.

UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. (1999). *General Comment No. 12: The Right to Adequate Food* (Art. 11 of the Covenant), 12 May.

UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. (1999). *General Comment No. 13: The Right to Education* (Art. 13 of the Covenant), 8 December 1999, E/C.12/1999/10.

UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. (2000). *General Comment No. 14: The Right to the Highest Attainable Standard of Health* (Art. 12 of the Covenant), 11August 2000, E/C.12/2000/4.

UN Committee on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights. (2009). *General comment No. 20: Non-discrimination in economic, social and cultural rights* (art.2, para.2, of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights), 2 July 2009, E/C.12/GC/20

UNDP Nepal. (2014). *In Pursuit of Millennium Development Goals.* Kathmandu: UNDP.

United Nations, Economic and Social Council. (2012). *Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, Implementation of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, Third Periodic Reports Submitted by States Parties Under Articles 16 and 17 of the Covenant, Nepal, E/C.12/NPL/3, 29 October.*

Young, K. (2013). *The Minimum Core of Economic and Social Rights: A Concept in Search of Content*, Edited by Schutter, O., Human Rights Law (6), Edward Elgar Publishing Ltd.

The author is a postgraduate student from University of Essex, the UK, and a former Research Officer of NEPAN.
E-mail: prakashbmagar@gmail.com

Role of Appropriate Technology in Reducing Women's Agricultural Workload: An Experience from Okhaldhunga, Nepal

- LOCHANA SHAHI & MAHESH JAISHI

Abstract

Women of rural Okhaldhunga are much involved in managing household and agriculture activities, and are greatly benefited from labour saving technologies which save time and energy, which allows them to allocate time to improve their material conditions and status in their communities. It aims to analyse the gender implications of some farm management technologies in relation to saving labour, time and energy inputs of women in their agriculture and household activities. A data and supporting information for this study was collected through a variety of complementary means including review of literature, extensive participatory field consultation, in-depth interview in Okhaldhunga district during September 2014. The appropriate labour saving technologies, such as redesigned and well-managed cattle sheds along with construction of a urine collection tank, the table nursery, an on-farm broom grass plantation, water harvesting technologies and well-located vermi-compost pits, have a high potential to reduce women's workload and drudgery to better manage their energy and time, as well as to increase their income from their farm and household activities.

Key Words: labour saving technology; women drudgery; farm yard manure; broom grass; table nursery

1. Introduction

1.1 The Gender Context of Women Workload in Agriculture Sector

Typical Appropriate Technology (AT) inventions are more labour intensive, require fewer resources, and use low cost or readily available materials wherever possible (Anthony, 2000). Special attention is paid to the social, cultural, and ethical aspects of the communities for whom the technology is intended (Dangol, 2004). Women in the hill districts of Nepal have heavy workloads and a high level of physical vulnerability, although there are differences between the castes and groups. Women were found to work around 16 hours a day, compared to the 9 to 10 hours that men worked (IFAD, 1999). In the present context of rural Nepal, more than 70 per cent of the work force in agriculture are women, which is reflected in the farmer composition of the Sustainable Soil Management Programme (SSMP)-women comprise 70 per cent of the farmers and 70 per cent are from the disadvantaged group in the reporting year 2011/012 (SSMP, 2012). Outmigration of male farmers is ever increasing and this has already tripled the women work burden (household, on-farm and off-farm activities) (External Review 2014). Therefore, when devising any agricultural intervention, lightening the workload of women must be considered (Ghale, 2008). In the context of Nepal, new activities promoted under development projects also demanded much time from women- these included group meeting, training, production activities, post-harvest handling and marketing. Fulfilling all these multiple roles, inside the household and in the farm not only constitute extra physical burden, but also psychological pressure and stress. This is detrimental to women's health, and in some cases, family life suffers.

Another important factor contributing to the ever increasing workload of women is a more recent phenomenon-the outmigration of productive aged individual, mostly male. In some cases, land is now left fallow as there is not the household labor or time to cultivate all the land; in other cases women just have the time to attend meeting and coaching sessions to learn of the new improved technologies that could help them increase production. Women workload is so heavy that it may be seen as a constraint to higher productivity and to the provision of adequate child care and nutrition, and as a health risk to women themselves and constraint to fulfilling their other basic needs.

Different studies have indicated that most of the SSM practices promoted by SSMP are to a great extent labor saving, either as they directly reduce the workload of women, or indirectly encourage male involvement so that the workload is shared between women and men within a household. In this context, this study is designed to identify and analyse the gender implication of the different types of labour saving technologies promoted and to know the perception of the people of project area about the technology they have adopted.

1.2 The Feminization of Agriculture

The term feminization refers to increased participation and authority of women in certain areas. In agriculture, it refers to women's increased labour participation and role in decision making. Feminization of labour means either an increase in the number of women involved or the time devoted by women, or both. Traditionally, feminization of agriculture is viewed as result of industrialization where men leave the farm to seek industrial urban jobs (De, 2003).

In Nepal, male out-migration is an important factor to contribute to GDP through regular remittances. The effects of male out-migration on the women left behind impacts strongly on the level of women's workload and decision-making in agriculture. The feminization of agriculture is therefore regarded as a positive development for women's empowerment. Feminization in the first case has the unexpected outcome

that women seem to be moving away from agriculture. An interdisciplinary approach using anthropological in-depth interviews and demographic survey data shows that a concept like feminization of agriculture needs to be considered and understood in the wider social and cultural context of an expanding rural space. (Gartaula et. al., 2012)

1.3 Women's Workload and Labour Saving Technologies

In rural Nepal, women are the major workforce in agriculture (70%) and have multiple roles and triple work burden household, on farm and off- farm activities (SSMP, 2014). Different studies have indicated that most of the SSM practices promoted by SSMP are great extent to labor saving either as they directly reduce the workload of women or indirectly encourage male involvement so that the workload is shared between women and men within a household. According to IFAD (1999) collecting fuel wood, water and fodder, all traditionally women's duties are tiring and time consuming in the mid-hills and mountainous areas of Nepal**.** The results of an increased workload for women are: less time spent by women on domestic work; the use of short-cut approaches to food preparation or the preparing only one meal a day; daughters sometimes having to leave school to help their mothers with household tasks; slight changes in the division of labour with the men (who have not migrated) occasionally helping with fetching water, taking care of smaller children and sometimes even cooking (but not cleaning);women having less time for leisure (though men's leisure time in the tea houses is rarely reduced); reduction in women's mobility outside the village, lack of time for travel for social reasons to visit relatives (Tamang, 2011).

Table 1 below records the ratings in terms of time and labour savings in relation to some of the SSM technologies. The table was compiled from field observations and records and reports during 2011-2014. During this time period, SSM practices described in the table have been promoted in seven districts along with income generating activities such as seasonal and off-season vegetables, low-cost poly house technologies and cash crops to generate household income; these income generation activities have been found to increase sharing of the farm workload between female and male farmers.

Field studies show that with the integration and adoption of new Sustainable Soil Management technologies (i.e. improved cattle sheds to enhance easier urine collection (with pipe leading to a storage tank), and use of a manuring fork for Farm Yard Manure (FYM) collection), men have started helping with work concerned with FYM and urine collection as well as bio-pesticides preparation and application- task that are normally considered to be women's in the rural area of Nepal. This has greatly helped to reduce women's work load in the district where SSMP is intervening (Bishwakarma, 2007).

1.4 Men Supporting Women's Work

While women workload has increased, there is an emerging trend of men supporting women in household work (ICIMOD, 2014). This was particularly common in household where women are active in household, community work and play lead role. In particular, women who make some earning from the gardening are respected and wholeheartedly allowed to do decision and participate group meeting, training and workshop. The value of the women's' participation in income generating activities and decision making process is demonstrated to husbands and families when women earn financial and technical resources to the household and community. Women with the support of men in household have developed the various strategies to overcome the challenge of labor use such as reinforcing the labor sharing system, shifting to cash crops such as broom grass which are less labor demanding.

Table 1: SSM practices: Improved farmyard manure (FYM) management, improved cattle shed in relation to women workload

Traditional practice		Improved practice (with SSM practices)		Improved practices save labour*	Barriers to adopt	Project interventions to mitigate/overcome the barriers/promotion
Activity	Labour Requirement	Activity	Labour Requirement			
piling/scattered/ no permanent structure	less labour required, however the quality is much poorer	placing in heap/pit under permanent structure to protect from direct sun exposure, rain, run-in and run-on water	labour required to establish structure (quality improved significantly)	-	initial investment is required with labour	support for more demonstration, mobilizing local resources continuous coaching awareness in wider scale
no urine collection/use	scattered here & there	daily piling in one place improved urine collection	managing in one place increased trend of male farmers involvement while the structure is improved- load sharing	0, +		few sample studies have shown that because of workload sharing, workload of women in this aspect is often reduced need further verification
intermediate placement/sun drying before carrying to the field	frequent carrying and placement in various location (heavy nutrient loss) frequent turning	no intermediate placement and frequent turning	reduces the burden of frequent placement, carrying and turning	++	traditional practice, no permanent structure to keep	training, coaching and demo support to establish permanent structure farmers led experiments to compare the quality
carrying to the field	less decomposed, heavy and more person/ days to carry	carrying to the field	reduction of the load- well decomposed, lighter and easy to carry	++,	traditional practice,	farmers have reported significant reduction of the day to carry in the field (often 50% less time)
incorporating into the soil/ land preparation	sticky, more time taking to scattered often reported more and bigger clods	incorporating into the soil land preparation	less time taken for scatter often reported lesser and smaller clods and easier to break	+,0		farmers often reported time saving but needs verification

-     adds labour
+   reduces (saves) labour but not significant
++   reduces labor significantly
0   not known-needs further verification and documentation

2. Methodology

The research to identify the major technologies promoted by SSMP-IV and their impact in reducing the work drudgery of women was conducted in September 2014. The research site was selected in 16 VDCs of Okhaldhunga district, one of the hill districts lying in the eastern development region of Nepal, where SSMP has long work experience during 2006-2014. A qualitative method was used for collecting and analysing data. Focussed group discussion (FGD), Key informant interviews (KII) were adopted. The story-telling was used for the famers to describe successes, challenges and their vision. A gender analysis matrix was produced in the meantime FGD with different male, female and mixed groups. Furthermore, the primary information collected through

direct field observation as an important process to gather evidences, opinions and information for this study.

Key informant was identified during the FGD and a total of 48 key informant interviews were conducted in different forms and situations; men groups, female groups as well as mixed groups were interviewed for different purposes using a structured and semi-structured checklist. Analysis of the data focused on the following:

a. The impact of male migration on increasing the women workload and drudgery in agriculture activities

b. The adoption of SSM technologies which saved the time and drudgery of women;

c. The effectiveness and appropriateness of labour saving technologies;

d. Their level of participation in programme activities,

Farmers' feeling after they had been engaged in and use of appropriate technology.

A total of 48 focused group discussions in 16 VDCs of the district were organized to explore the ideas, perspectives and concerns of the groups in terms of technology in relation to gender. It was organized in an open space and on their own terms to identify and understand the various facets of perceived problems related to the appropriate SSM technology and labour saving attributes. Fast evaluation of labor saving technologies was done with five evaluation attributes viz. relevancy, effectiveness, efficient, cost effective and sustainability by weighted criteria.

3. Result and Discussion

3.1 Male Migration the Cause of Increasing Workload to Women
The study revealed that the socio-cultural practice and male migration due to social structures are affecting workload and

feminization of agriculture activities which was added workload for rural women which automatically increased their responsibilities and burden of works. The women play significant role and contribute in agriculture production and productivity particularly carrying multiple tasks of agriculture activities. Also, the migration has direct effect on women's workload and agriculture production and productivity. Men have power in household decision making process, whereas women play on reproductive and productive role.

In the study site most of farmers and ELFs had adopted well managed farm yard manure (FYM) and improved cattle shed, table nursery, broom grass plantation near the farm and at the road side, waste water harvesting pond and vermi-compost technology provided by SSMP as the basket of SSM options. The study revealed the impact of male migration on:

a. Social structural issues,

b. The feminization of agriculture activities,

c. Increasing the workload of rural women,

d. Increasing the responsibilities of women

3.2 Farm Yard Manure
In study site, most of farmers have well managed cattle and farm yard manure (FYM) sheds which were moderately well to fully constructed, partly as a result of a public campaign. Leader Farmers in the groups where males had emigrated were very useful in supporting the women to construct the cattle sheds. Some of these migrants' households used the remittances to hire labour for construction and materials; in other areas, the farmer groups worked as a team to assist in construction of the cattle sheds. Improvement in the quality of FYM

was promoted in a 5 step programme:

a. Maintenance of a well-managed heap or pit, properly protected from the sun using a protective cover, usually a bamboo-foliage or straw roof,

b. Protection from the rain, run-in and run-on water,

c. Proper drainage, collection, and storage of cattle urine through simple redesign to, or improvement of the cattle shed,

d. Maintenance of the FYM in a moist and aerated condition before carrying it to the field and

e. Rapid incorporation into the soils, without exposure to the sun of small (FYM) heaps in the field prior to integration into the soil again covering is important.

Before & after approach was used to quantify the amount of labor saved after adopting improved cattle shed programme by SSMP. Farmers were used to scrap, collect, and clean the shed the thrice while farmers are doing these activities daily. Furthermore, the result revealed that nearly 12 person-days labor was saved as compared to having traditional cattle shed in the district which is equivalent to 59 per cent reduction in the labor requirement for scrapping, collecting, cleaning and storing of cattle manure.

Table 2: Before after analysis on labor saving to carryout cattle shed related works

	Time spent per cleaning (Minutes)	Frequency per week	Time spent per week (Minutes)	Person-day spent per year	Labor Saving per year (person-days)	Percentage reduction	Women Labor saving per year	Labor saving per Ha
Before	60.50	3	181.5	19.66	11.51	58.55	8.63	13.40
After	10.75	7	75.25	8.15				

3.3 Table (*Tande*) Nursery

As explained previously, the Table Nursery is used for growing healthier seedlings. The study findings show that it saves time, energy and labour, and costs little to construct. The table is easily made from locally available materials, and when constructed near the house it saves even more time and energy, especially as it is often a multipurpose structure. Further advantages are that it saves the back-bending work of tending to a ground-level nursery and as the seeds suffer less damage from disease and insects or trampling by animals, it saves money and time on agro-chemical purchase or re-planting. Most farmers consider it a permanent structure needing minor annual rehabilitation, which can be used for more than three years.

3.4 Broom Grass Nursery

The broom grass nursery and plantation initially established in *Katunje* VDC with focus on minimizing the time and drudgery that women spent on forage collection from far distance usually community and other forest areas. Added value of planting out broom grass were stabilizing new

roads and controlling erosion from other areas at risk from erosion.

The results show that establishment of a broom grass nursery is very appropriate for women farmers. In the study area, most leader farmers have a broom grass nursery to produce saplings to plant around the farm. In the past, much time, often more than two hours a day was spent on collecting firewood for the kitchen and grass and forage for livestock. In some cases, nearly all morning, from dawn, was spent by women on collecting firewood, forage, and water and then preparing the midday meal–the situation exacerbated due to the migration of the men. In addition, some serious accidents, even a case of death, occurred during these treks for firewood and forage. Some of the women have used remittance funds to establish the broom grass nurseries and plantations near their homes, which all respondents agreed had saved much time and energy, and required very little management after planting out. Napier grass was another plant mentioned that was also appropriate fodder and easy to manage. Regular income had also been generated through the sale of saplings to other residents as well as road building projects (for conservation purposes), and of broom brushes for household sweeping.

3.5 Gender Analysis Matrix[2] for Labour Saving Technologies

Focussed group discussion in mixed ethnic group was made to gather information for the gender analysis matrix had adopted more than two SSM; discussions took place with a women only group first, then with a men only group, and finally with a mixed group of men and women. The discussion showed that the workload and time taken by women for sweeping dung, collecting cattle urine, cleaning the shed, collecting firewood and grass for livestock and in nursery management activities had reduced. Constructing cattle sheds, table nurseries and establishing broom grass plantations, however, required women to do more work initially. The women also stated that caring for the broom grass nursery took some extra time, but this was compensated by an increased income from selling the broom grass sets. They also felt that the improved FYM gave better grain crops and vegetables, and that the bio-pesticides were a healthier and low cost option to commercial pesticides.

It was also observed that:

1. Women reported that that initially it was difficult to keep the livestock inside the shed because the cattle became ill and their skin became reddish "due to lack of sun and water";

2. During the construction phase, women's involvement was low, but that they remained very busy in collecting the needed materials as a result, they did not really learn any new skills for construction;

3. Although time was saved by these technologies adopted (i.e. well managed cattle sheds, broom grass plantations, table nurseries), the saved time was not easily visible, as women were always involved with additional work, such as working on other farm activities or selling vegetables at the nearby *Haat* Bazaars.

4. There were also negative implications of such SSM technologies on household resources. Both the men and women explained that they needed to make a high investment

initially to construct the cattle shed and broom grass nursery even though the nurseries and plantations were relatively small areas; both also confirmed that these structures and establishments were beneficial in the long run.

The matrix conclude that there is a positive implication on local culture in terms of a change in people's attitude, the habit of keeping livestock inside sheds, and the resultant decrease in haphazard grazing of livestock on the roadside. Most important, it was also mentioned that there was a change in the attitude of both men and women towards women participating in decision-making groups and in their mobility in and outside the village. Due the training and rally conducted by the AFECs and SSMP, women were not restricted in attending group meetings, workshops and trainings, or in visiting others' houses for monitoring. The involvement of men in gambling was also minimized.

Table 3: Gender analysis matrix for labour saving technologies in relation to women workload

Gender	Labour	Time	**Resource**	**Culture**
Women	+ less work for collecting firewood + less work for scrapping dung activities + less work for cattle shed - initially more work for nursery establishment - more work for water collection	+ less time in cleaning, collecting firewood and cattle dung and urine collection activities - long time to construct sheds and nurseries initially	+ information from training by AFEC and SSMP + less use of chemical fertilizer and pesticide + possibility to increase income through small income activities	+ good team work with family - initially people are not used to keeping cattle inside the sheds + *changing attitude of men and women for the better*
Men		-less time for farm and family when sharing skills with group and in construction phase	+ more knowledge and information through training and awareness rallies +became skilled individual +income gained from new skills + increased income through power related activities	+ change habits and reduce time or stop gambling, cards and playing carom

| Men and Women/ Household | + saved women's energy for other activities | + saved women's time for other activities | - high initial investment
+ possibility to increase income
+ less use of chemical fertilizer, and high use of organic manure
+ potential for road bank and sloping land stabilization to minimize slips and landslides through planting of broom grass sets | + improved attitude of men and women in relation to women's importance and workload for farm activities
+ positive attitude of men towards women's engagement on VDC level activities, and out-scaling this positive attitude to neighbours and community |

*N*ote: "+" indicates positive implications   "-"indicates negative implication

3.6 Evaluation of Labor Saving Technologies by Weighted Criteria

Fast evaluation of labor saving technologies was done with five evaluation attributes viz. relevancy, effectiveness, efficient, cost effective and sustainability by weighted criteria. For each attributes was rated by five point scale ranging from 20 per cent and 100 per cent. The average of these scale points gives the weight of each criterion. The overall evaluation of each technology is average weight of all attributes.

Table 4: Indexing of 5 labor saving technologies using evaluation criteria's based on respondents' judgments

Attributes	FYM	Broom grass	Table nursery	Waste water collection	Vermi-compost
Relevancy	0.86	0.77	0.66	0.57	0.55
Effectiveness	0.86	0.79	0.65	0.53	0.55
Efficient	0.82	0.81	0.62	0.59	0.58
Cost effective	0.84	0.81	0.62	0.59	0.54
Sustainability	0.83	0.81	0.66	0.58	0.54
Average score	0.84	0.80	0.64	0.57	0.55

The Table 4 indicates that improved FYM was most relevant, effective, efficient and sustainable technology as compared to broom grass plantation, table nursery, waste water collection and vermi-compost technologies. These results further suggest that improved FYM, the product of improved cattle shed was economically and popular among the farmers followed by broom grass (0.80), table nursery (0.64), and waste water collection (0.57) and vermin-compost (0.55).

4. Conclusion

The above findings concludes that appropriate SSM technologies are labor saving; specifically, they are helpful in minimizing the drudgery of farm women while doing such agriculture activities and in addition spent more time on related activities. The almost all five SSM technologies promoted by SSMP-Okhaldhunga are women friendly because such technologies save time, energy, and money spent on labour, minimizes body muscular problems, hard back-bending work easy to handle tools and increase income for households. Among five SSM technologies, FYM improvements including cattle shed is most preferable technologies and are really helpful in minimizing the drudgery for women of farm work. By adopting FYM including nearly 12 person day's labor was saved as compared to having traditional cattle shed which is equivalent to 59 per cent reduction in the labor requirement for scrapping, collecting, cleaning and storing of cattle manure.

In this study, by using index through fast evaluation using five basic criteria it was observed that three SSM technologies among five i.e. FYM improvement, broom grass and table nursery are more appropriate and valuated by the people than traditional practices. The only negative aspect reported was the initial cost for construction was high; the few landless women also found it difficult to put up a permanent structure. Importantly, these appropriate technologies could be adopted by anyone - lead farmers, and even women farmers where male had migrated as the lead farmers disseminated and assisted the farmers in all phases of the initial operations.

References_____

Anthony A. (2000). *Appropriate Technology for Socioeconomic Development in Third World Countries, Journal of Technology Studies.*

Bishwakarma B.K. (2007). *A Brief Assessment of the Possible Options for Inclusion in Basket of SSM Options, Sustainable Soil Management Program.*

Dongol, B.B.S. (2004). *Extension Education. Kathmandu: Prativa Shingh Dongol.*

De Brauw, A. (2003). *Are women taking over the farm in China? Department of Economics, Williams College. Available: http://www.williams.edu/Economics/wp/debrauw_fem.pdf Accessed: 28 March 2010*

FAO. (2011). *The state of the food and agriculture: women in agriculture, closing the gender gap for development, Rome: FAO. Available online at www.fao.org*

Gartaula H.; Niehof A. and Visser L. (2010). *"Feminisation of agriculture as an effect of male out migration: unexpected outcomes from Jhapa district Nepal". International Journal of Interdisciplinary Social Sciences, Volume 5, Issue 2.*

Ghale, Y. (2008). *'Scoping Study on Women's Leadership in the Agriculture Sector in Nepal, Prepared for WOCAN'. Available online at www.wocan.org*

IFAD. (1999). *Nepal: Factors that increase women's workloads. Available online at: http://www.ifad.org/gender/learning/role/workload/24.htm, retrieved on 20 July 2012.*

IFAD and FAO. (2003). *Labour saving technologies and practices for farming and household activities in Eastern and southern Africa.*

Rana, S. K. (2013). *Sustainable Soil Management Program Workforce Diversity: Opportunity and challenges. SSMP document no. 185.*

SSMP. (2014). *Sustainable Soil Management Program Phase IV – External Review. A report to Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation, Nepal, December 2014.*

Tamang, S. (2011). *Increasing Agriculture Workload on Women and Its Impact. Hamro Ban Sampada. Vol. 8, No. 3. P.3. Kathmandu: Forest Action.*

The author Ms Shahi is Agribussiness Specialist, Taplejung District, Nepal-Denmark Development Cooperation UNNATI-Inclusive Growth Programme in Nepal Email: himalaya.lochana@gmail.com

The author Mr Jaishi is assistant Professor at IAAS, Lamjung Campus and Resource Person for TITI. Email: mahesh.jaishi@gmail.com

Impact Evaluation of HIV/AIDS Project in Baglung, Nepal

- NAR BIKRAM THAPA, PhD

Abstract

The evaluation focused to the overall impact of the HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment, and care and support services of the project. The participatory approaches and methods were adopted during the impact study. There has been found significant achievement of the project outputs and outcomes during the project period. This project was relevant to prevention, treatment, care and support service of people living with HIV due to direct benefit through awareness raising, voluntary counseling, blood test, food and accommodation support etc. The Village AIDS Coordination Committee has been formed in each four Village Development Committees and it is functioning well. The Village AIDs Coordination Committees have received of NPR 10,000.00 (Ten thousand) from Village Development Committees to sustain the process of development. People living with HIV have been well taken care due to timely and efficient support services from service providers. There has been improved health condition of People Living with HIV in the project areas.

Key Words: HIV/AIDS; sustainability; care and support; voluntary counseling and testing; prevention; mood meter mapping.

1. Introduction

The report aims to evaluate the overall impact of the HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment, and care and support services of International Nepal Fellowship (INF) Paluwa Baglung project. This report has been divided into five chapter that include introduction, approaches and methodology, findings of the project impact, lessons learnt and conclusion and recommendations.

1.1 Context

World Bank (2008) stated that the first case of AIDS (Acquired Immune-Deficiency Syndrome) in Nepal was reported in 1988. Nepal's HIV (Human Immune-deficiency Virus) epidemic is largely concentrated in MARPs (Most at-risk populations), especially female sex workers (FSW), Injecting Drug Users, transgender, and migrants. Injection drug use appears to

be extensive in Nepal and to overlap with commercial sex. Another important factor is the high number of sex workers who migrate or are trafficked to Mumbai, India, to work, thereby increasing HIV prevalence in the sex workers' network in Nepal more rapidly (http://www.worldbank.org/saraids accessed on 14/05/2012). A total of HIV infection is 19,118 (male 12,302 and female 6,816) in Nepal reported as of 15 December 2011 (http://www.ncasc.gov.np accessed on 14/05/2012). Thapa (2002) pointed out that the participatory approach and methodology is powerful tool to identify the needs and priorities of the PLHIV in order to ensure the rights for their life of dignity (Thapa, 2002:63). It could be applied in INF Paluwa Baglung project as well.

This HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment, care and support programme is based in Baglung district. INF Paluwa has been working in western development region of Nepal including Pokhara Sub-metropolis since 1999. Many clients from other districts also visit Paluwa Pokhara to access the service. About 25 per cent of clients are only from the neighbouring districts especially from Parbat and Myagdi.

The project works with most at risk population in Baglung bazaar and periphery of the district through HIV awareness and strengthening available local health services in the district, including VCT(Voluntary Counseling and Testing) and ART (Anti Retroviral Therapy) treatment services at Baglung Hospital to halt further spread of HIV infection. The project is focused in promotion of awareness level on HIV and STI (Sexually Transmitted Infection) and safer behaviour among community people especially most at risk population, hence creating demand for the services and on the other hand

supporting to health institutions to improve their management and technical capacity for the quality service. The focus of the project is to improved knowledge and safer behaviours of the community and different key health players. Supporting to the Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital addresses the lack of user-friendly testing and counselling centres in the Zonal hospital and the need for better standards of pre and post-test counselling and referral networks. A specific focus has been ensuring the availability of testing and counselling services for vulnerable and higher-risk individuals following the national guidelines.

1.2 Strategies

The project was expected to be the crucial window for prevention and for equipping the region to rise to the challenges of HIV/AIDS. The following strategies were formulated during the project design:

1. Building capacity of the district Government hospital in VCT, treatment and care services for easy excess and qualitative services.
2. Awareness raising through local community facilitator through peer education, mass media and IEC - especially among those most at risk and the activities to be done through local churches and partners.
3. Establish and maintain local level advocacy and networking to provide integrated services and create a supportive environment to increase access to these.
4. Develop a strong referral system for CD4 count, anti-retro viral treatment, prevention of mother to child transmission and other care and support services.
5. Training and basic orientation on HIV/AIDS and STIs especially for most

at risk population including PLHIV (People living with HIV) and other partners in the community to multiply HIV/AIDS efforts.

6. Organise PLHIV support groups and conduct regular meeting among them and building capacity of PLHIV.

1.3 Target Groups

The project target groups [direct beneficiaries] intended to people at risk of HIV infection and people living with HIV/ AIDS. The major target groups for Paluwa-Baglung are as follows:

Individuals with a perceived and genuine high risk of HIV-individuals who practiced risk behaviour in the past or currently, such as female sex workers and their clients, external migrants, transport worker, arm force etc.

2.   Objectives

The following objectives have been set for the evaluation of the project:

To evaluate the multi-faceted educational interventions to both HIV positive and general populations to prevent the spread of HIV/AIDS in local communities.

To assess the community groups and health facility in order to reinforce public awareness and quality of services.

3.   Approaches and Methodology

3.1 Approaches and Methodology

The participatory approaches and methodology was adopted during the evaluation work using basket of tools that include semi-structured interview, key informants interview, participants' observation, case studies, score and pairwise ranking, mood meter mapping, project document review etc. Mainly, the study has been based on primary source of information.

3.2 Project location and Timeframe

Tangram, Dhamja, Pala, Bhim Pokhara Village Development Committees of Baglung district and Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital based in Baglung Municipality, Nepal. The timeframe of the project was July 2009-June 2012.

4.   Findings of the Impact Evaluation

The impacts of the project have been map out by using different parameters which are as follows:

4.1 Effectiveness

There has been found significant achievement of the project outputs and outcomes during the project period (INF, Paluwa Project Annual Report 2011) as planned. This project seems to be relevant to prevention, treatment, care and support service of people living with HIV due to direct benefit through awareness raising, voluntary counseling test, blood test, food and accommodation support etc. The district based Paluwa project implementation team has found active and closely working with people with HIV and government line agencies particularly Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital, District Public Health Office, District Development Committee and Village Development Committees etc. The downward accountability system in terms of information sharing, feedback and participation in decision-making process was in place with satisfactory condition.

4.1.1 Score Ranking of Program Activities

The participatory score ranking tool was used by involving six respondents that include Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital (DZH), Community Facilitator (CF), Village AIDS Coordination Committee (VACC), Church, people with HIV (PLHIV), Paluwa Project staff (Paluwa) to measure the effectiveness of

key programme activities of Paluwa project in the communities (Table 1). The respondents ranked first for care and support to PLHIV, mobilization of PLHIV support group, and training to community and health workers, ranked second for food and accommodation support, ranked third for awareness raising, support to CD4 count, opportunity for infection management support and training against discrimination and social stigma and ranked fourth for radio program and voluntary counseling test (VCT) based on their direct experience and response from the community people in Baglung district.

A total of 10 seeds of maize for each activity were distributed to every respondent to judge the programme activity. It was noted that higher the score greater the performance during the score ranking by respondents.

Dr. Poudel has responded that "we have very good relation with INF Paluwa to care and support of PLHIV. They also supported for medical staff training about HIV/AIDS, CD4 count test. We have learned a lot from INF. So it needs to be continued in the years to come. A total of 187 PLHIV has been reported in Baglung district whereas 2100 PLHIV estimated in Dhaulagiri zone as a whole. INF needs to be supported to establish CD4 count machine in Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital including staff training to operate the machine. There is a need of clinical management training to paramedical staff, one volunteer in ARV treatment and lab equipments support to DZH (Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital) to equip the HIV test. It is needed to support and establishment of social service unit in DZH to strengthen care and support service" (Poudel, Tarun, superintendent of Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital, Baglung, 2012).

Table 1: Score Ranking of Key Program Activities of INF Paluwa as classified by S

Indicators	DZH	CF	VACC	Church	PL HIV	Paluwa	Total score	Average Score	Rank
Awareness raising	10	10	9	9	10	10	58	9.6	III
Voluntary Counseling Test	9	10	8	10	10	9	56	9.3	IV
Care and support to PL HIV	10	10	10	10	10	10	60	10	I
Support to CD4 count	10	10	10	8	10	10	58	9.6	III
Radio program	9	10	10	9	9	9	56	9.3	IV
Mobilization of PL HIV Support Group	10	10	10	10	10	10	60	10	I
Food and accommodation support	10	10	10	10	10	9	59	9.8	II
Opportunity infection Management support	10	10	8	10	10	10	58	9.6	III
Training to Community and Health Workers	10	10	10	10	10	10	60	10	I
Training against discrimination and Social stigma	8	10	10	10	10	10	58	9.6	III
Total	96	100	95	96	99	97	583	97	-

Source: Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital (DZH): Dr. Tarun Poudel, 55
Community facilitator (CF): Tham Kumari Shrisha, 35, Tangram -9
Dhamja Village AIDs Coordination Community (VACC): Manahari Kadel, 40, VACC Chairperson
Church AIDs Coordination Committee: Deepak Bohara, 36, (Chair person)
People living with HIV (PLHIV): Huma Garti, 31, Pandavkhani-5)
Paluwa Project Team: Yoga Maya Pun, 26, INF- Community Facilitator

4.1.2 Ranking of Program Activities by Women and Men Perspective

The representative of women and men ranked first for awareness raising among community, ranked second for awareness raising among student, ranked third for VCT test, ranked fourth for care and support to PLHIV, ranked fifth for mobilization of PLHIV support group, ranked sixth for support to CD4 count, training to community and health workers and food and accommodation support, ranked seventh for Radio programme and opportunity infection management support. A total of 10 seeds of maize for each activity were distributed to woman and man respondents to judge the program activity. It was noted that higher the score greater the performance during the score ranking by respondents (Table 2).

There has been a consistency in the program outputs, outcomes and impacts in all Village Development Committees and district level linkage and coordination with Government line agencies particularly in Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital, District Public Health Office, District Development Committee, political parties and civil society organizations. The similar approaches and field methodology has found adopted during the implementation of the project.

4.3   Impact in the Lives of People Living with HIV/AIDS

The following impacts in the lives of People Living with HIV/AIDS have found:

Increased awareness among the local people about HIV/AIDS as to project objectives in terms of prevention, treatment, care and support services to PLHIV.

The Village AIDS Coordination Committee has been formed in each four Village Development Committees and it is functioning well. The VACC has received NPR 10,000.00 (Ten thousand) from Village Development Committees to sustain the process of development.

Table 2: Listing, Scoring and Ranking of Program Activities by VACC Members

Key Activities	Women	Men	Total Score	Rank
Awareness raising among Community	10	10	20	I
Counseling and VCT test	7	3	10	III
Care and support to PLHIV	6	3	9	IV
Support to CD4 count	4	3	7	VI
Radio program	2	3	5	VII
Mobilization of PL HIV Support Group	5	3	8	V
Food and accommodation support	4	3	7	VI
Opportunity infection Management support	2	3	5	VII
Training to Community and Health Workers	3	4	7	VI
Training against Discrimination and social stigma	3	5	8	V
Awareness raising among Student	4	10	14	II

Source: Key Informant Interview, Pala VDC, Baglung, 2 May 2012

Increased functionality of Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital in terms of HIV/AIDS prevention and treatment of PLHIV.

The people's lives particularly for people with HIV have survived due to timely care and support services of INF Paluwa, Baglung project as perceived by survivors. There has been improved health condition of PLHIV in the project areas.

The capacity of People living with HIV has been increased in terms of social awareness, livelihoods improvement through income generation activities (Pig, goats, poultry production etc).

District level as well as zonal level government health personnel seems to be aware and responding positively in the issue of HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment and care and support services.

Other NGOs are working in HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment and care and support services due to demonstration effect of INF Paluwa project. The Global Fund supported HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment and care and support services in 31 VDCs of Baglung district.

4.3.1 Coping Strategies of PLHIV

The People living with HIV has double burden of poverty and suffering from HIV/AIDS. However, PLHIV have received care and support services from INF Paluwa project as a result they have been feeling comfortable. The typical coping strategies of a PLHIV have been presented below (Table 3). Generally agriculture, livestock, wage labor, jobs etc has found the source of income among the PLHIV. (Table 3).

How change happened case study of a People living with HIV presented below (Box 1).

Table 3: Coping Strategies of PLHIV for the Livelihoods

Coping Strategies	Proportion	Per cent	Remarks
Food	37	37	
Clothes	05	5	
Medicines	10	10	
Festivities	10	10	
Education for children	15	15	
Land tax	01	1	
Gifts	05	5	
Repayment of loan	05	5	
Entertainments	05	5	Cinema
Water and electricity	02	2	
Transportation and communication	05	5	Mobile phone has been widely used by PLHIV
Total	100	100	

Source: Key Informant Interview, Baglung Municipality-5, 3 May 2012

Box 1 Dan Bahadur regains his life!

I am Dan Bahadur (name changed), 35, living in Baglung district. I got HIV infection when I was in Bombay, India nine years back. I returned from India to Nepal due to sickness. I was found HIV/AIDS positive when tested. My health condition got worse due to the infection. I came to contact with INF Paluwa Baglung project staff for care and support. After the contact of Paluwa project staff, I got treatment and various support. I started to walk after two months treatment. After one year of treatment improved my health.

 I have three kids (one son and two daughters). I own 9 ropani (1 ropani = 500 sq m) of upland, one ox and one buffalo as a productive asset to run the livelihoods. It covers five months food sufficiency from my land. Recently, I am working as a Peer Educator in Community Support Group-a NGO based in Baglung district where I earn Rs 5,000 (Five thousand) per month salary that covers my family expenses to secure livelihoods. Now, I am happy with my family.

Before and Now Situation of Community about HIV/AIDS

The before and now situation mapping of community and PLHIV presented the changes happened due to intervention of HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment, care and support services project in Baglung district (Table 4). There have been visible changes observed in the community which are as follows:

Table 4: Before and Present Situation Mapping of INF Paluwa, Baglung Project

Before (July 2009)	Present (May 2012)
1. Embarrassment happened to express HIV /AIDS among the community.	1. Reduced embarrassment to discuss about the HIV/AIDS among the community members.
2. Kept away from the house to People Living with HIV	2. Now people has been aware to prevention, treatment and care and support of PLHIV
3. Lack of awareness about HIV/AIDS among the local community.	3. Now village women and men have the enough awareness about the HIV/AIDS through Local Community Facilitators (LCF).
4. There was social discrimination and social stigma among the local community about People Living with HIV.	4. Now people living with HIV are openly staying in the society and there has been slowly reduced social discrimination and stigma.
5. No access to services for care and support of people living with HIV	5. Now people living with HIV have access to care and support with the help of INF Paluwa in the Village Development Committee.
6. There was no Village AIDS Coordination Committee in the Village Development Committee	6. Now Village AIDS Coordination Committee has been formed and working in favor of PLHIV. Rs 10000.00 (Ten thousand) amount has been allocated by each VDC to support VACC activities
7. No access to ARV treatment for people living with HIV	7. Now there is access to free ARV treatment to people living with HIV in the support of INF Paluwa with love and affection.

Source: Focus Group Discussion, Dhamja, 2 May 2012

4.3.3 Perception Mapping of Community towards INF Paluwa Baglung Project

The respondents have scored 155 (91.17 %) and 15 (8.82 %) vote for the very good and good performance respectively of the INF Paluwa project. The majority of the people have been found very happy with this project due to comprehensive programme, timely care and support to the PLHIV, awareness rising about HIV/AIDS among the local people, committed staff members and good linkage and coordination with government line agencies and civil society organizations. The mood meter mapping tool was used to map out the perceptions towards happiness of the people (Table 5). A total of 10 seeds of maize were given to every individual in order to cast the vote towards the performance of the project.

Table 5: Mood Meter of the Paluwa Baglung Project

Mood Meter	Frequency	Per cent
Very Good (Very Happy)	155	91.17
Good (Happy)	15	8.82
Poor (Unhappy)	00	00
Total	170	100

Source: Local Community Members, Pala VDC, 2 May 2012

4.4 Sustainability of the Project

The sustainability is the continuation of the process of development intervention to make a difference in the lives of men and women. There has been formed Village AIDS Coordination Committees (VACC) in each Village Development Committees of the project which seems to be good start-up towards the sustainability of the project. Each Village Development Committee have allocated of Rs 10,000 (Ten thousand) for the functioning of the VACC in the years to come. They regularly conduct the meeting quarterly and prepared annual plan of action to prevention, treatment, care and support of PLHIV in Baglung district.

There has been good linkage and coordination with District Public Health Office, Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital, District Development Committee, Village Development Committee and civil society organizations in the district. The district level government health institutions seem to be working well to provide support to PLHIV.

There has been found micro-macro-micro linkage between VACC, District AIDS Coordination Committee and National Center for AIDS and STD Control (NCASC) to address the issues related to HIV/AIDS.

There has been found increased awareness level about HIV/AIDS among the local people, school teachers, student, Health Post staff and grass root organizations to some extent that leads to sustainability of the project in the days to come. However, it would be too early to rate the sustainability of the project at the moment due to only three years of pilot project in the areas.

How change happened case study on VACC has been presented below (Box 2):

Box 2   A Village AIDS Coordination Committee towards Sustainability!

The Village AIDS Coordination Committee (VACC) Tangram has been formed in November 2011 where a total of 17 members organized (women 7 and man 10) in the leadership of Ms Nar Maya Thapa, 33. It has set the following objectives:

To increase awareness about HIV among the local people

To prevent and control of HIV through promotion of contraceptives

 To sustain the HIV/AIDS program after the phase out of INF Paluwa project.

It organizes the quarterly meeting with its members. It has prepared the annual plan of action that includes wall painting, awareness raising, care and support to PLHIV etc. It received Rs 10,000 (Ten thousand) from Village Development Committee for execution of the annual plan. It is believed that VACC will act as a local institution to carry out the HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment, and care and support services for the local people according to VACC secretary Mr. Kamal Pun, 29. He has said that counseling, use of condoms among the local women and men and awareness raising are the best program activities for the prevention of HIV/AIDS.

According to Mr. Pun there is a need of financial support and training to executive committee members on HIV/AIDS and leadership management to increase the capacity in the days to come.

4.5 Efficiency

 A total of five full time staff members, twelve local community facilitators have been working in the INF Paluwa project. They have received training on HIV/AIDS prevention, counseling, care and support, social mobilization and linkage and coordination. The program management seems to be efficient to utilize the financial resources and social mobilization aspects as well.

The Pairwise ranking of NGOs working with PLHIV in Baglung district was carried out to find out the performance of the organizations. The respondents ranked first for the INF Paluwa project out of four NGO working in the district because comprehensive support services, timely response, committed staff, active participation of local people, having good Local Community Facilitators in the Village Development Committee etc (Table 6).

Table 6: Pairwise Ranking of NGOs working with PLHIV in Baglung District

Organizations	CSG	AMK	DPG	INF Paluwa	Score	Rank
Community Support Group	X	CSG	CSG	INF Paluwa	2	II
Aama Milan Kendra	X	X	DPG	INF Paluwa	0	IV
Dhaulagiri Positive Group	X	X	X	INF Paluwa	1	III
INF Paluwa	X	X	X	X	3	I

Source: Jamuna Thapa, 26, Pala-5 (Currently working in Community Support Group-a NGO), 3 May 2012

4.6 Management and Capacity

This has found well managed project because of good linkage and coordination with government line agencies especially District Public Health Office, Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital, Regional Hospital Pokhara and micro-macro linkage between VACC, DACC and NCASC. There has found smooth running of financial transaction in the field. An Admin Assistant has been handled the petty cash in Paluwa Baglung Field Office and submitted the periodic financial statement to INF Central Office Pokhara.

 "This program has been running well to provide counseling service, prevention of HIV/AIDS, HIV test and empowerment of local community etc. This project have provisioned of three woman Local Community Facilitators per VDC to increase awareness as a result access to communication service have increased at the local level. The INF Paluwa project team has found capable, active and cooperative for the care and support of PLHIV" says Thapa, Pahal Man, 31 Tangram VDC Secretary, Baglung.

"Local people have aware about the prevention of sexually transmitted diseases and many sisters and brothers have received training on HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment and care and support services. They have received free of counseling services and treatment facilities from INF Paluwa" says Pun, Yam Kumari, Tangram VACC member April 2012.

Ms. Kadel has stated that "I went to INF Paluwa Project Office Baglung two times for the treatment of sexually transmitted disease. I fully cured after the treatment. Now I am very happy" Kadel, Laxmi, April 2012.

4.7 Future Directions

 Being impressive project performance, it needs to be continued in the years to come as demanded by local communities, government line agencies, Village Development Committees etc. According to the Table 7 the local community demanded to start new program activities like wall painting, street drama, income generation activities, establish CD4 count machine in Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital etc. They demanded all existing program activities to be continued in the future as well. This project seems to be able to replicate in other parts of the country and scaling-up in the Baglung district in terms of approaches and delivery of program activities (Table 7).

5. Lessons Learnt

The following lessons learnt have been drawn from the evaluation:

5.1 It has been found that there are good support services from the Government of Nepal, Ministry of Health and Population, Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital, District Public Health Office, District Development Committee etc to the INF Paluwa project. They extended good cooperation and support services as a result HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment and care and support services has found good performance.

5.2 Village AIDS Coordination Committee formation seems to be unique mechanism towards the sustainability of the HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment, care and support service at the community level. It has become the window of opportunity for the phase over of the Paluwa project. It has been realized that the VACC need to be formed from the very beginning of the project in order to institutionalize the project activities at the grass root level.

5.3 Lack of male Local Community Facilitators has found a gap of the

Table 7: Future Direction of Paluwa Project as Perceived by Community People

Key Community Activities	Objectives	What should be starting doing?	What should be Continue doing?	What should be stopping doing?
Awareness Raising 1.1 Mobilization of LCF Basic Orientation Radio program Street Drama Hording board Wall painting 1.7 Awareness among Student	Prevent HIV/AIDS	Wall Painting and Street drama	All existing program activities need to be continued	Nothing
Care and Support 2.1 Income Generation 2.2 Treatment 2.3 Access to services 2.4 Food and Accommodation Support	To improve quality of life	Income Generation Activities	Same as Above	Nothing
Coordination & Dissemination 3.1 Regular meeting with VACC 3.2 Coordination with Govt Line Agencies 3.3 Blood Test 3.4 Testing of CD4 count 3.5 Exchange Visit 3.6 Research and Study	Prevent HIV/AIDS and improve quality of life among PLHIV	Establish CD4 Count Machine in Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital		Nothing

Source: Focus Group Discussion, Tangram VDC, 30 April 2012

project. It could be better if the provision of at least one male LCF per Village Development Committee to reach the effective HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment, care and support services. Generally male client do not openly express their problems with female LCF due to social stigma and gender inequality prevailing in the traditional Nepali society.

5.4 It would be better to provide certain matching fund from INF Paluwa for smooth running of VACC in order to HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment, care and support services among PLHIV. The Village Development Committee owned local community development fund could be diverted in this purpose.

5.5 The micro-macro-micro linkages seems to be important to influence policy and practices in HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment, and care and support services of PLHIV and awareness rising among the local people.

5.6 Documentation of best practices needs to be done for the institutional memory and scaling-up of the program in other parts of the country.

5.7 It had to be better if participatory baseline study carried out before the implementation of the HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment, and care and support project in order to clearly measure the real project impact in the lives of vulnerable people like PLHIV in the areas.

5.8 The periodic field monitoring has found effective in order to tracking the progress of the project. It needs

to be produced the standard field monitoring report for sharing within the organization.

5.9 There has found gap of income generation activities to address the secure livelihoods of the PLHIV. A few PLHIV have received some sort of livelihood support as goat, piggery and poultry rearing enterprises that seems to be praiseworthy for them to make a difference in the lives of PLHIV.

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

6.1 Conclusion

The HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment and care and support services Paluwa, Baglung project is successful to achieve the stated goal and objectives. It contributed a lot to make a difference in the life of People living with HIV at the local, district and even at the national level. It provided services for people affected by HIV/AIDS, including voluntary counseling and testing, sexually transmitted infection, awareness raising among local communities, village institutions like Village Development Committees, leaders of political parties, community forestry user groups, cooperatives, Government Health Posts, ARV treatment, food and accommodation support etc. Paluwa supported the Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital by providing training to the medical staff, volunteers, equipments, VCT services and technical backstopping in terms of reporting etc. It has developed good linkage and coordination with District Public Health Office, District Development Committee, Village Development Committees, Health Posts and NGOs to deliver the program activities in the project sites and neighboring district like Myagdi and Parbat.

Paluwa, Baglung project has formed the Village AIDS Coordination Committee in each VDC to create a receiving mechanism at the local level that is supported by Village Development Committees, Health Posts etc. The VACC received NPR 10,000.00 (Ten thousand) this year from Village Development Committee to implement HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment and care and support services. This is the positive aspect of sustainability in the future. Communities have shown real ownership towards smooth running of VACC. This is unique, dynamic and doable social structure to carry out the function related to HIV/AIDS prevention, voluntary counseling and testing and care and support services at the community level.

This project is impressive at the local and district level in terms of delivery of services, quality work, committed staff members and good linkage and coordination with government line agencies and civil society organizations. It has missed the livelihoods component in the project to support the PLHIV towards economic development. Similarly, there is the gap of male local community facilitators in the Village Development Committee to address the concerned of male clients. However, this is replicable and scaling-up in other parts of the country. It should be continued in the years to come in wider geographical locations. The evaluation has contributed to increase the capacity of INF staff members and empowerment of the communities being use of participatory learning and action approaches and methods during the whole process as opposed to classical way of project evaluation.

6.2 Recommendations

The following recommendations have been put forward:

- The INF Paluwa project should be continued in the years to come with scaling-up of the project in other Village Development Committees of Baglung and neighboring district like Myagdi and Parbat as well.
- The secure livelihoods component i.e.

income generation activities should be added in the HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment and care and support services project for the economic development of the PLHIV.

- At least one male Local Community Facilitator should be appointed in each Village Development Committee to address the real needs and priorities of male clients in addition to women Local Community Facilitators.

- The exit strategies should be formulated from the very beginning of the project design by considering the sustainability of the project. The Village AIDS Coordination Committee needs to be formed at the initial stage of project. The matching fund needs to be developed for the smooth running of VACC. The leadership management training, HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment and care and support services, booking keeping training should be provided to the VACC members to strengthen their capacity.

- Documentation of best practices should be done for the institutional memory and scaling-up of the project in other parts of the country. It should be published and disseminated for wider audience in order to influence policy and practices.

- Participatory baseline study should be carried out from the very beginning of the project implementation in order to measure the real impact of the project in the life of vulnerable people and PLHIV.

- Periodic systematic field monitoring should be organized and produce the standard report for sharing within the organization. The participatory monitoring & evaluation framework should be formulated and trained the staff to strengthen their capacity to capture the information on HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment, and care and support services.

- There is a need to support to establish CD4 count machine in Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital and concerned staff members should be trained to operate the machine properly. Similarly, additional lab equipments and one volunteer in ARV treatment should be supported for the Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital. The clinical management training on HIV/AIDS should be provided to paramedical staff based in Dhaulagiri Zonal Hospital to strengthen their capacity.

- Micro-macro-micro linkage mechanism should be developed to influence the policies and practices on HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment, care and support services at the local, district and national level.

References

International Nepal Fellowship. (2011). *Annual Report (2011)*. Pokhara: INF, Country Office.

Laws, Sophie and et.al. (2003). *Research for Development, A Practical Guide, Save the Children.* New Delhi: VISTAR Publications.

Thapa, Narbikram. (2002). *Sociology of People with HIV/AIDS in Nepal*. Kathmandu: Action Aid Nepal, Country Office, Lazimpat.

-----------. (2005). *Participatory, Monitoring, Reporting and Evaluation: Measuring the Qualitative Social Change*. Kathmandu: Sudeepa Publications.

The World Bank. (2008). *HIV/AIDS in Nepal*. Washington DC: World Bank. http://www.worldbank.org/saraids accessed on 14/05/2012.

http://www.ncasc.gov.np accessed on 14/05/2012.

takeholders

The author has past experience in development field and currently working as a freelancer.
Email: nbthapa2012@gmail.com

Assessment of Knowledge, Beliefs and Attitudes towards Healthy Diet among Mothers in Kaski, Nepal

- JIB ACHARYA, PROF. EDWIN VAN TEIJLINGEN, JANE MURPHY, PhD, & MARIN HIND, PhD

Abstract

The study aims to assess the knowledge, attitudes and beliefs about nutritious food mothers in Kaski district in Nepal whose children are aged 3 to 5. A cross-sectional and community-based survey method was used during the study. Both urban and rural mothers lacked knowledge of what food is nutritious or not whilst their attitudes and views appear ill informed. Mothers from both rural and urban communities have high faith in traditional healers. Thus this study suggests that a different approach was needed because the public health problems are associated with behaviour. Thus, special attention should be paid on appropriate intervention of under-nutrition in poor communities like this.

Key Words: Healthy diet; knowledge; attitudes; childhood; under-nutrition; stunting.

1. Introduction

Under-nutrition at an early age leads to a drop in mental and physical growth during childhood; it disturbs school performance and leads to lower income in later life. Nepal has some of the highest under-nutrition rates in the world with 11 per cent of under-fives wasted, 29 per cent underweight and 41 per cent stunted. The more remote hill and mountain regions have a very high prevalence of stunting which is above 60 per cent (NDHS, 2011).

GDP (gross domestic product) per person in Nepal (US$1,049 P/A) is very low, i.e. less than US$3 per person per day (World Bank, 2013). Farm production does not keep up with population growth as 33 districts out of 75 have food deficits; hence 4.5 million Nepalese are undernourished. The WFP (World Food Programme) stated that most of the households living below the poverty line, have squeezed the amount of meal and stay without food during farm lean times (Fisher and Slaney 2013), hence nearly 70 per cent of children are poorly fed. Thus the children have physical and mental stunting and remain unhealthy

for life with lowered productivity (WFP 2013; Murphy and Girot 2013). Much of the problem of deaths of children resulting from under-nutrition, estimated to be over half of childhood deaths in low-income countries, can be attributed to just mild and moderate under-nutrition, varying from 45 per cent for deaths due to measles to 61 per cent for deaths due to diarrhoea [de Onis, 2004). Most studies on child nutritional status have focused on prevalence of under-nutrition among under-five children and socio-economic, demographic and cultural factors associated with child under-nutrition in Nepal (Reed, 1996).

Global scenario of poor nutrition and underlying cause

Malnutrition refers to deficiencies of micronutrients, under-nutrition, and obesity. This paper focuses particularly on under-nutrition. Malnutrition remains one of the most common causes of morbidity and mortality among children under five children throughout the World (UNICEF, 2005). Internationally, more than 10 million children under five die every year from avoidable illnesses despite effective health interventions and half of the deaths are due to malnutrition. Generally malnourished children are more vulnerable with weak health (Caulfield, 2004). Under-nutrition is very high in South Asia even compared to Africa (de Onis, 2000).

Between 1990 and 2006 child stunting in Southeast Asia has dropped from 52 per cent to 42 per cent. One study in Bangladesh found high prevalence rate of underweight (40%) and stunting (42%) in children under five (Siddiqui, 2011). Research in Mongolia and Dhankuta of Nepal also found high prevalence rates of under-nutrition which were 15.6 per

cent stunting, 1.7 per cent wasting and 4.7 per cent underweight and 27 per cent stunting, 37 per cent wasting and 11 per cent underweight respectively (Otgonjargal,2012; Sapkota,2009).

In the developing world, the major factors of under-nutrition are multifaceted and interlinked and include: low diet and infections, access to health facilities, food security, sanitation and healthy environment and child feeding/caring practices (Acharya et al.2015) which are influenced by family socio-economic circumstances (Müller, 2005). According to a study in Bangladesh the BMI (Body Mass Index) of mothers, pre and postnatal visits, age of mothers, education of parents and family economic status are all major factors of under-five child malnutrition (Siddiqi 2011; Murphy 2011). No link was found with social class and source of drinking water (Sapkota 2009). A study conducted in Dhankuta, explored that low socio-economic status of households were high risk determinants for underweight and stunting, on the other hand, children from educated and joint households were found less likely to be stunted than those in nuclear households. It has seen that caste or ethnic group and mother's age at child gestation have an important link with stunting but it was not linked with the education level of mothers (Sapkota, 2009).

In regards to association with socio-economic status and malnutrition, a study conducted in rural area of Gumbrit had found that household income was strongly associated with malnutrition (Edris 2006). Under-nutrition is strongly associated with social class, as well as ecological and economical determinants which differ from nation to nation (Ellahi 2014).

The significant linked determinants of poor nutrition comprises of household income, level of education, parents status in terms of nutrition, access to safe drinking water, sanitation, primary health care facility access as well as child's age and gender (Vijayaraghaven et al. 1990). These contributing factors of under-nutrition may vary between communities, regions and countries over time. Presented literature showed that factors such as child caring, knowledge of health practice, parent's education level, age of child, birth weight of children, lack of decision making mainly on spending of money, and lack of cattle effect on family and community strongly affects the level which the child develops (Zewdu, 2012;Murphy 2011).

Regional assessment of United Nation's Standing Committee on Nutrition revealed that condition of stunting (32%) and underweight (40%) in Nepal which exceeded the average prevalence rate in South Central Asia (UN/SCN, 2010). NHDS (2011) report showed progress on child nutritional status with underweight reduced to 29 per cent and stunting to 41 per cent (NDHS, 2011). In Nepal maternal under-nutrition is also a major alarm. According to NDHS (2011) that one-fifth of women ages 15 -49 are underweight (less than 18.5 BMI). However, this also has been progressing to a lesser degree. Similarly, NHDS 2011 reported that prevalence rates of anaemia in children (46%) and women (35%) are a major health problem in Nepal. However, child and maternal under-nutrition is a serious concern that urgently requires targeted, effective interventions to tackle these issues (Acharya 2015).

Scenario of nutritional problems in South Asia and Nepal

Stunting still remains a main challenge in South Asia. This region accounts about 40 per cent of the global burden of child stunting in the world (WHO, 2014). The stunting prevalence of under five years aged children in South Asia has reduced from nearly 61 per cent to 38 per cent between 1990 and 2012 (UNICEF, 2014).

The Nepal Demographic and Health Survey in 2011 showed that prevalence of under-nutrition was 11 per cent wasting, 41 per cent stunting and 29 per cent underweight with some but not much improvement between 2006 and 2011. Similarly, the women aged between 15-49 years have a fairly high prevalence of anaemia (35%), and more in rural (36%) than in urban (28%) areas of the country. Rural women (36%) are more affected which compare to national level (35%) in prevalence of anaemia. Rural prevalence is equal to urban which indicates that public health intervention on nutrition must focus in both parts of the country (NDHS, 2011).

2. Objectives

The study aims to address two aims: first to assess the level of knowledge, attitudes and beliefs about food recommendation for preschool aged children amongst rural/urban mothers; and secondly, establish major barriers amongst mothers to feeding their offspring healthy food.

3. Methodology

A cross-sectional, community-based survey of 524 mothers in *Kaski* district of Nepal among children aged 36-60 months who were no longer breastfed

at the time. The questionnaire included: socio-demographic measurements, knowledge, beliefs and attitudes about nutritious food, as well as child feeding patterns, food recommendation, major barriers, food insecurity and health-seeking behaviours. Data were added to a computer data base and analysed using SPSS.

Study Location: Pokhara Sub-Metropolitan City, ward no.1, 6, 8, 15 and 17, Lekhnath Municipality, ward no. 2, 8, 14, 15, and 16 of *Kaski* district, Nepal. The study received ethical approval from the Nepal Health Research Council & Bournemouth University.

4. Findings of the Study

- Ethnicity and Caste

  Graph 1 explains the quantitative information about caste or ethnicity of the mothers who represented in the study. The study shows 31% mothers belong to high caste *Brahman* and *Janajati* and only 24% mothers were belong to Dalits and *Madhesi* communities.
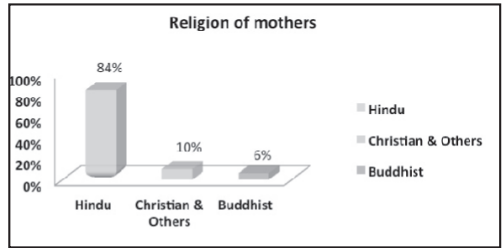
Graph 1.
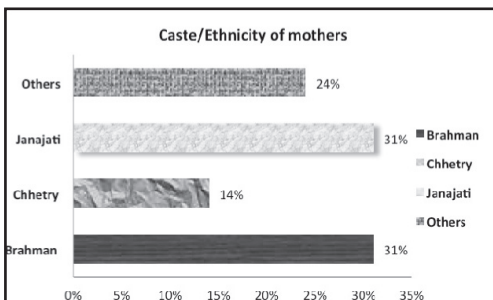
- Religion of the Mothers

The study reveals that most of the mothers were Hindu (84%) and 6% mothers was Buddhist, 11% were Christians & others including Muslim (Graph 2).
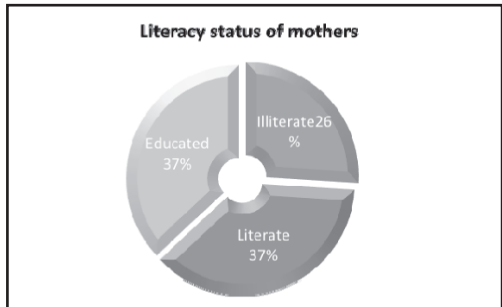
Graph 2.

- **Literacy Status**

  According to study around 26 per cent participants have found illiterate whereas 74 per cent participants found literate and educated in the study area (Graph 3).

Graph 3.

- Major barriers to recommending nutritious foods included: lack of knowledge (19%); high market prices (21%); and cultural influences or beliefs (7%).

- Around 55 per cent children were providing fruits once in week. Similarly 29 per cent of families never given fruits and 19 per cent tiff in with salad to their children.

- Around 19 per cent of mothers could not choose nutritious food from the grocery store.

- About 12 per cent respondents have lacked food, 68 per cent lacked the food in June July & August, 13 per

cent in December, January & February and 9 per cent in March, April & May respectively.

- Nearly 57 per cent children had been taken at least once to a faith healer and 16 per cent on multiple occasions for the treatment.

- About 20 per cent of mother believed that eating green leafy vegetables and fruits during illness affect child health negatively.

- Nearly 8 per cent respondent feed dairy product and meat items at a same time to their children whereas 92 per cent did not practice.

- Almost 19 per cent mothers of the community believed that feeding of green leafy vegetables and fruits during the illness period caused harm to child and only 10 per cent mothers had no knowledge about it.

- Around 11 per cent children have fed one-two times, and 79 per cent fed three - four times a day respectively whereas nearly ten percent child fed nothing in last 24 hours.

- The study revealed that 65 per cent mothers, 6 per cent father, 14 per cent grandparents and 16 per cent others were responsible to taking care of children respectively.

- The study have found that 66 per cent mothers, 5 per cent fathers, 18 per cent grandparents and 11 per cent others were responsible to feed their children.

Nepal has diverse scenario which makes various socio-cultural aspects such as culture, religion, caste /ethnicity, and language (Bhattachan, 2009). The majority of the people are Hindu (NDHS, 2011). The official language is Nepali but there are more than 92 different languages spoken across the country. There are more than 103 different castes/ethnic groups all over the country (WHO Country Cooperation Strategy 2006 -2011). There is a strongly embedded caste system which describes the social stratification by ethnicity. Even though it is officially banned, there are social differences related to caste and ethnicity (Bennett 2005).

This study has found that nearly 42 per cent mothers have no or poor knowledge on sign and symptoms of under-nutrition. Most of them reported that they are unaware (Murphy, 2011) that the children presenting the following signs and symptoms are correlated with under-nutrition: crying, irritating, quarrelling, not sleeping, diarrhoea & vomiting, low weight, lean and thin, short in height and slow in growth, poor appetite, looking as ill health, and rough or dry skin.

The lack of knowledge on wellbeing and health safety along with nutritious food and health services uptake in Nepal include traditional supporters and their status in the society (Acharya et al., 2014). The misbelieves are strongly embedded in the poor and underserved community as well as in some part of urban area because of migration due to decade long conflict in the country. The Spiritual and Traditional supporters or advocators usually are Hindu, as the proportion is 87 per cent of the population (Tamang and Broom, 2010). In rural part of Nepal, many traditional beliefs still exist, for example, leprosy is believed to be caused by sin in one's past life or

to be a curse from God (Acharya, 2012). The poor community strongly trusts traditional healers and however they have first choice is spiritual/traditional healers in case of minor health issues. The priest, illiterate household, traditional healer and elderly relatives still have high levels of trust which is still influencing by them in the society (Acharya, 2012).

Almost the whole of the Nepali society is using the traditional medicine as the first step of health care and they go to traditional or spiritual healers with any health problems (Tamang and Broom, 2010). One key problem is the poor decision making by family members in urban or rural areas due to the lack of recognition of complications of any ailments (Moestue, 2008). However, there is a lack of knowledge (Murphy, 2011) on health care issues in Nepalese society.

The study revealed that majority of respondents (57%) had more than six members living together. Similarly, 35 per cent had less than six and nearly 8 per cent households living with less than four family members. As the context of Nepalese society, mainly in Hindu culture, the family structure is called extended family, that consisted of the immediate family, which involves grandparents as well as close relatives such as aunts, uncles and cousins who all live together in the same dwelling. This family structure might change from immediate to extended household (Andersen, 2007). Big family size leads to poor nutrition status of children. The children from poor and disadvantaged group (Thomas et al.2011) are more vulnerable of poor nutrition. This might

be difference due to study period, health service delivery, locality of the study, socio-economic characteristics, occupation and age. Most of the children are taken into work in places such as farming fields, construction sites, and factories by their parents if there is no-one available to look after them at home.

Mainly the level of knowledge on nutritious food and poverty are the major barriers seen in the field of nutrition that are associated with food security, food prices, and income trends of households (Acharya 1981). Poverty, caste, gender and social inequalities and conflict are regarded as secondary barriers for the nutritional problems in Nepal (Bishwakarma 2008, 2009; Adhikari, 2010). The ten-year conflict in Nepal has increasingly centralised systems, disrupted the development of rural areas and badly affected health services (Devkota & van Teijlingen, 2010). Although the risks involved in lack of transport, high service cost, long distances, full trust on traditional healers because they are easily available and affordable for poor people, insufficient health resources, and lack of capacity to treat serious problems at the nearby primary health care service centres (Adhikari, 2010). At the same time, the country is on the way to accomplish the MDGs 4 and 5 targets (DFID, 2009).

The ethnic or traditional beliefs concerning to contamination of food and social values and norms in which rural women are not preferred because of their low rank have negative significances on the foods of women particularly by reducing their intake of desired, rich of micronutrient food such as meat items,

dairy products and vegetables (Gittelsohn et al.,1997). This type of traditional beliefs and manners could have a mostly negative influence on pregnant women given the intensified functional needs for various micronutrients. Thus, ethnic beliefs and practices that impact women's nutritional eating during pregnancy have significant insinuations for both micronutrients and macronutrient lacks among pregnant women in Nepal.

Beliefs about the 'hot or cold' quality of food and their effects, on the health of human, are likewise widespread in the world, and have a strong impact on eating manners during illness, pregnancy, and lactation and (Ferro-Luzzi, 1980). Most of the South Asian region, these body states are supposed to be principally sensitive to the hot or cold merits of food and depending on an individual's physical state, hot or cold foods are believed to have either a negative or positive effect on the human body (Bryant et al., 2003)

Often, it has been recommended that the sense of women is in fact having a big baby will result in increased labour risk, among women with short build in the context of south Asian region (Rush, 2000).

In various countries across the globe, pregnant women have been observed to reduce food intake during pregnancy, a behaviour generally referred to in the literature as poor eating behaviour (eating down) (Karim et al., 2003). It is reported that the causes of poor eating behaviours in South Asian contexts, where the behaviour is hypothetically general, were connected to fears that having a large baby could lead to more difficult deliveries. Nichter (1983) revealed beliefs about food intake behaviour of pregnant women in India where food taken by pregnant women fills up the stomach space available for the foetus, therefore women often eat less in order to the foetus to thrive in the limited shared space.

The food beliefs in South Asia relate to *Ayurvedic* medicine and religion (Hill 1990; Nagpal, 2003). According to food beliefs of *Ayurveda*, wherein whole foods have been classified into hot and cold, is profoundly embedded in the epistemological grounds of many cultures and can provide a theoretical framework for expressing the complex links between diet and health (Beardsworth, 1997). These hot and cold beliefs are held by many people in South Asia (Subedi, 2010). This perception is believed to come from Hindu or *Ayurvedic* ideals and has been influential in medical practices (Nagpal, 2003). This belief system is complex and does not reflect that ideal by dominant Western scientific medicine which generally prescribes to evidence based medicine and classifies food into groups representing the main micronutrient composition such as protein, fat, alcohol and carbohydrate (Nichter, 1989). Adherence to these beliefs also tends to be stronger in the rural community of Nepal and among the disadvantaged and illiterate (Fieldhouse, 1995). During these days, food beliefs regarding hot and cold is vary between locality and ethnic groups as well as regions and countries. In general use of the hot and cold food categorise scheme avoid in the locality, through like general the use of the hot and cold food categorise scheme avoid in the community, though

likely to differ between persons due to variances in understanding and economic capitals, may mean that conventional nutritional counselling is ineffective among those who follow this beliefs and reject scientific values, at least those in relation to food choice (Fieldhouse 1995; Singh, 1991). The rejection of recommendations therefore, may not be due to persons not wanting to make changes but somewhat the recommendations not being compatible with their beliefs so health workers would not to know lay ideologies and adapt their techniques accordingly (Fieldhouse, 1995).

Beliefs about Breastfeeding and colostrums

It has been observed that some women of the Nepalese communities, mainly from the rural locality and non-educated background, do not breastfeed on the day of child birth and even second day which is common in South Asia (Darmstadt, 2006). They stimulate their breasts and squeeze out the colostrums (Bandyopadhyay, 2009). In terms of breastfeeding rates, it is high in Nepal if it compared with England rates at six months and six weeks.

This study found that nearly 20 per cent of the mothers explored negative perceptions such as becoming weak, breast shrinkage and even breast cancer development, all in regards to regular and excessive breastfeeding to children. Similarly, 16 per cent mothers had negative perceptions about feeding of colostrums such it form pus, dirty materials and bad smells, do not feed without squeezing. At the same time 71 per cent had positive perceptions about

the feeding to colostrums such as it is good for child health, pious, and highly nutritious substance and compulsorily feed to new born (Acharya et al., 2014).

A key indicator of chronic under-nutrition is stunting - when children are too short for their age group compared to the WHO growth standards. About 178 million children globally are stunted, resulting from not enough food, a vitamin and mineral-poor diet, and disease. As growth slows down, brain development lags and stunted children learn poorly (Sapkota, 2009). Stunting rates among children are highest in Africa and Asia. In south-central Asia 41 per cent has affected.

Good nutrition during pregnancy ensures a healthier baby. WHO recommends exclusive breastfeeding for six months, introducing age-appropriate and safe complementary foods at six months, and continuing breastfeeding for up to two years or beyond (Riordan and Hoover 2005).

In regards to observation of construction materials for the building of residents, this compulsorily observed during the interview within the urban or rural area. In regards to use of construction materials of the houses, sources of safe drinking water and use of cooking fuels, sanitation, drinking water purification, ownership of land, family size, income of the household were measured as a compilation indicator of household prosperity and assets (Rutstein and Johnson, 2004). However, in Nepal poverty, education, sanitation and safe drinking water are associated with child under-nutrition. Educational status is included as a separate variable in analyses since it is not a component of

the wealth index. The population wealth quintiles and education offer a measure of socioeconomic status.

There are several impacts of food selections with age, gender, and social class along with ethnicity, attitudes, culture, and composition of household and deeply rooted beliefs mainly in Nepal including South Asian Region (Ellahi, 2014). In terms of inequalities, the people that belong to educated and advanced socio-economic groups tend to have good diet. This may be due to be better capable in conceptualizing the association between health and nutrition (Cox & Anderson, 2004) but the reality that the group with higher incomes are able to pay for nutritionally balanced and high quality foods (Cox & Anderson, 2004). Nutritious foods such as meat items, dairy products, fruits and green vegetables often cost more than low quality or cheap foods. The cheap or low quality foods can be lower in important nutrients (James et al., 1997). Poor income groups may also be limited in their capacity to purchase nutritious diets due insufficient access, physically and micro-financial subjects which effect in only the necessary basics purchased and the related social variables such as religion that has one of the most powerful roles in the selections and following selection of diets (Dindyal, 2004).

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

Knowledge and attitudes towards nutritious food of rural and urban mothers are still poor. Beliefs about food practices are still strongly embedded as they are elsewhere in Nepal. Urban mothers had better food recommendation, whereas rural mothers experienced huge barriers. Meat, fish, eggs and dairy products are often not provided to children due to cultural influences. Mothers from both communities have high faith in spiritual healers. Child feeding practices in the community is very poor compared to developed countries. Approximately one-fifth mothers still believed that feeding of nutritious foods during the illness period caused harm. The research found strong hold on the beliefs about healthy foods within the community such as impure and pure, cold, hot and neutral, harmful, beneficial or curative. Following beliefs is strongly embedded in the society that, 'if a pregnant woman eats more she will have bigger baby which can cause problem during labour'. Therefore; pregnant woman are not allowed to take nutritious food in the rural part of Nepal. This study would endorse community based nutrition programme should be established and integrated with public health network at community level. Nutrition education programmes should be provided, using various methods by mobilising local level stakeholders, focusing on knowledge, attitudes and beliefs about nutritious food to community people targeting to poor, disadvantaged and vulnerable communities which indicated in this study mainly poor knowledge, enrooted traditional beliefs and inappropriate attitudes of parents about nutritious food.

Acknowledgements

References

Acharya et al. (2015). *Maternal nutritional status, food intake and pregnancy weight gain in Nepal.*

Acharya et al. (2014). *A comparative study of nutritional problems in preschool aged children in Nepal. International Journal of Community Nutrition, Vol.0, (Supl). P. 136.*

Acharya, JR. (2012). *The Barriers to uptake of eye care services for leprosy patients in Nepal. An article published in Participation (National Journal), A Nepalese Journal of Participatory Development, 59-69. Available at: www.nepan.org.np/gallery/publication/PARTICIPATION-13.pdf accessed on Jan. 2015.*

Acharya, M. and Bennett, L.1981.*The rural women of Nepal: An aggregate analysis and summary of 8 village studies, Kathmandu: Centre for Economic Development and Administration, Tribhuvan University.*

Adhikari, J. (2010). *Food insecurity, conflict and threats in Nepal in Livelihood Insecurity and Social Conflict in Nepal (eds. Upreti, BR and MÛller-BÔker,U). South Asia Regional Coordination Office; Swiss National Centre of Competence in Research North-South; Kathmandu.*

Andersen, ML., and Taylor, HF.(2007). *The extended family may live together for many reasons, such as to help raise children, support for an ill relative, or help with financial problems. Sociology: Understanding a diverse society. p. 396 ISBN 0-495-00742-0.*

Bandyopadhyay, M. (2009). *Impact of ritual pollution on lactation and breastfeeding practices in rural West Bengal, India. International Breastfeeding Journal 4, 2. <http://www. internationalbreastfeedingjournal.com/content/4/1/2 (accessed Dec.14, 2014).*

Beardsworth, A. and Keil, T. (1997). *Sociology on the menu: an invitation to the study of food and society Routledge, London.*

Bennett, L. (2005).*Gender, Caste, and Ethnic Exclusion in Nepal: Following the Policy Process from Analysis to Action. Paper presented at the Conference New Frontiers of Social Policy: Development in a Globalizing World, Arusha, Tanzania.*

Bishwakarma, R. (2009). *Social Inequalities in Child Nutrition in Nepal. Washington D.C: Word Bank Internship Project Paper.*

Bishwakarma, R., and Vanneman, R. (2008). *Caste, Gender, and Location effect on Child Stunting in Nepal. Paper published in American Sociological Association Meetings, Boston. October 2008.*

Bhattachan, et al. (2009). *Caste-based Discrimination in Nepal. Working Paper Series. (3). New Delhi: Indian Institute of Dalit Studies.*

Bryant et al. (2003).*The Cultural Feast: An Introduction to Food and Society, 2nd Ed. Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth.*

Caulfield et al. (2004). *Under-nutrition as an underlying cause of child deaths associated with diarrhoea, pneumonia, malaria, and measles. Am J Clin Nutr 80: 193-198.*

Cox, DN. & Anderson, AS. (2004). *"Food Choice," in Public Health Nutrition, Gibney MJ et al., eds., Blackwell Science, Oxford, pp. 146-166.*

Christakis, G. (1973). *Nutritional assessment in health problems. Am. J. Public Health, 63(suppl): 1.*

Darmstadt et al. (2006). *Review of domiciliary newborn-care practices in Bangladesh. Journal of Health, Population, and Nutrition 24(4), 380-393.*

de Onis, et al. (2004). *Estimates of global prevalence of childhood underweight in (1990) and (2015). JAMA 291: 2600-2606.*

de Onis, M., Frongillo, EA. and Blössner, M .(2000). *Is malnutrition declining? An analysis of changes in levels of child malnutrition since (1980). Bull World Health Organ 78: 1222-1233.*

Devkota, B., and van Teijlingen, E. (2010). *Understanding effects of armed conflict on health outcomes: the case of Nepal. Conflict & Health 4 (20) www.conflictandhealth. com/ content /4/1/20.*

DFID. (2009). *Nepal: maternal mortality and Morbidity Study, London, see: www.dfid.gov.uk/ Documents/publications/nepal-maternal-mortality.pdf*

Dindyal, S., and Dindyal, S.(2004). *How Personal Factors, Including Culture And Ethnicity, Affect The Choices And Selection of Food We Make. The Internet Journal of Third World Medicine, vol. 1, no. 2.*

Edris, M. (2006). Assessment of nutritional status of preschool children of Gumbrit, Ethiop J Health Dev 21: 125-129.

Ellahi,B. (2014). Dietary intake patterns of South Asian men attending mosques in Burnley, UK.

Fieldhouse, P.(1995). Food and Nutrition: Customs and culture. London: Chapman & Hall.

Fisher, S. and Slaney, M. (2013). Monitoring and evaluation of climate change adaptation in Nepal.

Ferro-Luzzi,G.(1980). Food avoidances during the pueriperium and lactation in Tamilnad. In: J.K.R.Robson (Ed.), Food, Ecology and Culture. London: Gordon & Breach Science Publishers, pp.109-117.

Gittelsohn, J., Thapa, M. and Landman, LT.(1997). Cultural factors, caloric intake and micronutrient sufficiency in rural Nepali households. Social Science & Medicine, 44, 1739-1749.

Gittelsohn, J.(1991). Opening the box: Intra-household food distribution in rural Nepal. Social Science and Medicine, Vol.33 (10):1141-1154.

Hill,SE. (1990). More Than Rice and Peas: Guidelines to improve food provision for Black and Ethnic Minorities in Britian, The Food Commission, London. Journal of Current Research 2: 103-108.

James et al.(1997). The contribution of nutrition to inequalities in health. British Medical Journal, vol. 314, no. 24 May, pp. 1545-1549.

Karim et al. (2003). Determinants of food consumption during pregnancy in rural Bangladesh: examination of evaluative data from the Bangladesh Integrated Nutrition Project. Tufts University. Available from http://nutrition.tufts.edu/pdf/publications/fpan/wp11-food_consumption. pdf accessed Feb., 2015.

Khongsdier, R., and Mukherjee, N. (2003). Effects of heterosis on growth in height and its segments: a cross-sectional study of the Khasi girls in Northeast India. Ann Hum Biol. 2003 Sep-Oct; 30(5): 605-21.

Malla Pradhan, S. (2000). Property Rights of Nepalese Women. FES Nepal. Available at http://www. nepaldemocracy.org/gender/property_rights.htm. Assessed on Jan., 2015.

Moestue, J., and Huttly,S. (2008). Adult Education and Child Nutrition: The Role of Family and Community, Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health, 62:153-159.

Müller, O., and Krawinkel, M. (2005). Malnutrition and health in developing countries. CMAJ 173: 279-286.

Murphy, JL. (2011). Nutrition Knowledge and Attitudes of Pre-registered and Registered Nurses in relation to Cancer Survivorship. Proceedings of the Nutrition Society, 70.

Nagpal, N. (2003). Health Matters: Coping Indigenously. Nursing Journal of India, vol. 94, no. 4, pp. 78-80.

NDHS. (2011). Nepal Demographic Health Survey, New ERA under the aegis of the Ministry of Health and Population. ICF International provided technical assistance for the survey through the USAID Nepal.

---. (2006). Nepal Demographic Health Survey, CBS, Journal of Current Research 2: 103-108.

Nichter, M. (1989). Anthropology and International Health: South Asian Case Studies London: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Nichter,M., and Nichter,M.(1983).The ethno physiology and fold dietetics of pregnancy. Human organization, 42, 234-246.

Odent, PLG. (2010). Early infant feeding and neonatal survival in Nepal: Breastfeeding, colostrums and discarding of the first milk. University College London, U.K.

Otgonjargal et al. (2012). Nutritional status of under- five children in Mongolia. Journal of Medicine and Medical Sciences 3: 341-349. 15.

Pandey et al.(2010). Determinants of infant and young child feeding practices of Nepal: Secondary data analysis of DHS (2006). Food and Nutrition Bulletin; 31(2):334-51.

Riordan, J. and Hoover, K. (2005). Perinatal and Intrapartum Care. In Riordan J (ed) Breastfeeding and Human Lactation. Jones and Bartlett: London. Pp. 185-217.

Reed, BA., Habicht, JP. and Niameogo, C.(1996). The effects of maternal education on child nutritional status depend on socio-environmental conditions. International Journal of Epidemiology 25: 585-592.

Rocherson,Y. (1988). The Asian Mother and Baby Campaign: The Construction of Ethnic Minorities' Health Needs. Critical Social Policy 8, 4-23.

Rustein,SO. and Johnson, K. (2004). The DHS wealth index: DHS comparative reports no 6. Calverton, MD: ORC Macro.

Rush, D. (2000). Nutrition and maternal mortality in the developing world. American journal of Clinical Nutrition, 72 (suppl), 212S-240S.

Sapkota,VP., and Gurung, CK. (2009). Prevalence and Predictors of Underweight, Stunting and Wasting in Under-Five Children. Nepal Health Res Counc 7: 120126.

Siddiqi, NA., Haque, N., and Goni, MA. 2011. Malnutrition of Under-Five Children: Evidence from Bangladesh. Asian Journal of Medical Sciences 2: 113-118. 14.

Singh, J.(1998). A review of the literature on practices and beliefs regarding maternal and infant/child nutrition in Nepal. Kathmandu: Kathmandu Academy for Educational Development.

Subba et al. (2007). Infant feeding practices of mothers in an Urban areas in Nepal, Kathmandu University Medical Journal; 5(1)42-47.

Tamang, A., and Broom, A. (2010). The practice and meanings of spiritual healing in Nepal. South Asian History and Culture, Vol 1,2:328 – 340.

Thomas,GC., Howe,K and Keen,S. (2011). Supporting black and minority ethnic students in practice learning, 37-54.

UN/SCN. (2010). 6th report on the world nutrition situation: progress in nutrition. Geneva: Administrative Committee on Coordination-Standing Committee on Nutrition, United Nations.

UNICEF. 2014. UNICEF-WHO-The World Bank Joint Child Malnutrition Estimates, September. Available at http://www.who.int/nutgrowthdb/estimate accessed on November, 2014.

---.2005.The State of the World's Children; A UNICEF REPORT: Childhood under threat.

Vijayaraghavan et al.1990. Effect of massive dose vitamin A on morbidity and mortality in Indian children. The Lancet 336, 1342-1345.

WFP.2013. Available at http://www.wfp.org/countries/nepal/overview accessed on 17 January.2015

Willett, WC. and Stampfer, MJ. 2013. Current evidence on healthy eating. Annual Review of Public Health; 34, 77-95.

WHO. (2014). UNICEF-WHO-The World Bank Joint Child Malnutrition Estimates, September. Available at http://www.who.int/nutgrowthdb/estimate accessed on November, 2014.

---. (2014)a. World Health Organization, Nutrition: Exclusive breast feeding http://www.who.int/nutrition/topics/exclusive_breastfeeding/en/ Accessed 15 January, 2015.

---.(2006). The country co-operation strategy, (2006) – 11. Available at http://www.who.int/countryfocus/cooperation_strategy/ccs_npl_en.pdf, Accessed on 17 Jan., 2015

---.(1989). WHO EMRO Technical Publication No 13. Guidelines for the development of a food and nutrition surveillance system for the countries in the Eastern Mediterranean Region Based on the deliberations of a WHO/FAO Inter Country Meeting on Nutrition Surveillance Islamabad, Pakistan, October 1988.

World Bank. (2015). Global Economic Prospects: A World Bank Group Flagship Report, South Asia; Chapter 2, Pg. 89 – 100 Available at http://www.worldbank.org/content/dam/Worldbank/GEP/GEP 2015a/pdfs/GEP15a_web_full.pdf Accessed on 24th January,2015.

---. (2014). UNICEF-WHO-The World Bank Joint Child Malnutrition Estimates, September. Available at http://www.who.int/nutgrowthdb/estimate accessed on November, 2014.

---.(2008). Nepal Country Overview 2008, Available at http://www.worldbank.org.np/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/

Zewdu, S. (2012). Magnitude and Factors Associated with Malnutrition of Children Under Five Years of Age in Rural Kebeles of Haramaya, Ethiopia. Harar Bulletin of Health Sciences 4: 221-232.

The authors Mr Acharya, Public Health Researcher/PhD Scholar, Professor Teijlingen, Associate Professor Dr. Murphy and Sr. Lecturer Dr. Hind are affiliated with Faculty of Health and Social Sciences, Bournemouth University, England
Lead author's E-mail: acharyajr@gmail.com

Identification of Skills in Conflict and Prevention Strategies in Schools:

A Case study of Kaski District, Nepal

- SHREE PRASAD DEVKOTA

Abstract

The way of Conflict management in schools has made an attempt to explore the situation of conflict management in the selected schools of Kaski district. This exploratory study was focus on situation, sources, methods and ways of minimizing conflict in the schools. The main situations of conflict in schools were normal, out of control, negligible and diminutive. Similarly, political, economic, lacks of sufficient facilities, weakness of head teachers, conflicting of government policy were the main sources of conflict in schools. The main source of conflict in schools was political. In addition to this the methods of managing conflict were avoiding, accommodating, collaboration and compromising. The main suggestions of conflict in schools were identifying the problems, mutual understanding, awareness of problems, and declaration of schools as a zone of peace. In order to minimize the political influences, the head teacher and members of SMC should request the teachers not to take part in political programs within the school hours. Local leaders should also be requested not to organize any political programs in the premises of the schools. Good communication should be kept between the stakeholders in each curricular activity in schools. Individual vested interests should be scarified for accomplishing common goals and the expected result. The head teacher should encourage the teachers to take part in decision making by making them accountable individually and mutually. If educational conflicts are not resolved in time, it has destructive impact in teaching learning environment in schools.

Key Words: conflict; school management committee; political; zone of peace; teaching; learning.

1. Introduction

The word conflict is used in various ways depending on the person, place, context and situation. Generally, conflict means the mutual disagreement between two or more people with regard to any subject, which brings disparity, hostility, and violence, war etc. On this, Wagley (2063) stated that

conflict means all types of opposition or antagonistic interaction. Similarly SDCOC (2007) states that conflict is a natural and multi-dimensional phenomenon leading to social change and transformation. Conflict occurs when incompatible interests interact together and scale up with the feeling of exclusion, dishonour and hostility. Furthermore, conflict is a situation in which individuals or groups pursue disharmonious goals, values and interests. "Conflict is also characterized by common patterns of behaviour on the part of the parties, their attitudes towards each other, their fears, their interpretation of events" (Burton, 1974 as cited in Shrestha & Uprety, 2003). Likewise, Corvette (2009) states that conflict exists wherever and whenever there is no incompatibility of cognitions or emotions within individuals or between individuals. Therefore, it arises in personal relationships, in business and professional relationships, in organizations between groups and organizations, and nations. Conflict is the perception or belief that opposing needs, wishes, ideas, interests, and goal exists that creates the conflict. Conflict is everywhere, and it is inevitable. It arises from many sources (Corvette, 2009).

According to Shrestha and Uprety (2003), conflicts, like all human interactions can be perceived as a state of oppositions and the projections of contesting viewpoints between individuals, groups, and institutions. They mean to say that conflicts occur within human relationships. It is a manifestation of human nature representing combative expressions with in individuals, organizations, groups, nations, or international organizations. Not all interests and goals of conflicting parties are disharmonious.

Likewise, Galtung (1996) pointed out that there are different types of conflict such as Intra-personal conflict, inter-personal conflict etc. He further explains that conflict has also affected the social structure,

culture, norms and values. Initially, people used to take conflict as a negative factor and try to suppress it but nowadays conflict is life and life is conflict. "Conflict to be a process in which an effort is purposely made by A to offset the efforts of B by some form of blocking that will result in frustrating B in attaining his or her goals or furthering his or her interests" (Robbins,1998) .

Regarding the description of conflict in the above paragraph, there are various conflict can occur in the schools even though it is a place for disseminating knowledge and information to the students. Students grasp these knowledge and information and use them in a real work situation to make their learning meaningful. "Due to the transformation of knowledge and information to the next generation in a systematic way, schools can be regarded as a place of formal for the children" (Dewey, 1916 as cited in Poudel, 2001) Thus, teachers have to organize a wide range of activities in school. Group work, communication, lecture, discussion and problem solving are some of the fundamental activities that teachers often organize in school. Teachers have to perform these activities during the course of teaching learning process. Likewise, Havighurst and Neugarten (1962) stated that children are learning a variety of educational skills and information through these activities. In order to complete these activities, different types of interactions are essential. In the process of interaction, teachers have significant role because they have to interact with society, school and child schools have different potentialities to be a conflicting place. For various reasons, conflict is an inevitable feature in school. Due to the existence of diverse background, some groups might be formed in school. It is obvious that individuals and various groups of individuals in an institution have conflicting views, goals, beliefs,

values, and perception. These are some of the responsible factors to create divergent interests (Morgan, 1986). In school, children and teachers are coming from various socio-cultural backgrounds and thus can vary enormously. The variation can be seen in terms of academic achievement, intelligence level, behaviour, interest, and maturity (Sarason, 1990). Schools have their formal structure, positional hierarchy, goals, and objectives, a system of work and unequal status and positions that are responsible to create conflicting situation in school (Luthans, 1998).

Various factors may contribute to educational conflict in school. Elements such as size of the school, limited resources, diverse population, race, age, gender and ethnic groups may create conflicts in schools. Academic controversy, intellectual diversity, suicide, drug abuse, alcohols are the other factors that may lead to educational conflict (Johnson, 1998 cited in Poudel, 2001). Therefore, different efforts were taken in order to resolve educational conflict. Conflict management curricula in school and provisions of curriculum and instruction to the teachers and students are some of the examples of conflict resolution efforts in schools.

Thus, managing conflict at school has been an age of old challenge for educators. Recently, attention has been drawn to the level of violence in school and society. Conflict is natural part of life and therefore it is a natural part of schools activities as well. In the schools there are racial, religious and sexual conflicts among the adolescents. The conflicts raised among the adolescents in the schools also affect the teaching and learning process. Thapa (2008) stated that schools have traditionally been expected to teach the children for academic skills. Schools are also place where students get opportunity to interact with each another, their teachers as well as educational administrators. Many

educators believe that students' behaviour affects the academic achievement i.e. negative behaviour may lead to teaching learning problems because students who spend much of their time in arguing and fighting have little time or energy for academic pursuits.

towards the parties system creates a problem of conflict among them. No proper management of the school's administrative system, lack of sufficient facilities also causes conflict in the school.

2. Objectives

The objectives of this research were as follows:

1. To assess the situation of conflict in schools.

2. To identify the sources of conflict in schools.

3. To find out the methods of managing the conflict in schools.

4. To suggest ways to minimize conflict in schools.

3. Methodology

The information was collected using questionnaire, interviews, checklist, and school survey form. The study was delimited to the cases of two community schools and two institutional schools of Kaski district and a total of sixteen teachers from the two types of schools including the head teachers and eight persons were intellectual and eight people from the School Management Committees.

4. Findings of the Study

Analysis of information has been related to the various components of conflict management in schools.

4.1 Situation of Conflict in Schools

The perception of head teacher, teachers, SMC members, and intellectual persons showed that the situations of conflict in schools have found normal, out of control, negligible and diminutive. Those

schools, which had status of conflict as out of control, should manage it with an appropriate away because conflict severely hampered the teaching learning process.

4.2 Sources of Conflict in Schools

The respondents have responded that there were various sources of educational conflict in schools, which are as follows:

Societal structure, traditions, values, beliefs, norms, castes, culture and political nature of the surrounding society are acting as significant sources to educational conflicts in schools.

Centralized decision making of the schools heads, conflicting government educational policy, politicization in education, structural hierarchy of the schools are the other sources of educational conflicts in school.

The contradictory feeling in relation to student's performance between teachers and parents, shift of loyalty of the teachers from education to the politics, the influences of contextual factors, the authoritarian culture, power attached bureaucratic mentality, power worshiping nature of our culture, poor communicating culture, the trend of distributing opportunities to the relations and attached mentality of the people of the government for financial security are the some of the identified prominent sources to educational conflict in school .

Different sources of educational conflicts have significant influence in creating educational conflict in schools. The disagreement, confrontation, disapproval, aggression, debate, struggle, frustration and stressful situations among the stakeholders of the schools have indicate the teacher – teacher conflict, the teacher – head teacher conflict and school community conflicts in schools.

Different types of educational conflicts in school have negative consequences due to the development of culture of individualism in teaching among the teacher, lack of creativity

and professional motivation in teaching among the teachers and decreased moral and professional ethics among the teachers that resulted the frustration and dissatisfaction towards schooling and consequent affect the teaching learning environment.

4.3 Methods of Managing Conflict in Schools

In order to accomplish the common victory over conflict in the schools different methods of managing conflict should play vital role. In the study, the perception of respondents showed that the methods of managing conflict in schools are competing, collaboration, compromising, and avoidance. The management of conflict in school should be considered an appropriate way.

4.4 Ways of Minimizing Conflict in Schools

The study has found the following various ways of minimizing conflict in schools:

1. Identification of problems

2. Mutual understanding

3. Awareness the problems

4. Declaration of school as a zone of peace.

5. For the elimination of conflict from the schools arena the above mentioned methods could play a significant role.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusion

Schools are social setting. Therefore school works as socialization institution. Conflict in schools brings negative as well as positive aspects of socialization because conflict is the state of disagreement between different individuals of an organization. In the course of implementation, such disagreement creates negative impact in teaching learning process in schools. Discord of needs, drives, wishes, different goals, interests, beliefs and clashes of values are possible

when people work together. These all are the responsible factors for the conflict in the schools. So, the conflict is a complex social phenomenon, which can be resolved with compromising approaches.

For the sake of management of conflict in schools, the situation of conflict, sources of conflict, methods of managing conflict and ways to minimize are the essential factors to know about the conflicts in schools. Actually, conflict management is the positive and constructive handling of differences and divergence rather than advocating methods of conflict: how to deal with in a constructive way, how to bring opposing sides together in a cooperative manner for the constructive management of differences. Therefore, conflict management in schools is an important issue in the modern digital era. Conflict brings disorder in teaching and learning environment of the schools. Considering the situation, sources, methods of conflict in schools it should be managed in an appropriate way.

5.2 Recommendations

The following recommendations have been put forward:

1. In order to manage conflict, schools should be kept free from political interference by means of organizing workshops and seminars in order to bring the commitments of political leaders. To minimize the political influence, the head teacher should urge the teachers not to take part in political programs within the school hours. Local leaders also should be requested not to organize any kind of political programs in the school premises.

2. The head teachers, teachers, and parents should jointly deal the conflicts with good coordination in the schools.

3. The teachers should get their salary as per their qualifications; skills and the facilities should be available as required on time.

4. There should be a good communicative relationship between the head teacher and other teachers, among teachers themselves and teachers and students. The relations should be improved by conducting interaction programs, workshops and seminars on related topic.

5. Conflicts have both positive and negative consequence in teaching learning. However, unresolved conflicts always have destructive consequences in teaching learning therefore, conflicts resolution mechanism in schools should be essential for overall educational development.

6. The different values of stakeholders of school create misunderstanding, disagreement, struggle, debate, dilemmas and conflicts in schools which make the process of educational change more problematic. Therefore, there should be the development of special efforts such as workshop, seminars, training for related issues in order to create awareness for stakeholders in order to minimize the conflicts in schools.

7. Micro politics of school is the major cause to bring conflicts in the schools. Therefore, it should not be politicised in schools and declared school premises as a zone of peace' by developing the policy.

8. Specific knowledge areas should be identified in order to utilize school expertise as per the specific task. Head teachers, teachers, selected SMC should provide the training on conflict management in order to address the issue of conflict.

9. Peer mediation and conflict management topics should be included in curriculum as part of the plan with sound conflict resolution skills.

References_____

Ahuja, K .K. (1998). Personnel Management. New Delhi: Kalyani Publishers

Best, J.W. and Khan, J.V. (1999). Research in Education. New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India

Corvette, B.B. (2009). Conflict management a Practical Guide to Developing Negotiation Strategies. New Delhi: Dorling Kindersley Pvt. Ltd.

Dhoubhadel, S.P.andBajracharya, B.R. (2003). Research Methodology. Kathmandu: M.K. Publishers and Distributors.

Fisher, Simon et.al. (2000). Working with conflict skills and strategies for training. New York : St Murtn's Press.
 Galtung, Jhon. (1997). Peace by Peaceful Means. Oslo: PRIO.

Hatch, Mary Jo. (1997). Organization theory modern, symbolic and post modern perspectives. New York: Oxford University press

Havighurst, R.J.and Neugarten, B.L.(1962). Society and education. Boston: Allyn and Bacon

Jones, JEFF and Mchough , Roger. (1983) . Management skills in schools. US: Penguin Books Ltd.

Jones, Gaveth R. (2007). Organization theory, design and chance. New Delhi: Porling Kindersley Pvt. Ltd.

Kerlinger, F.N. (1983). Fundamentals of behavioural research. New Delhi: Surjeet Publication. Kelly, Joe. (1987). Organizational behaviour. Delhi: Surjeet Publication

Kothari, C.R. (1995). Research methodology. New Delhi: Viswa Prakashan.

McShane, L. Steven and GlinowMary, Annovn. (2007). Organizational behaviour essential. New Delhi : Tata McGraw -Hill publishing Company Limited

Moorhead, Gregery and Griffin, Ricky. (2001). Organizational behaviour. New Delhi: A.I.T.B.S. Publishers and Distributers.

Morgan, G. (1994). Images of organizations. London: SAGE Publications.

Poudel, Ananda. (2001). Educational conflicts in school and their consequence in teaching learning. Unpublished M. Phil thesis: Danish University.

Pradhan, G. (2003). Children and peace. Kathmand : Child Workers in Nepal.

Robbins , Stephen P. (1999).Organizational behaviour, concepts, controversies application. New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India Pvt. Ltd.

Sharma, Kripa. (2009). Impact of peace education programme on school children in Bnake: A case study, An unpublished thesis. Jamal: Central department of Public Administration, T.U.

Sharma, J.P. (2053). Application of conflict theory in the study of Nepalese Society. An unpublished master thesis. Kirtipur: Central Department of Sociology, T.U.

Shrestha, A. P. and Uprety, Hari. (2003). Conflict resolution and governance in Nepal. Kathmandu: Nepal Foundation for Advanced Studies.

Shrestha, Kul N. (2061). Modern Management. Kathmandu: Nabin Prakashan.

SDCOC. (2007). A report of stakeholders' conference on educational (MOE). Kathmandu: Author

Sarso , S.(1990). The Predictable failure of educational reform. San Frabcisco: Jossey- Bass.

Sijapati, Dipendra Bikram. (2005). Impact of conflict on school children a case study of Chhaimale VDC in Kathmandu valley. Unpublished master thesis. Kirtipur: Central department of Sociology, Tribhuvan University.

Subedi, Bharat Mani. (2004). Study of children in armed conflict. Unpublished master thesis, Kirtipur: Central department of sociology, Tribhuvan University.

Thapa, T.B. (2008). Conflict management in schools, Journal of EPMAN. Kirtipur: EPMAN.

Tumin, Melivin. (2003). Social stratification the forms and functions of inequality. New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India.

UNESCO. (2005). Educating for a new future A training kit for peace education in South Asia. Karanchi: The author

Upreti, B.R. (2004). The price of neglect from: resources conflict to the Maoist insurgency in the Himalayan kingdom . Kathmandu: Bhrikuti Academic Publisher.

---. (2006). Armed conflict and peace in Nepal. New Delhi: A.D. Publisher.

Wagley, M.P. and Dhakal, M.P. (2063). Dictionary of Education. Kathmandu: Ratna Pustak Bhandar.

Wellington, J. (2000). Educational Research. London: Continuum.

The author is M Phil student in Development Studies, Kathmandu University.
E-mail: spdevkota@kusoed.edu.np

Child Education and Deprivation In Nepal

- SHIBA BAGALE

Abstract

This paper aims to present the causes of deprivation in child education particularly in Nepalese context. It highlights educational initiative taken by the state specifically in the context of child education. It also tries to figure out barriers for educational development in Nepal to some extent. The paper deploys to identify key actors and their role to create positive learning environment for those of deprived section of children. It also argues some possible inclusive and social justice appraisals in Nepalese context.

Key Words: Child education; deprivation; inclusive and social justice, learning environment.

1. Introduction

In recent years, increased demand and massive expansion in educational sector mainly due to implementation of Child Friendly School National Framework (CFS), Education for All (EFA) and School Sector Reform Program (SSRP) have brought into community schools large number of children who might not have attended before. Still large numbers of children from specific groups remain excluded from schooling due to various reasons. Equitable access and quality of education remains deeply unsatisfactory for the children from specific or marginalized groups in Nepal. Reasons behind educational attainment of children can be seen from different dimensions such as child-labor, household chores, inherent traditional norms and values, accessibility to the school, relevancy of curriculum and quality of education, low level of parental education, material deprivation to children, low priority by the parent and children and language problem, caste discrimination, poverty dimensions that hinder in child education in Nepal.

Similarly, community people have the quality of social beings; they have special attachment in communication with other people and share their views' in such a way of life. The uniqueness of daily life of the people is another affecting factor in children's education. Education of

the children also influence on social and cultural context of the society. Because of the superstition or belief system, culture becomes overall life style of material and spiritual and its experience and situation divorced people from reality.

2. Terms of Exclusion and Deprivation

Education plays crucial role in transformation of the society and people's life. Quality of education is the subject of determinant on quality of society. Education is influenced by different dimensions; economical, social, cultural, geographical, political, curriculum, means of delivery, family, availability of materials, and so on. Here, it has been concentrated on the issue of child education and deprivation.

According to Oxford Dictionary (2011), exclusion is 'the action of excluding' and deprivation is 'hardship resulting from the lack of basic necessities, the lack or denial of something necessary'. Former exclusion reflects keeping out or prohibiting from the system and later deprivation replicates lack or denial from getting things. However, both terms are equally applicable for marginalized and backward, deprived or excluded groups specially lower-castes and Muslim community of Nepal (Gurung, 2007). Social exclusion is more closely related to the concept of capability poverty, which says that poverty is the function of deprivation of basic capacity to interact with society and to exploit the potential opportunities available within the society. The results of social exclusion are the deprivation, destitution and discrimination among and within the different social groups that include the different individuals.

Nepal is a diverse country, with vast geographical variety and diversity in language, culture, ethnicity, thus perceptions of education also varies accordingly. EFA report shows that 91.9 percent primary age-school were enrolled in 2008 (EFA, 2008) but in 2006 almost 14 percent of children were not enrolled (Groot, 2006). The problem in primary level is retention because enrollment figures in class one are higher but a larger number of those once-enrolled children drop-out of school before completing primary education. At lower secondary level the numbers of enrolled children drop significantly, almost 50 percent and hardly about 20 percent children success their secondary education. Enrollment rate of particular groups of children like so called lower-castes and Muslim and minority communities and girls are below than those of other (Groot, 2006).

3. Causes of Child's Educational Deprivation

Researchers have found various reasons on child deprivation from school. Among them some of the reasons have been highlighted as:

3.1 Child Labor

The major cause which keeps a child out of school often recorded is involvement in labor. Working sectors of the children are varying among the children. Girls work in household work, cutting grass for animals and collect fodders for cooking. Boys in mountain regions migrate seasonally for a month with their older to take cattle out of village in search of food. Boys in hills especially low-caste go to job market to carry goods before completing primary

level of schooling in order to support their families. Boys in Terai, there are a trend especially in Muslim community, drop-out school once they reach their early teens in order to follow their neighbors' example and go to India in search of work to contribute their families.

3.2 Quality and Accessibility of School
Child-work should not be viewed as a sole contributing factor on keeping children out of school, the problem always appears with combination of other issues. One issue is the quality of school, which entails insufficient number of teacher, poor facility particularly for girls and poor arrangement of materials. Another issue is location of the school especially after primary level in mountain and hill. But in case of Terai, accessibility of school is not problem by physical infrastructure but it is the social distance that keeps children out of school.

3.3 Educational Availability
International treaties and national commitments have recognized free and compulsory elementary/primary education as human rights for more than a half century. The Millennium Development Goals (MDG) also agreed on achieves universal primary education by 2015. Nepal has successfully experimented Education for All (EFA) 2004-2009 and implementing School Sector Reform Program (SSRP) from 2009/2010 to substantiate and achieve treaties and commitments made earlier. SSRP has ensured free education in primary level and also in Early Childhood Development Program (ECDP) for a year. Besides, special scholarship provision was made for all Dalits, 50% girl students, children of martyr's families, all girls student of *Karnali* region and all students with disability (SSRP, 2009). Free education covers admission fee, tuition fee and reading materials only and rest has to manage by the students themselves. Due to materials deprivation and poor diets with potential effects on their physical and mental growth also compel them to drop-out school.

Acceptability and Adoptability of Education

Another cause of deprivation in education may be resistance of educational system by the child. A child is a product of definite socio-cultural phenomena, family background, surrounding environment, religion and also self-physical ability. If educational system does not address on child's construct and child's perception then a child does not accept school and education. Now, researchers have suggested that education system has to adopt child-friendly or child-centric methodology and early grade reading activities in order to achieve universal primary education.

3.4 Socio-Cultural Factors
Social and cultural factors are identified another key factors in children education. Children from low caste groups are less likely to have the kinds of social connections which offer inspiration, information and further opportunities. They have relatively high aspiration and often lack awareness on what to do. Because of their socio-cultural background, they have different experiences of schooling than their counterparts, and they think schooling as controlling and forceful. They are reluctant to have experience

cooperative relationship with teachers and friends. As a result they feel less in control of their learning at school than other students and gradually they lack confidence and drop-out school.

Not only that, poor communication due to language problem is also counted the reason of school drop-out by the ethnic and lower caste groups children. From the very beginning of the schooling, these children are failing to develop reading, writing, speaking and listening skills limit in access to the curriculum.

3.5 Positive Learning Environment

The learning environments constructed by the school and teachers also depend on drop-out rate of the children from lower-caste groups. We know that the learning will be more effective for vulnerable students when it took place in an atmosphere of trust and respect for the contributions on them. But Taneja (2005) claims that teachers do not take any genuine interest in their students. Neither they have any hold on the students nor are they capable of influencing the students to make them worthy citizens of tomorrow. On account of raising price they have stooped low that they spoil in useless un-academic work like private coaching, with the result they cannot discharge their professional obligations adequately.

The creation of positive learning environment at school is a key factor in the improvement of vulnerable children. High quality information, advice and guidance services are important for countering those vulnerable children. Such advices help to the students in decision making and develop knowledge and skill to some extent by themselves.

3.6 Parental Education

Child's deprivation in education also coincides by the parental education. We know that low-caste groups are often found to be drunk and that directly affect in family income. So that they have low aspiration towards their children education not only because of illiteracy but also due to lower savings of money. Existing habits of the parent and traditions within the communities are still kept the children out of school.

In the context of education, exclusion or deprivation must be understood as the process rather than event. Many preceding events shape the life of the individual child who is excluded from the education system. Some of these events are located within the family, some in the community and friends, and many in the school where child suppose to be studying. Educational exclusion is closely linked with social exclusion and it denials with the different opportunities among different background in the society (Govinda & Bandyopadhyay, 2010). Social exclusion in Nepalese society is seen as lack of access to resources and inability to utilize them.

3.7 Overview on Education and Children

Jean Jack Rousseau has articulated critic of the state intervention in the children education in the second half of the eighteenth century. He emphasized that the child should be nurtured naturally, growing up as nature intended, free from the corrupting influence of socialization. Tutor's task should not so much to teach as to enable nature to work her miracle for the child (Gammage, 1982). Rousseau has emphasized perception on the method

of child rearing and also the relationship between the overall developments of the child unlike to socio-cultural context that exist in the society.

Dewey raised his voice toward the one best system of schooling as the formative engine of democracy, and offered an idealistic alternative vision of his own (Dewey, 1960, 1966 as cited in Glass, 2000), he precisely regarded that the new schools are still entrenched in traditional modes of knowledge and authority, and are still confused dualisms. He argued that schools should not be detached from society while preparing students for some future role, but rather they should be living social experiments in democratic practice. Curriculum should not be prepackaged and separate from the interests and needs of students, but instead intimately associated with them through genuine problem-solving activities. Students should come to their studies not through the imposition of extrinsic rewards and punishments, but through the guided exercise of their innate curiosity and intelligence. Moral behavior and disciplined habits were to be formed through the natural force of reflective social activities and their cycle of intentional effort and suffered consequences.

Takaya (2008) has outlined the views of Jerome Bruner that he seemed to think that the academic discipline or topics have a tendency to arouse curiosity in human beings in general, including children. Interest can be created and stimulated in which academic subjects have intrinsic

attraction, and those they do not always have to be related to children's daily experience in order for children to be interested in learning. So Bruner says that "intellectual activity anywhere is the same, whether at the frontier of knowledge or in a classroom. Thus, education system needs to make curriculum more accessible or pleasant by presenting them in real-life settings of children's daily experience. Similarly, subjects and topics must be designed according to the context and structure of the academic disciplines which are the essence and reflection of accumulated human curiosity.

4. Conclusion

Life as the paradigm of education allows us to appreciate the importance of diversity and unity as well as the sense of tension in the art of education. The full human life one should not choose ultimately intellectual pleasures, career or family, but rather to incorporate and utilize each of these elements in a manner that would best enhance one's life. Quality of education is only the means and ends for enhancement of quality life of the people. It begins from the very beginning of child education.

Child education and deprivation have crucial relationship because impact of deprivation manifested on later in adulthood. A child with deprivation in education means fewer or weak qualifications and skills, which in turn can affect his/her future employment and earnings, health and social well-being and finally affects nation as a whole.

References_____

Aloni, N. (1997). *A redefinition of humanistic and liberal education. International Review of Education, 43 (1), 87-107*

Cambridge Education Ltd and METCON Consultants. (2009). *Joint Evaluation of Nepal´s Education for All 2004-2009 Sector Programme, Evaluation Report 1/2009. Oslo: Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation*

Groot, A. (2007). *Deprived children and education in Nepal. IREWOC (International Research on Working Children), Amsterdam. Netherlands: Plan Netherlands*

Gammage, P. (1982). *Children and schooling: Issues in childhood socialization. London: George Allen & Unwin.*

Government of Nepal. (2009). *School sector reform plan 2009-2015. Kathmandu: Ministry of Education. Govinda, R., & Bandyopadhyay, M. 2010. Social exclusion and school participation in India: expanding excess with equity. Prospect, 40 (3), 337-354*

Glass, R. D. (2000). *Education and ethics democratic citizenship. Studies in Philosophy and Education, 9, 275-296.*

Gurung, H. (2007). *From Exclusion to Inclusion. Bakhundole, Lalitpur: Social Inclusion Research Fund.*

Knight, T. & Pearl, A., (2000). *Democratic education and critical pedagogy. The Urban review, 32 (3), 197-226.*

Oxford Dictionary. (2011). *Illustrated Oxford Dictionary. India: Dorling Kinderseley Limited and Oxford University Press*

Singh, K. (2001). *UNESCO's experience on equality of education. European Journal of Education Law and Policy, 5 (2), 49-55.*

Sutinen, A. (2008). *Constructivism and education: education as an interpretative transformational process. Studies in Philosophy and Education, 27 (2), 1-14*

Taneja, V. R. (2005). *Social Philosophical Approach to Education. New Delhi: Atlantic*

Takaya, K. (2008). *Jerome Bruner's theory of education: from early Bruner to later Bruner. Interchange, 39 (1), 1-19.*

Wain, K. (2008). *Future of education… and its philosophy. Studies in Philosophy and Education, 27 (1), 103-114*

Watkins, M. (2009). *Inclusive education: the way of future- a rebuttal. Prospect, 39 (3), 215-225*

The author is M Phil student in Development Studies, Kathmandu University.
E-mail: sbd@titi.org.np
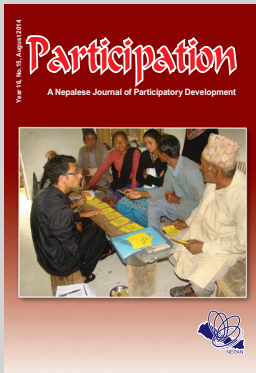
Assessment of the Disaster Preparedness System of Nepal Red Cross Society

- BISHNU HARI DEVKOTA

Abstract

It aims to assess the disaster preparedness system of Nepal Red Cross Society based on the five parameters. They are disaster preparedness mechanism and structure, SWOT analysis, the condition of the warehouse management, where does NRCS stand in the criteria of well-prepared national society and community involvement and their traditional practices in disaster preparedness. It highlights on the overall the preparedness efforts done by the NRCS looks functional however there are some gaps and it should strive for the improvement of the existing preparedness system. It also found that NRCS should take proactive approaches in wider extent rather than focusing in the reactive approach. To strengthen the proactive approach it has been emphasized that NRCS should also "sell" to others outside the Red Cross Movement the formulas that have proven effective, such as the National Disaster Response Teams while ensuring its wide internal dissemination. The traditional practices adopted by the community in the field of disaster management should be capitalized and institutionalized.

Key Words: Disaster preparedness; warehouse; well prepared national society; community involvement; traditional practice

1. Introduction

Nepal is a disaster prone country. It has ranked 11th in terms of risk from earthquake and 30th in terms of flood risk according to global report of disaster 2003. It is estimated that annually various disasters affect approximately 10,000 families. Earthquake and floods are the biggest hazards in terms of mortality, affected population and economic loss. Many people have been killed by disasters in Nepal than any other countries in South Asia-an average loss of two lives each day.

Nepal Red Cross Society (NRCS) has been involved in all components of the Disaster Management Cycle. It is the only organization with a presence in all 75 districts with 12 warehouses having the capacity of stockpiling 36,000 sets of non-food relief items located in central, regional, zonal and sub zonal centers. It has (around11972 staffs) trained human resources at the headquarters and district levels in national, regional and global competencies. It has also built its capacity to respond the conflict. The NRCS pioneered Community Based Disaster Preparedness activities and more recently it has been engaged in Community Based Disaster Risk Reduction (CBDRR) and School Based Disaster Risk Reduction (SBDRR) initiatives.

UNISDR defines disaster preparedness as "the knowledge and capacities developed by governments, professional response and recovery organizations, communities and individuals to effectively anticipate, respond to, and recover from, the impacts of likely, imminent or current hazard events or conditions" whereas NRcs defines preparedness as "to be prepared against disaster to forecast, prevent, mitigate and to cope the situation at the time of disaster".

NRCS is one of the active players in the area of disaster management. It aims to analyze the disaster preparedness system of NRCS. Basically this article has been divided into four chapters that include: introduction, methodology, findings and conclusion and recommendations.

2. Methodology

The primary and secondary sources of information have been used for this research. The primary source of information were collected from the staff of the Disaster and Crisis Management Department at central level and the community people of Lamjung, Nuwakot and Jhapa districts. A total of 56 people were interviewed out of 5607 in the community. The respondents were selected using random sampling method.

A pre-tested questionnaire was used for the collection of information at central, district and community levels that cover the various aspects such as the warehouse management system, the organizational framework including different means of preparedness including stock piling of non-food materials, trained human resources, and establishment of disaster fund and preparation of risk reduction plan. Key informants interview was taken to find out the community involvement in the disaster preparedness and their traditional and the present practices adopted for disaster preparedness. Direct observation was done to see the physical condition of the warehouses. The SWOT analysis was used to assess the organisational capacity of NRCS. The secondary sources of information was cited from books and journals related to disaster.
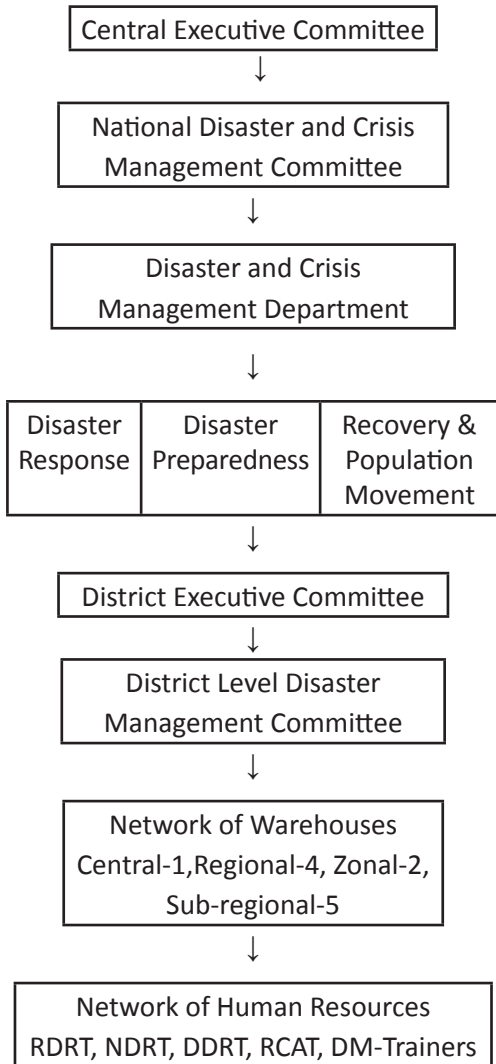
3. Findings of the Study

3.1 Disaster Preparedness Structure and Mechanism of NRCS

3.1. a. Normal time structure:

The normal time disaster preparedness structure of the NRCS has been presented below:

```
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│   Central Executive Committee   │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
                 ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│  National Disaster and Crisis   │
│     Management Committee        │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
                 ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│      Disaster and Crisis        │
│    Management Department         │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
                 ↓
┌───────────┬───────────┬─────────┐
│ Disaster  │ Disaster  │Recovery &│
│ Response  │Preparedness│Population│
│           │           │ Movement │
└───────────┴───────────┴─────────┘
                 ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│  District Executive Committee   │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
                 ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│   District Level Disaster       │
│    Management Committee          │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
                 ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│    Network of Warehouses         │
│ Central-1,Regional-4, Zonal-2,   │
│       Sub-regional-5             │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
                 ↓
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│  Network of Human Resources      │
│ RDRT, NDRT, DDRT, RCAT, DM-Trainers│
└─────────────────────────────────┘
```

The Junior Red Cross circles formed in the schools whereas Youth Red Cross Circles in the campuses/universities and communities work as the first informants and responder during disaster. The Disaster and Crisis Management Department has been established at the national headquarters headed by the director. She/he works as the Member Secretary of the National Disaster and Crisis Management Committee of the NRCS. Warehouse In- charges are appointed at the national,

regional, zonal and sub- regional levels. Relief materials should dispatched from the concerned warehouses to the related district chapters. Each district chapters has to provide at least 50 family packages of non-food items to the affected families from their own. At the time of the large scale disasters district chapters request relief materials with national headquarters. The national headquarters launches emergency appeal through International Federation of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC) if the disaster response is out of its capacity.

NRCS is the ex-officio member of the Central Disaster Relief Committee formed under the chairmanship of the Minister of Home Affairs and the ex-officio member in the District Level Disaster Management Committee of the government of Nepal. In preparing the national and district levels disaster management plans the bodies of the Nepal Red Cross should involved actively. In the Village Development Committee the Local Disaster Risk Management Plan (LDRMP) has been developed. NRCS is also the member in that forum. It has close coordination with the bodies of the government, International and National Nongovernmental Organizations (I/NGOs). NRCS is also the member of the seven (in Nepal only seven clusters) clusters formed by UN organizations and largely headed by government agencies.

The chart shows its preparedness structure at all level except in the subchapter with network of warehouses in different strategic points of the country. The network of human resources is in place. In subchapter disaster response team (SDRT) has to be established.

3.1. b Emergency Disaster Preparedness Structure of NRCS

The following chart shows the emergency based disaster preparedness system of NRCS:
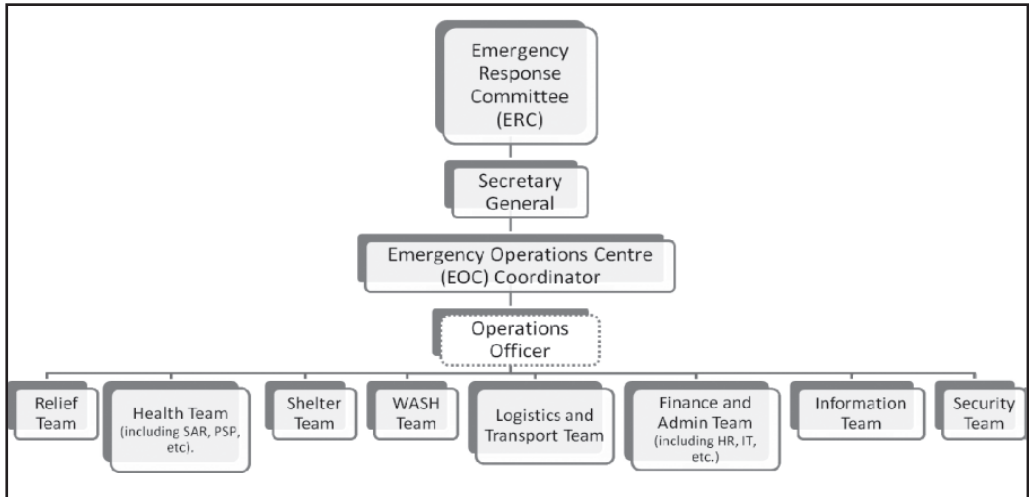
NRCS has a separate mechanism for emergency. The EOC acts as the secretariat and in emergency it operates 24 hours. Operations Officer supports the EOC. The eight different response teams are being equipped with the response materials and they respond based on their terms of reference. At the headquarters this structure operates for response preparedness smoothly. However, the skills and capacities of the said structure need to be updated and should provide related trainings for capacity development.

3.2 SWOT Analysis of Disaster Preparedness System of NRCS

During the study officer level staffs were asked to do the SWOT (strength, weakness, opportunity and threats) analysis of preparedness system of NRCS (Table 1).

Table 1: SWOT Analysis of NRCS

Strengths	Weaknesses
Nation-wide network from central to regional, district and the VDC and J/YRC circles level.	All level bodies are not equally well functional and also the technical and functional capacities vary.
Guiding documents such as policy, strategy, procedure, manual and guidelines related to disaster are in place.	Common understanding on the developed guiding documents at all levels especially in some of the districts and most of the community levels need to be strengthened.
Provision of warehouse with relief items prepositioned in strategic locations of the country.	Inadequate internal financial resource management for upgrading and maintenance. So warehouses are not well maintained
Provision of emergency funds in both national and district levels (in some districts).	Internal resource management mechanism to maintain or increase funds is not in place.

Strengths	Weaknesses
Development of different types and level of response tools such as Field Assessment Coordination Team (FACT) National Disaster Response Team, Emergency Response Unit (ERU), Regional Disaster Response Team(RDRT), National Disaster Response Team (NDRT), District Disaster Response Team (DDRT), Community Action for Disaster Response (CADRE), First Aid, WASH, Light Search and Rescue(LSAR) are in place.	Meaningful data base and system of refresher training for the use of the response tools need to be strengthened and reinforced.
Active participation in different level forums related to Disaster Preparedness.	No systematic plan is in place to retain committed and experienced volunteers or staff.
Committed and experienced volunteers and staff.	Response preparedness structure not widely disseminated.
Crystal clear response preparedness structure in place.	There are few numbers of skilled and trained human resources compared to the number of volunteers available.
Programs linked to disaster preparedness with longer term disaster risk reduction.	Limited resources for better preparedness.
District disaster preparedness and response plans are being developed in more than 65 districts and in 25 districts this plan is developed in leadership of the NRCS.	No concrete plan to implement these plans at district level
Kathmandu earthquake contingency plan is in place.	
Disaster and Crisis Management Department and Emergency Operation Center (EoC) has been established at headquarter.	Regular update of the vulnerability and capacity analysis is yet to be materialized.
Skilled human resources for vulnerability and capacity analysis are in place.	Better coordination for resource mobilization and implementation is still a challenge.
NRCS is an active member in the disaster. management committees of the government formed in different levels and it is also the member of the seven clusters formed under UN system. So good relation with governmental and I/NGO	

Opportunities	Threats
Trustworthy relation with other stakeholders helps NRCS to collect resources in order to materialize its plan, policy and activities.	Many organizations are emerging in the field of disaster management, thus creating more challenges for resource mobilization.
Many national and internal organizations are much more interested to work with the society due to its nationwide network. It has helped to fulfill its national and international commitment.	If the quality service could not be delivered in comparison to others, high competition may ruin the image of the Red Cross.
The combination of professionalism and volunteerism has assisted NRCS to implement the cost effective program and project with other partners.	Government, donors and partners are interested to participate in response system rather than strengthening disaster preparedness system.
Government and other UN agencies are taking interest to strengthen warehouses of the Nepal Red Cross Society.	Nepal is prone to multiple hazards but access to resources is very limited.
People believe on the humanitarian work of NRCS.	The expectation of affected people is increasing thus meeting their expectations are a big challenge and beyond the capacity.

The disaster preparedness system of NRCS looks operational. The threats and weaknesses can be taken as opportunities because they provide basis for further improvement. The strengths shown above indicate that NRCS should continue its efforts to retain it. The number of skilled human resources available needs to be considerably increased, both in number and skills. The response mechanism, the policy and guidelines developed has to be well disseminated to the grass root levels and should have well linkages with other aspects of disaster management cycle.

The SWOT analysis reveals that there is a need to upgrade the capacity of the warehouses as well as they need repair and maintenance. Internal as well as the external resources need to be further explored to complete the said tasks. According to SWOT analysis all units of the Red Cross Society are not equally active. Their capacity needs to be further assessed to make them active and equally functional.

3. 3. The Condition of Warehouse Management

To assess the strengths and weaknesses of the disaster preparedness it is useful to know how the warehouses are organized. Questionnaires were distributed to the Warehouse In-charges. Based on their responses overall strengths, weaknesses and areas of improvement of the warehouses has been analyzed.

During the study 75 per cent respondents replied that there is a need to improve in the existing disaster preparedness structure of NRCS and 25 per cent responded that it is fine. Furthermore the DP structure should reach at the subchapter level.

In the study 75 per cent respondents responded that the existing capacities of warehouses were not sufficient. So, NRCS should increase and upgrade the storage capacities. Almost all respondents have responded that the warehouses are strategically located whereby responses have done at right time.

The study reveals that 50 per cent relief packages have found satisfactory whereas rest 50 per cent needs to be improved. It meant that NRCS should strive for meeting the SPHERE standard. It is reported that there is no cash transfer system in NRCS during emergency. Depending upon the need NRCS should partly jump into the cash transfer system as well. Almost all respondents responded that the Warehouse In-charges have skills (knowledge of SUMA system, record keeping) to handle the warehouse effectively and the existing rule to regulate the warehouse seems to be sound.

The physical structure of the warehouse have not earthquake resistant. There is a need to construct the earthquake resistant warehouses in the future and to retrofit the existing warehouses. Almost all respondents replied that the existing physical verification and auditing system of the warehouse has found appropriate. Effective monitoring and evaluation system should be established from the central warehouse to manage the store in the districts.

Almost all respondents have responded that supply agreement is not in place. NRCS should move toward supply agreement in advance. Almost all respondents have responded that there is no emergency plan

of the store. It needs to be formulating the emergency plan. Almost all respondent expressed that the Warehouse In-charges have skill in handling warehouse. However, they should be further motivated through rewards and career growth opportunities. Warehouses should be well equipped and their size needs to be extended.

Where does NRCS stand in the Criteria of WPNS?[1]

The International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies have developed a tool to assess whether a national society is prepared for the disaster. Staff were given the following indicators to know whether NRCS is well- prepared national society (WPNS).These are the outcomes of their response:

a. ***Emergency preparedness, policy, plans and laws***

It is found that Red Cross and Red Crescent Movement policies and guidelines are reflected in its emergency preparedness plans. It has emergency response security guidelines for staff and volunteers. Its governing board has a disaster committee with emergency preparedness policy. It has systems and relevant trainings that reinforce an appropriate standard of personal conduct and behavior that is reflected in the image of the National Society. It is striving to adhere to the Humanitarian Charter and Minimum Standards in Disaster Response but there are rooms to adapt in full phase. It has been using the 'Safer Access' model for conflict preparedness. It has Disaster Management department and/or a focal point at headquarters. It has a clearly defined role in emergency preparedness, response, humanitarian

1. The Characteristics of a Well Prepared National Society, IFRC, (pp.1-2)

assistance and protection that is recognized by the government. Nepal Government has mandated its national emergency plan. It is represented and active in the national and local coordinating body for disasters and conflicts. It has structures, systems and procedures in place from national headquarters to district level that enable it to respond efficiently and effectively in situations of disasters and conflicts. But it would be also effective if it can establish disaster management committee under subchapter. It has positioned itself as a neutral, impartial and independent humanitarian agency. It is independent from government still being auxiliary to the government. It has updated records and information related to situations of disaster and conflict. However, there is a need of improvement in implementation and monitoring.

b. *Damage, Needs, Hazard/Risk/ Vulnerability and Capacity Assessment (VCA)*

NRCS has the system and competencies to carry out damage, needs, hazard/risk/ vulnerability and capacity assessment(s). It uses VCA, Participatory Planning Process (PPP), WPNS, GIS/risk maps, etc. tools for assessment and risk analysis. It has to put its effort to use BPI tool as well. Other DRR actors can have access to these tools (website www.ifrc.org).

c. *Coordination*

NRCS coordinates with other organizations and agencies. Its emergency preparedness and response structures have been linked to and a part of regional and international disaster response mechanisms. It cooperates and coordinates with the IFRC, ICRC and other National Societies to ensure

effective preparedness and response mechanisms. It has coordination with seven clusters of UN system. Although the coordination done by NRCS looks strong but the respondent strongly indicated that it has to further strengthen its coordination with local level organization as well as with national and international level stakeholders.

d. *Information and Report Management*

NRCS has access to the International Federation's DMIS website and GIS mapping data. It has assigned staff on call 24 hours a day to receive notification of a disaster. It has standard operating procedures in place to notify the IFRC if a disaster is of international scale. It monitors, reviews and evaluates the quality and impact of its emergency preparedness and response. The information and report management systems of NRCS are operational but the early warning mechanism does not seem established in the major rivers of Nepal. It indicates that NRCS should focus its efforts to make further progress in this field. The EOC through Emergency Relief Committee keeps coordination with government and other concerned agencies. It has effective communication procedures like how to operate radio, satellite phones and also clear procedure with whom to contact including contact numbers to ensure effective coordination.

e. *Resource Mobilization*

NRCS has effective disaster management capacities at branch level. The formulation and implementation of the disaster preparedness plan justify so. It recruits staff and volunteers from communities and vulnerable groups. It has training programs related to situations of disasters

and conflict. The systems and training in place reinforce appropriate standards of personal conduct and the positive image the National Society wants to portray. It has sufficient numbers of trained staff, volunteers, equipped response teams and leader to carry out its mandates (as defined in the disaster preparedness policy of NRCS), roles and responsibilities. NRCS has an emergency fund at the National Headquarters and in some districts and systems for record keeping, reporting and auditing for financial accountability. But it has to strengthen this capacity in other districts where the fund has not been established. It has adequate logistics, procurement, management systems and disaster response capacity with emergency stocks pre-positioned in strategic locations. It has established internal communications and telecommunications systems as well.

f. Community-based Disaster Preparedness, Mitigation and Disaster Risk Reduction

NRCS ensures the active participation of the local population in the design, planning and implementation of community-based activities, it raises awareness of disaster/ conflict risks, hazards and preparedness measures through public education. It ensures that volunteers are a part of an integrated into branch/chapter community disaster education programs. Almost all respondents have responded that the community-based disaster preparedness, mitigation and disaster risk reduction activities have conducted and serving (throughout the country) the community people. However, there is a need to further increase in the community participation during planning and implementation process.

g. Lobbying and Advocacy

NRCS in situations of conflict should do lobbying and advocacy works in favor of the conflict victims. It advocates with government, donors and other stakeholders for mitigation and emergency preparedness measures. NRCS advocates through interactions, workshops, and information, education and communication materials with different stakeholders. From the analysis of the seven parameters stated above that the NRCS is in the stage of prepared national society. In order to be well prepared national society it has to develop its capacities as explained above.

3.4. Community Involvement and their Traditional Practices in Disaster Preparedness

The involvement and traditional practice of the community on disaster preparedness has been explained below:

In the study 66.6 per cent respondents have responded that they have conducted the DP activities in their communities. This indicates that the involvement of the community in DP activities seems to be high. However, it needs to be further improved in the days to come.

The study reveals that 69.64 per cent people have DP organizations in their communities. However, there is a room for improvement in this. A total of 36 communities have prepared and implemented disaster preparedness plan and 20 communities remained aware to prepare it. Thirty-five communities have established DP fund whereas 21 communities have yet to be established in the future. They should be encouraged to collect disaster preparedness fund.

Among the respondents 41.02 per cent respondents have replied that they have

stored traditional rescue materials like dried gourd, tube and planted the banana trees nearby houses whereas 58.98 per cent did not practice. The traditional list of activities for DP and mitigation indicates that they are still more valid. Katuwal is a person who is supposed to communicate messages to the villagers through community visits by crying in a louder voice as where there are no other means of communication. The community people have practices of communicating through Katuwal making a big cry to communicate the message in emergency.

Around 12.5 per cent respondents have responded that they are practicing traditional warning system (blowing a conch in a loud voice, beating drums) whereas 87.5 per cent people do not have such system in place. The modern technology for establishing modern warning systems may be fail at the time of disaster; in this case the traditional warning system carries its importance till now. Around 46.43 per cent respondents have responded that they have traditional practices of making house like tying the wooden pillar of the house with beam, putting a long piece of wood above the window and putting the long stones in the corners of the four walls of the house for making earthquake resistance house whereas 53.57 per cent do not have such practice. This sort of best practices should be institutionalized and scaling- up in other parts of the country.

The study reveals that 28.57 per cent people have implemented the disaster risk reduction program in their community by taking part in the disaster simulation exercise whereas 66.08 per cent (where there was no disaster program) do not have such practice. The disaster related program

encouraged them to participate in the simulation exercise. Around 5.35 per cent people did not respond on this matter. This study indicates that the more people should be involved in the simulation exercise to be prepared for better response in the future.

Almost all respondents have responded that they are involved in one or other types of traditional disaster preparedness practices like construction of bamboo spur, tree plantation, piling up the sand bag in the river side, dry stone wall, creating community group, planting banana tree nearby house, keeping water in the big jar in the dry season, construction of traditional drainage, bamboo plant plantation, construction of water pond near house, keeping fire related materials away from the reach of children, fill out small pits near the house and establishment of Dharma Bhakaris etc. The traditional practices adopted by the community for the disaster preparedness pave the ways for sustainability and become cost effective. Such practices need to be continued in the future as well.

The study reveals that 58.92 per cent participants have responded that they are raising fund traditionally whereas 35.71 per cent people are doing nothing. Around 5.37 per cent participants did not respond in this. The collection of one Mana rice per house per month, conduction of Dhukuti, formation of mothers group, celebrating cultural events (dancing/singing) have found the traditional fund raising practices in the community. The traditional practices of raising fund seem to be good practice. It should be encouraged to continue in the future as well.

According to study 71.42 per cent participants have the practice of storing

non-food items in their house whereas 28.58 per cent did not practice. It should be further strengthened and scaling –up in the future as well. The food items cannot be stored for a long time because they cannot be protected well from rodents and infestation of insects and fungal attack. However, there should be a practice to store dry foods in each house at least for a week so that people can survive for a week. To improve the existing DP system there is a need of permanent structure for evacuation center. Flood mitigation, search and rescue and life skill training for more people should be provided and effective early warning system should be established in the community.

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

4. 1 Conclusion

The disaster preparedness structures and system of NRCS seems to be functional. However, its DP structure should reach to the subchapter level and SDRT should also be formed and strengthened. The warehouse management rule, the skill of the staff in handling the store and the physical verification systems are good enough. However, there is room for improvement in some areas as noted above. Considering the parameters of the well-prepared national society, the NRCS stands on the status of the prepared national society. Communities are involved in the disaster preparedness activities and they have sustainable traditional practices in this field for their benefits. It should be capitalized and institutionalized at the community level as well. The presence of NRCS in government disaster management structures and in the seven clusters formed under UN indicates that coordination part is strong. However, there is a need to enhance coordination

with national and international stakeholders in the future. The DP structures, system, activities and practices of Nepal Red Cross Society seem to be practical. It should not only work to implement but should be able to sell good practices to others. NRCS should strongly advocate to the partners and donors for supporting the proactive activities rather than responsive ones in the disaster management. Nepal Red Cross is an auxiliary to the government of Nepal. It should advocate changing the existing Natural Disaster Relief Act of the Nepal government focusing to include all the aspects of the disaster management cycle in the act.

4.2 Recommendations

The following recommendations have been put forward:

a. DP Structure and System

i. NRCS should form the sub chapter level disaster management committee to make it preparedness more effective**.** The capacities of all units of the Red Cross need to be further improve to make them equally active and functional.

ii. It should strive for producing and forming the subchapter disaster response team (SDRT)

iii. The numbers of trained human resources like NDRT, (DDRT) and CADRE need to be considerably increased.

iv. The response mechanism and the policy and guidelines should be developed and disseminated to the grass root levels. The early warning mechanism for flood should be established in major rivers of the country.

v. It should further strengthen its coordination with local level organization, national and international stakeholders.

vi. NRCS should make its efforts to adopt SPHERE standard in full phase gradually.

b.   For the Improvement of Warehouse Management

i. Capacities of the warehouses should be upgraded, well repaired, retrofitted according to the need and should be ensured against fire.

ii. NRCS should have supply agreement in place and it should also go for the cash transfer system in the future.

c.   Community Involvement and Capitalization of Traditional Practice

i. NRCS should increase the ownership of the community in disaster preparedness by involving them in planning, implementation and encouraging district chapters that have not established fund for disaster preparedness.

ii. Traditional practices of stock piling rescue materials, warning system and making earthquake resistance house using local technology should be capitalized and institutionalized.

iii. Community should further encourage making disaster preparedness plan and simulation exercise should be part of it.

Others

NRCS should not only dedicate itself to the work of disaster preparedness and response but also "sell" to others outside the Red Cross Movement the formulas that have proven effective, such as the NDRT.

References

NRCS. (2008). *Disaster Management Policy of Nepal Red Cross Society. Kathmandu: Nepal Red Cross Society.*
---- (2005). *Disaster Management Strategic Framework (2010-2015). Kathmandu: Nepal Red Cross Society.*

--- (1998). *Nepal Red Cross Daibi Prakop Uddhar Nirdeshika. Kathmandu: Nepal Red Cross Society.*
--- (2010). *Samudayama Adharit Bipad Jokhim Neunikaran Karyakramko Karyannwon -Field Karyakartako Lagi Nirdesika. Kathmandu: Nepal Red Cross Society.*
--- (1956). *Samudayama Aadharit Daibiprakop Purbatayari Nirdesika. Kathmandu: Nepal Red Cross Society.*
--- n.d. *Disaster Management Strategic Framework (2010-2015). Nepal Red Cross Society Quoted from Disaster Information Management System (DIMS) using Des-Inventar, compiled and operated by NSET. Kathmandu: Nepal Red Cross Society.*
UNISDR. (2009). *Terminology on Disaster Risk Reduction. UNISDR.*

The author is Director for Nepal Red Cross Society and is Life Member of Green Society.
E-mail: bishnu@nrcs.org

An Assessment of Urban Area-Based Cooperatives

From Women's Perspective

- CHET NATH KANEL

Abstract

Cooperatives have been recognized as one of the three key pillars for national development in Nepal. Other two pillars are: the government, and the private sector. This paper intends to trace out some of the key features (e.g. membership patterns and gender perspectives, women's capacity issues, entrepreneurships and enterprises of women, etc) of urban-based cooperatives in the capital city, Kathmandu. This is a qualitative research outcome with a belief of subjective knowledge on multiple realities. In addition to documents review, focused group discussions and interactive interviews with the executive board members, staff members as well as some selected loan-taker members were held to generate information. The study reveals that urban cooperatives have not yet fully realized the importance of women's participation; and, their involvement in key decision-making positions is still very low. However, there is female dominance in the staffing of such cooperatives. Increase women's access to information, participation in decision- making structure and mechanism for collective voices and bargaining are the few strategies identified from this study to enhance women's participation in cooperative sector. For this, two pronged approaches are needed. One is, by making appropriate legal provisions and policy considerations for women representation; and, another one is, full commitment of GOs and NGOs for effective implementation of gender equity and social inclusion policy in each agency and structures both formal and informal.

Key Words: *Cooperatives, Cooperative Theory, Participation, Social Capital Theory, Women Empowerment.*

1. Introduction

Cooperative sector has been an integral part of national development in Nepal for the last two decades (Baskota, 2014), although the first cooperative in Nepal was established some 60 years ago (BS 2013, Chaitra/ 1957) in Bakhan, Chitwan district (Shakya, 2010). 'Cooperation in the

society' is a traditional phenomenon (such as- *parma, dhikuri, guthi, manka, bheja,* etc.); however, making cooperatives for social and economic development in the rural and urban areas is relatively a new practice. Nepal introduced Cooperative Act only in BS 2048 (1992). Since then people's interests in opening cooperatives throughout the country have been growing (Poudel, 2012; Dhakal, 2014).

Globally, the first cooperative was established in England. A group of factory workers, also known as Rochdale Pioneers, from Rochdale town in *Manchester* created the first cooperative in October, 1844 to deal with rapidly deteriorating economic condition of the factory workers paved the way for today's cooperative movement worldwide' (Miyake, 1991). The cooperatives have been gaining popularity in both developed and developing/under-developed countries. For instance, in the developed countries like USA, the concept of cooperative (also called 'Co-op') has emerged so rapidly; and, according to Harrison et.al., particularly in Northern part of USA the new generation co-ops have been growing exponentially (1996, p. 15). They have termed it as 'NGC' (the 'New Generation Cooperatives'). NGC is the term that has been applied to the dozens of value-added processing; selected membership cooperatives that have formed in the USA in recent years; and, the cooperatives have sprung-up virtually every sector of agricultural production (Harrison et. al, 1996, p. 16). Global experiences indicate that cooperatives were primarily practiced in agricultural sector, and then gradually to other sectors of productions and businesses. Successful cooperative examples can be found particularly from Africa, Asia and Latin America. Cooperatives have also been instrumental in peace-building and creating bridges of communication in areas of conflict or ethnic division (UN, 2009).

Various literatures have highlighted that

the cooperatives can be used as 'breeding grounds' to empower women by enhancing their specific knowledge and capacities (UN, 2009; Acharya, 2010; Baskota, 2015). Thus the governments are recognizing and supporting rural and urban cooperatives to actively participate in the development process towards employment and women's empowerment. The global statistics show that women are in charge of 60-80 percent of the world's work, and produce 50 percent of the food (UN, 2009). Despite the fact that their contribution is significant, they have limited economic advantage and access to productive resources.

There is no doubt that cooperatives in Nepal are becoming popular both in the rural and urban areas. The government has also recognized the cooperative sector as an important economic pillar, out of 3-pillars of the economic development of the nation; which has also been well recognized by the Interim Constitution of Nepal, 2007 (Baskota, 2015). A draft Constitution of Nepal- 2015 (GoN, 2015, draft; in article 55-'*gha*' 1&3) has also highlighted the recognition and the roles of cooperatives in national development process.

According to Cooperative Department-GoN, there are 31,177 cooperatives, in which more than 5 million members have been affiliated, with almost 42 per cent of women members (DoC, 2014). According to *Gorkhapatra* (2015), there are more than 33 thousand cooperatives in the country. Therefore, cooperative sector has been one of the major identified sectors to boost women's participation and also to significantly contribute to uplift the educational/ literacy status of rural poor, women, and disadvantaged segments (Dhakal, 2015). It is obvious that (quality) education is the determining factor for progress and prosperity of the disadvantaged groups (Kanel, 2014). The cooperatives are mushrooming in the city

areas and district headquarters, even if banking and financial institutions are also abundantly available in such areas. For instance, as of July, 2014, Kathmandu district alone has 3,685 cooperatives, Kavre district has 1,364 and Morang district has 1,051 cooperatives. Similarly, *Gorkhapatra* (2015) reports that in Chitwan district there are more than 600 and, in Sunsari district there are 627 cooperatives (source: http://gorkhapatraonline.com/news/11148). Nonetheless, remote districts have very poor number of such cooperatives. They have not been able to serve the needy people in such 'unreached' places. For instance, *Dolpa* has only 53, *Mugu* has only 79, and in *Humla* district there are only 91 cooperatives (DoC, 2014). It is obvious that banking & financial facilities for the remote area-based rural populace are too scarce.

Cooperative Theory & Social Capital Theory

The Cooperative Theory (and also, Cooperative-based Transformation Theory) suggests that there are different sub-theories linked with this, for example, poverty theory, equity theory, humanistic theory, governance theory, gender theory, socialistic and social capital theory, economic maximization theory, human capability theory, effective communication theory, social mobilization theory and so on. However, as per Harris et. al (1996), 'Cooperative theory' it-self is more concerned with 3 major themes:

i.   Incentive structures,

ii. Governance structures, and

iii. Cooperative group development process.

Recurring themes in Cooperative Theory have included cooperatives' ability to raise capital (capital acquisition), limit opportunities, exploit local knowledge and facilitate the flow of information, and increase competition in markets.

Similarly, economists argue that necessary precondition to cooperation are sets of economic incentives that motivate individuals to act collectively (Harris et. al, 1996), which helps creating 'social capital' of the local residents/members. A study in Nigeria concludes that, "The cooperative also leads to physical, social and financial capitals which are found in the social capital theory; and, this can be explained further that cooperative societies lead to the creation of financial capital, physical capital and social capital for individual members because they participate in and enjoy the benefits of the program savings and loan services" (Oluyombo, 2012).

Similarly, cooperatives have the potential to exploit information more efficiently than other forms of vertically integrated firms. Cooperatives are good examples of participatory governance where all members are equal (regardless of number of shares they hold), often follow heterogeneity, practice one-member-one vote policy, and also hold participatory decisions with different structures of controlling mechanisms. Moreover, the theme of cooperative development process incorporates the main principles of cooperation and cooperative efforts, including collective activities, democratic norms, benefits sharing on equity basis, providing motivation for cooperative formation, understanding local problems deeply and seeking solutions with local efforts as well as from outside agents' supports, creating conducive economic conditions, etc. (Harris et. al, 1996). Shakya (2010) highlights the 7 principles of cooperative. They are: i) voluntary and open membership, ii) democratic member control, iii) members' economic participation, iv) autonomy & independence, v) education, training and information, vi) cooperation among cooperatives, and vii) concern for community.

The Draft Constitution of Nepal (2015) has envisioned, "Nepal as a 'socialism-oriented' country". Mautner (2005) defines, "Socialism is theory and a movement advocating public ownership of the more important means of production" (p. 578). There are still lots of discourses on the roles of cooperatives in socialism.

2. Objectives of the Study

The main objective of this study was to explore the status of women's participation in cooperative memberships, executive bodies, and in staffing structures. Other objectives of this study include - illustration of the perceptions of women members and chairpersons on the roles played by those cooperatives in the empowerment process including the creation of "women's social capital" as per the theory and principles of cooperatives; and bringing key issues associated with women's participation in cooperative sector.

3. Methodology

In this research, qualitative research approach has been adopted using interpretive paradigm. Case study of purposively selected 4 multipurpose cooperatives was done using a gender analysis format for basic data collection and check-list based Key Informant Interviews (KIIs) were held with some selected women members, including executive and general members, to understand their views, perceptions and overall experiences. Interviews with staff members and official records were useful in collecting some quantitative data supporting the qualitative matters. In addition, views from some selected cooperatives' chairpersons and some loan-user women have also been reflected in drawing research conclusions and also providing future prospects of gender-sensitive and inclusive cooperative development in Nepal. Observations of the cooperatives as well as of the 'enterprises'

of selected members were additional tools used in order to make the assessment more 'participatory' (Joshi, 2014). The study was accomplished in the months of January and February, 2015.

Study area & sampling

This case study was conducted in the urban area of Kathmandu district- the Kathmandu Metropolitan City (KMC). Two wards of KMC were purposively selected considering the familiarity of the author. A total of 4 cooperatives (2 from each ward) were selected for the study. According to Stake (2000) and Flick (2009), four samples are considered to be the representative samples for research studies adopting Qualitative Case Study Approach. Likewise, Yin (2014) states, "In qualitative research, and very particularly in case study research, small samples (even one) can also be considered as adequate" (p. 59).

Selection criteria

Considering the above suggestions, I chose 4 cooperatives, setting basic criteria as outlined below-- which could serve as 'typical' cases of urban cooperatives: **i)** at least 3 years old, **ii)** multipurpose, **iii)** mixed memberships (male and female), **iv)** having regular auditing and annual general assembly; and, **v)** proximity, to save available time and resources.

Delimitations

The study has been delimited to the 'membership pattern' in promoter-members *(Pravardak)* and in the executive body (*Sanchalak samiti*) & the staff team. Although, Nepal's Cooperative Act- 2048 BS has provisioned to formulate different sub-committees, such as Internal auditing, Credit, etc.; this study has been confined only on examining the status of women in the whole membership and in the executive bodies, and, understanding their perceptions.

Ethical considerations& validity

According to Yin (2014), *'research ethics'* is very important in any research. American Heritage Dictionary (1992; cited in Goodwin, 2005) defines the 'ethics' as, "a set of standards governing the conduct of a person or the members of a profession" (p. 36). Yin suggests some of the ethical standards that should be maintained by the researcher including- being honest, avoiding deception, accepting responsibility for one's own work, and maintaining a strong professional competence (p. 77). Smith et al (2009) stated that 'ethical research practice is a dynamic process which needs to be monitored throughout data collection and analysis' (p. 53). In the same manner, I have also tried my best to apply such 'ethical' considerations where applicable and possible. For instance, I clearly shared my 'objective' with all the respondents informing the anonymity of the research process. I also assured them that I would not mention any real name of the cooperative and the persons interviewed/met. That's why, in this article, I have "coded" the names of the sampled cooperatives as 10-A, 10-B; 34-A and 34-B. Similarly, respondents' names have been changed where applicable.

As far as the issue of *validity* of the is concerned, Creswell & Plano Clark (2011) state that qualitative validity comes from the analysis procedures of the researcher, based on information gleaned while visiting with participants, and from external reviewers. There are different approaches to adopt the validity including, member-checking, triangulation of the data, ask others, etc. In this context, I have also made efforts in ensuring validity through different approaches as mentioned above. For example, this article has been reviewed more than 5 persons, who very seriously provided their concerns for increasing the validity and 'reliability'.

However, in qualitative research, there is more of a focus on validity than reliability to determine whether the account provided by the researcher and the participants is accurate, can be trusted, and credible (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; cited in Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 211).

4. Results and Discussions

4.1 Women's Membership Patterns

From the office records maintained in the respective cooperatives, it was revealed that on an average 698 members (being minimum of 163 and maximum of 1300 members) are affiliated with these cooperatives. Out of which 39.2 per cent are female and 60.8 per cent are male members.

According to the DoC, at present there are 42 per cent women in the overall cooperative membership in the country. In this perspective, a question can be raised- Why, even in the heart of the capital city, still the women's representation in the general membership has not met the national ratio? The Chairpersons of 34-B Cooperative was of the opinion that urban women are very busy in different jobs and also on their own career, then; they do not feel any need to be a member of a co-op. If it is true, why not men have the same reality? Are they job-less?

But in this case, the answer of the manager of Cooperative 10-A seems to be more convincing. She says, "Women have less access in urban businesses/ shops/ schools/ colleges etc, thus there is a lack of genuine membership of women in such cooperatives". "Most often, the husband just enrolls his wife/ sons/ daughters as members of the same cooperative where he is affiliated But such members only visit the cooperative once in a year or only during annual general meetings", she further lamented. Similarly, women's

participation is below one third (30.6%) of the total 'promoters' of such cooperatives (Table 1). Among the studied cooperatives, the number ranges from 50 to 158, having an average of about 99 members in each cooperative.

The above reasons again could make an influence in the overall 'promoter membership' in such organizations. Each cooperative has made some criteria to be a promoter (founding shareholder) (Table-2), "however, in practical sense those criteria are made considering only men's interests", comments one of the female general members of a cooperative.

Table 1: Gender perspectives in the promoters and in the executive boards

Coop	In the Promoters			In the Executive Board		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
10-A	109	49	158	7	2	9
10-B	80	25	105	6	1	7
34-A	55	34	89	6	1	7
34-B	35	15	50	8	1	9
Total	279 (69.4%)	123 (30.6%)	402 (100%)	27 (84.4%)	5 (15.6%)	32 (100%)

Source: Field study, 2015

Table 2: Criteria to be the promoter and the general member

Co-op	Main criteria to be a "promoter" (patron)
10-A	• Nepali citizen with citizenship-certificate • Resident of the working area wards • Should be recommended by the Executive Board • Minimum Rs. 100: for one share (to maximum of Rs. 100,000:)
10-B	• Nepali citizen with citizenship-certificate • Resident of the working area wards • Should be recommended by the Executive Board • Minimum Rs. 100: for one share (to maximum Rs. 200,000:)
34-A	• Nepali citizen with citizenship-certificate • Resident of the working area wards • Should be recommended by the Executive Board • Must be willing to deposit regularly • Minimum Rs. 100: for one share (to maximum Rs. 50,000:)
34-B	• Nepali citizen with citizenship-certificate • Resident of the working area wards • Should be recommended by the Executive Board • Minimum Rs. 100: for one share (to maximum Rs. 600,000)

Source: Field study, 2015

From the records received, on an average one cooperative has an amount of about Rs. 3.09 Crore as a total capital to mobilize within the members. The amount ranged from a maximum of Rs. 4.63 (Cooperative 10-B) Crore and a minimum of Rs. 1.26 Crore (Cooperative 34-A)

Women's Membership in the Executive Body (decision-making roles)

The Cooperative Act has provisioned to form a 7-member executive body for each cooperative (GoN, 1992)**.** However, neither this Act, nor the Cooperative Regulations, 2049 BS (GoN, 1993) mention anything about the compulsory mandate to include women in such key positions. Perhaps due to this reason, it was evidenced from the studied cooperative that there is poor participation of women (just 15.6%) in the executive bodies (Table 2 above). Furthermore, it was noted that no cooperative was found with woman's chairpersonship and vice- chairpersonship. Only one cooperative has female Treasurer. In this context, the elected Treasurer tells her feelings:

"They (male promoters) don't believe in our capacities, that's why we are not elected in the 'core' positions; they hardly give us (female) the Treasurer position, and most of the times only one or two executive member positions are 'separated' for women. As in the local CBOs (community-based organizations), there is no clear policy to offer special positions (either Chair or Vice-chair) to female promoters in the Cooperative Act ad Regulations".

According to the Cooperative theory, cooperative promoters (patrons) have access to the firm's formal governance structure through the board of directors; therefore, exercising 'voice' may be cheaper for patrons in a cooperative (Condon, 1987). Based on a study finding, Ghimire (2013) states, "The lesson is that women need to be supported to boost their confidence and self-esteem so that they can both increase participation in cooperatives/ groups and negotiate for other important changes in their lives".

During the study, I had a quick look at the *'Biniyam'* (point No. 27-ka) of Cooperative 34-A, which does not give any emphasis on women's compulsory participation in any committee/ sub-committee, but it mentions, *"as far as possible, the executive board will be made inclusive".* This indicates that the cooperatives are aware about the issue of inclusion, but not very specific yet on such provisions. The above theory of exercising 'voice', thus, can not be ensured when there is less participation of women in the 'board of directors'.

In the cooperatives there are other sub-committees as well, e.g. Account (Internal auditing) Committee, Loan sub-committee, Deposits sub-committee, and Advisory committee. In all the cooperatives except "Education sub-committee" no other committees were led by women members. And, another important point to note is that most of the Advisory committees encompass only 10-15 per cent women. From the findings and the interviews, it also seems that the main loophole remains in the Act and Regulations. If gender-balanced approach is to be sought in such cooperatives, then the legal provisions should be amended and scrutinized immediately. Furthermore, there is a need to develop leadership tiers at the different levels (Ghimire, 2013).

4.2 Male-Female Ratio in the Staffing of Studied Cooperatives

From the interviews and official records, it was found that women's participation in the cooperatives as staff (employees) is higher than in any membership patterns. The male: female staff ratio is 41.6: 58.4. Likewise, the average staffing number was 6, having maximum of 11 and minimum of 4. The positions of the cooperative staff mainly include: Manager, Accountant, Assistants and

Daily Collectors.

It is noted that 75 per cent of the cooperatives had women managers. Why males are getting low priority in such jobs? This is a pertinent question. In this regard, one Chairperson stated that "Women staffs are more reliable than male staff in financial matters." Why? He further added, "Because female staffs are more obedient than males, and also they are more transparent in such financial dealings."

In an interview with the Chairperson of the cooperative 34-A, he stated that they would always prefer hiring women staff due to their obedient behavior, trustworthiness and transparent works. He added, "that's why we have hired 3 women staff out of total 4, and if add new staff, we will hire only women, because, women staff are better for cooperatives. We have learnt this lesson from our 3-4 years' of experience."

In the same context, the manager of Cooperative 34-B, who is a male, opines that cooperative, finance and banking jobs are very suitable for women than for we 'men'. The main reason is that they are very dutiful; do not seek much opportunities as men, and also, 10 to 5 job is very suitable for them. Even for BBS/ MBS students, who have morning classes, cooperative jobs are very suitable; they can show better performance in such cooperatives. Just they need some flexibility in the morning hours. But they can compensate their works in the evening without hampering the needy work of the cooperative. I am also thinking of replacing my post to my junior lady staff, and I will go somewhere for new jobs. I have planned to leave this job after finishing my MBA study."

However, he did not like to comment on the question-why not women chairpersons and vive-chairpersons then? My quick reflection in this case is that this genuine question must be asked by the women promoters in each cooperative so that they could negotiate for at least chairperson or vice-chairperson post in each (mixed) cooperative. And, the answer should be sought in the pages of Cooperative Act /Regulations/Policies/ Election Guidelines etc. Thus, capacity development of the women is an instrumental task to empower them through cooperative process. Similar circumstances were realized by Ghimire (2013) in his study in *Makawanpur* district. He notes, "With the increasing amount of money and shareholder members, cooperatives face challenges in effectively operating with the existing skilled human resources" (p. 94).

4.3 Women's Proportion in Loan-Takers (benefit-sharing roles)

There are about 20 per cent women loan-takers who have been mobilizing the resources from their cooperatives. Based on the memberships, the ratio of loan-takers seems to be too low. This also suggests that there are many women 'depositors' who only want to take interest and dividends from such cooperatives rather than mobilizing 'loans' from own cooperatives. In this regard, the Office Manager (female) of a cooperative (34-A) mentioned, "Women promoters are mostly house-wives, and they do not need any money to invest for business. Even if they require for other purposes, their husbands take the loan". It apparently reveals that urban cooperatives are still dominated by male members' interests. The Manger of Cooperative 10-B shares her experience:

"There is no problem with the loans taken by female members; but there are very few women members who have become member on their own 'status' and 'decision'. They mostly become 'member' in the interests of male members so as to increase the 'shareholding' of the family. Due to which there is slim chance of being selected in the Executive Board as their male members play the decisive role in the whole process. And, owing to this, women's access to such loans is also reduced."

Case study

Interview with a loan-taker woman member

One of the female members associated with 10-B cooperative, Ms Nainakala (name changed), who resides at Sukumbasi tole in the bank of Bagmati river, KMC Ward No. 10, was interviewed by this researcher. Her family came from Jhapa district 20 years back leaving their property with their other family members. Now she has 2 sons. At present her husband is in UAE (Dubai) for a foreign job- as a laborer. He went there 3 years back and now making a good earning from his 'nokari'. Nainakala (name changed) tells her story:

"I took loan from the cooperative and sent my husband to Arab country. Now he is sending at least 20-25 thousand rupees monthly. We are very happy. I have also started a small grocery shop in our house (sukumbasi ghar!!) and our two sons are studying in a local boarding school. The first son studies at class 8 and the younger one in class 6. They need to pay monthly fees around Rs. 2 thousand each. But now we have no tension. Our life now is very happy, because, our main aim is to better educate our kids. In future they should be doctor or engineer by taking good education. I still take loans from the cooperative when I need to expand my grocery shop. In the beginning, I spent Rs 50 thousand to start the shop, but now I have invested about Rs. 2.5 lakh. We have almost Rs. 2 to 3 thousands' sales every day. I also make regular saving (deposit) in the cooperative. The cooperative (10-B) has been very good for us. We have also planned to buy a land (ghaderi) in Kathmandu in the near future."

4.4 Loans (investments) in the Education Sector

As a student of education and development, I tried to find the reality of the investments in the education sector by the cooperatives studied. According to the office managers, the major 'purposes' of such credits were: **i)** Trades/ enterprises (70-80%); **ii)** School/ education enterprises (10-20%); **iii)** land purchase/ house construction (only small amount support, 5-10%); and, **iv)** Vehicle purchase- mostly motorbikes (5%).

The study also found that, in all the cooperatives interviewed, there was no lucid policy about the investments in education sector. There is neither the educational loan policy, nor any specific provision of discounting interest rates in such 'educational loans'. "So far we have not thought about that provision, but in the future, we can think about this if demands arise from the member/share-holders or if the General Assembly suggests", stated the Chairperson of Cooperative 10-B.

In this context, from a secondary source, I found that a cooperative located at Gokarneshwor municipality- 11, Kathmandu *('Jay-Shree Bhairav Saving and Credit Cooperative Ltd.')* has special provision of providing educational loans with 2 per cent discount rates in the annual interest rates. For example, the interest rate for Commercial loan is 17 per cent and Hire/ Purchase is 18 per cent; however, for Educational purpose it is just 15 per cent (*Global Cooperative Weekly*, p. 8; 8th Magh 2071). This could markedly infer that the cooperatives working in rural settlements (semi-urban areas) are more aware of the need of educational investments through such cooperatives. Nonetheless, the importance of educational investments is being realized as the Manager of Cooperative 34-B expresses:

"I see lots of opportunities in investing in education as there are more private schools and colleges being mushroomed not only in urban areas, but also in the rural areas. And, additionally, education loans could

be provided to prospective students for higher studies within the country or outside the country; because, they need immediate money".

Although there are "Education sub-committees" in all the cooperatives, no sub-committee was found functional. Cooperative activities in the sector of education and training/capacity development are lacking. Thus, the finding suggests that the Cooperative Act's intent of forming such sub-committees is not translated into concrete action. They have been just the 'showy' sub-committees, only the names remain hanging on the wall of the Cooperative office. It was, however, notable that in Education sub-committees of almost all cooperatives, female members have dominated, including the key position (Coordinator). Most often 3-member education sub-committee is constituted. "We have not yet thought of giving special capacity development training to women as well as other members of the Cooperative. We only take part when there are invitations from District Cooperative Association or Department of Cooperative", states the Chairperson of Cooperative 34-B. However, interventions are lacking.

4.5 Gender-friendly Policies of the Cooperatives

The gender-perspective analyses in the general shareholders, promoter shareholders, loan-takers and also in the staff structure suggest that there are lots of gender imbalances. For example, in the executive bodies poor number of female representation has barred developing women-friendly policies and programs by the cooperatives. Similarly, male ratio in cooperative staff could be enhanced to make at par with female. Furthermore, males' morale in the

financial sectors needs to be boosted by giving equal opportunities. Social inclusion and work-place diversity is much advocated in this era.

While viewing the national-level policy guidelines, it was found that cooperative sector is almost 'gender neutral'. No any specific document clearly talks about the gender mainstreaming in this sector. By chance, the participation of women as members is not 'very poor', but it's not satisfactory from the perspectives of 'executive representation'. Thus, as in other developmental sectors (e.g. community forestry, banking sector, etc.), explicit policies are required.

4.6 Prospects for Enhancing Women's Participation in Urban Cooperatives

In the same context, the manager of Cooperative 34-B, who is a male, opines, *"Cooperative, finance and banking jobs are very suitable for women than for we 'men'. The main reason is that they are very dutiful; do not seek much opportunities as men, and also, 10 am to 5 pm job is very suitable for them. Even for BBS(A)/ MBS(A) students, who have morning classes, cooperative jobs are very suitable; they can show better performance in such cooperatives; just they need is little flexibility in the morning hours. But they can compensate their work in the evening without hampering the needy work of the cooperative. I am also thinking of replacing my post to my junior lady staff, and I will go somewhere for new jobs. I have planned to leave this job after finishing my MBA study."*

Regarding the benefits from cooperatives to women members, the Treasurer of the Cooperative 34-B (male), who is a lecturer in a private college in *Baneshwor* area, states:

"Women members who are running small businesses are mostly taking benefits from such cooperatives as they regularly deposit and also take loans when needed. Other women members who are mostly housewives or professionals' wives do not 'care' much since they are not actively engaged in such economic affairs. They are busy in Hindi dharavaahik (serial) all the times when they are free or alone. Only their husbands invited them to 'make' (increase) members of the cooperative, so that memberships within a household can be increased. If these housewives were active in economic activities also, they would definitely bring some changes. But there is no concern of such women. This is not a good thing, considering the objectives of cooperatives in Nepal. Frankly speaking, urban cooperatives are only for male members and women staff. However, it is good that many cooperatives are employing more than 75 per cent *women staff in such cooperatives. Cooperative jobs have been good for girls and women"*

In this context, I got a chance to see a case study carried out by a scholar, Ms Shanti Lama (2015, p. 4) in *Bethan* VDC of *Ramechhap*. She reveals that the *Tamang* women are taking a lead in the cooperative campaign. She further notes, *"Five cooperatives are active in this VDC at present which were initiated during conflict period by some local Maoist cadres. Among them, 3 are led by women. Furthermore, in the Bhalwadi Cooperative, both the executive body and the staff team are totally executed by women members. The members are actively involved in various types of income generating activities such as agriculture, small hotel, grocery shops, carpet production, tailoring, etc. and they have also provided local employments. Local cooperatives have been boon to*

empower women's social and economic empowerment in Bethan area".

This rural area-based case of *Bethan* village has really challenged the socio-economic impacts of urban women as one of the Cooperative managers (female) echoes that urban women are less active than the rural women; even to come to executive body, they need to be forced. In our case studies also, we found that the middle-level women were less active than the others. Based on a separate study in *Kavre*, Sabitri Aryal Acharya (2010) also stated that "utilization of credit is much higher in women compared to men" (p. 154).

5. Conclusions

'Gaun-gaun-maa sahakari: ghar-ghar-maa rojgaari' ('cooperatives in every village create employments in every household') and *'Gaun-gaun-maa sahakari: gharghar-maa bhakari'* ('cooperatives in every village create the food stores for every household') are very famous slogan related to cooperative movement in Nepal. Due to this, the number of cooperatives has reached about 32 thousand in Nepal. However, the main intension of the cooperative is not fully understood yet in many perspectives. Like other business enterprises, cooperatives have limitations. The success of cooperatives is a function of capable management and governance and the ability to adapt to prevailing business conditions.

My critics are that the cooperative should promote the inclusive development issues including gender, ethnicity, class, region, age, ability etc. But the Cooperative Act (2048 BS) and the Regulations (2049 BS) do not speak clearly about the inclusion mandates of such cooperatives. Even, the Cooperative Election Guidelines, BS

2069 does not speak anything about the inclusion issue, for example, how many seats must be allocated for women and men in the executive body? If the NGO Act (Social Organization Registration Act, 2034 BS) and policies spell out a compulsory provision for male/female memberships in the executive committees, why not the Cooperative Acts/ Rules and Policies make similar arrangements? It is clear that gender equality and social inclusion are concepts that have value only when they are put into practice.

The main purpose of the cooperative is to reach the 'unreached' population. Thus, government and cooperative activists should pay extra attention toward this issue. Policy level and practice level interventions are urgent to improve the cooperative movement in Nepal. We should not enjoy the 'propaganda' of total number of members (more than 5 million?) covered in the country, but we should focus on how much rural and remote parts we have covered so far, and why not? It is obvious that cooperatives are boon to empower local communities and create 'social capital' in urban as well as rural areas. A person's social capital includes mutual cooperation, voluntary support, culture of tolerance, insurance, etc. while in needs and crises. To some extent, these urban cooperatives have also played roles in promoting women's participation in 'financial' matters as well as in creating 'social capital'.

Due to limited time of the study, it was not possible to cover larger samples and larger areas although there are vast of opportunities for such studies as there is still dearth of empirical knowledge on such practicalities of cooperative theories, principles and values in Nepal. More in-depth studies, both qualitative and quantitative, on social, economic and cultural impacts of cooperatives in Nepal are immensely required.

References

Acharya, S. A. (2010). *Poverty Alleviation in Nepal: The Role of Cooperative in Nepal. The Journal of Public Administration, 15(1): 151-160.*

Baskota, K. H. (2015). *Ke ho tin-khambe artha neeti? ('What is the 3-pillar economy'?). Global Cooperative Weekly (Nepali). Volume 7, Issue 17, Published on: 2071/10/8/5.*

Condon, A. M. (1987). *The Methodology and requirements of a theory of modern cooperatives. ACS Report Series 18, USA: Agricultural Corporate Service (ACS).*

Creswell, J.W. & Plano Clark, V.L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research (2nd ed.). London: SAGE.*

Dhakal, L. N. (2015). *Samajik Jimmewari ra Sahakariko Lokpriyata (Social responsibility and popularity of cooperatives). Global Cooperative Weekly (Nepali). Volume 7, Issue 17, Published on: 2071/10/8/5.*

DoC. (2014). *Cooperative Statistics, 2071 BS (2013/2014). Kathmandu: Department of Cooperative, Ministry of Cooperative and Poverty Alleviation, Government of Nepal.*

Flick, U. (2009). *An introduction to qualitative research (4th eds.). Sage South Asia Edition. New Delhi: SAGE Publications, Inc.*

Ghimire, K. (2013). *Strengthening Women's Participation- A Cursory Analysis of Women's Participation in Cooperatives in Makawanpur, Nepal. Participation- A Nepalese Journal of Participatory Development, 14, 77-88. Nepal Participatory Action Network (NEPAN).*

GoN. (1992). *Cooperative Act, 2048 BS. Kathmandu: Government of Nepal.*

--- (2012). *Cooperative Nirvachan Karyabidhi, 2069 BS. Kathmandu: Department of Cooperative, Ministry of Cooperative and Poverty Alleviation, Government of Nepal.*

--- (2015). *Constitution of Nepal- 2072 BS (Initial Draft). Kathmandu: Constituent Assembly- Public .*

Goodwin, C. J. (2005). *Research in psychology- methods and design (4th ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.*

Gorkhapatra National Daily. (2015). *Rastriya sahakari sangrahalaya sthapana (National Cooperative Museum established in Chitwan). Gorkhapatra National Daily News, 20 August 2015 (2072-5-3). Source: http://gorkhapatraonline.com/news/11149*

Harris, A., Stefanson, B., & Fulton, M. (1996). *New Generation Cooperatives and Cooperative Theory. Journal of Cooperative, 15, 15-28.*

Joshi, K.B. (2014). *Participatory project cycle management handbook (2nd ed.). Gorkha, Nepal: Mrs Tara Joshi.*

Kanel, C. N. (2014). *Quality Education and Inclusion Issues in Community Schools in Nepal: A Case Study of a Rural School from Kavre District). Participation- A Nepalese Journal of Participatory Development, 15, 46-56. Nepal Participatory Action Network (NEPAN).*

Lama, S. (2015). *Sahakari abhiyan ko netrittwa gardai Kavreko Bethan chhetra ka Tamang mahilaharoo (Tamang women taking leads in the cooperative campaign in Bethan area of Ramechhap). Global Cooperative Weekly (Nepali). Volume 7, Issue 17, Published on: 2071/10/8/5.*

Mautner, T. (2005). *The Penguin Dictionary of Philosophy (2nd eds.). England: Penguin Books.*

Miyake, K. (1991). *Rainbow over Rochdale: The story of the birth of the cooperative. Tokyo: Ienohikari Shuppan Sogo Service.*

Oluyombo, O.O. (2012). *The role of cooperatives in rural finance: evidence from Ogun State, Nigeria. Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, Montfort University, Leicester, UK.*

Poudel, I. B. (2012). *Cooperatives: A Basic Concept. Participation- A Nepalese Journal of Participatory Development, 13, 101-104. Nepal Participatory Action Network (NEPAN).*

Shakya, S. (2010). *Sahakari Bikas ko 50 Barshiya Grantha (50th year of cooperative movement in Nepal). Kathmandu: NFSCUN.*

Smith, J.A., Flowers, P. & Larkin, M. (2009). *Interpretive phenomenological analysis- theory, method and research. London: SAGE.*

Stake, R. E. (2000). *'The case study method in social inquiry'. In R. Gomm, M. Hammersley, & P. Foster (eds), Case Study Method. London: SAGE Publications, Inc.*

Toyomane, N. & Sunar, T. (2014). *How to Promote GESI-responsive Participatory Development in Nepal: GEMSIP's Approach and Lessons Learned. Participation- A Nepalese Journal of Participatory Development, 15, 27-38. Nepal Participatory Action Network (NEPAN).*

UN. (2009). *Cooperatives in social development: report of the Secretary General. United Nations (UN)- General Assembly, 13th July 2009.*

Yin, R. K. (2014). *Case study research design and methods (5th eds.). New Delhi: SAGE Publications, Inc.*

The author is currently pursuing his PhD in Development Studies from Kathmandu University.
Email: chetnathkanel@gmail.com, chetnk@yahoo.com

Education for Girls: Can the Target be Achieved ?

- MEENAKSHI DAHAL

Abstract

It aims to discuss on the factors influencing for the girls education in Nepalese context. The role of government is to ensure equal access to education for all citizens of the country. And the girls are the primary receiver as education for all has given greater emphasis for increasing girl's participation in education. The challenge is not only to increase accessibility but also to retain girls in the school till secondary education. Access to education is largely dependent on geographical location and socioeconomic situation and cultural practice of the family. Many social, economical and cultural obstacles still prevail that prevent girls from harnessing education opportunities. The present trend shows girls are still behind to be empowered with education and being enabled to have greater access to resources and opportunities. There is high risk of dropout than the enrollment among girl students.

Key Words: girl's education; empowerment; gender equality; education for all; access to education

1. Introduction

Education is the fundamental rights of people. Education helps to pave the way to development of an individual and ultimately to the development of the society. The benefits of education are multiple. Education streamlines the overall personality of an individual for enhancing his/her quality of life, financial gains, and ensures satisfactory employment and productivity which eventually benefits the society and the nation. Enhanced productivity with cultured personal behavior as outputs of education can contribute to achieve economic growth and establish and strengthen social values and cohesion among the people. The government is anticipated to ensure that each citizen of the country has access to education. In our context, girl education is very important and should receive emphasis for several reasons if we are to achieve the targets of EFA as a part and parcel of the MDGs.

Providing education to the girls yields higher social rate of returns. If mother is educated all the members of the family get an opportunity to learn. As girls are the potential future mothers, therefore, sending them to the schools results in improved maternal and child health, lower fertility rates with appropriate birth gaps and family planning, increase in earning potential and support for family income and ensured environment for future children to go to school. Thus a *continuum* in education over generations can be established. Women education is linked with one of the best strategy for poverty reduction. The gender disparity in primary and secondary education and the political, social, and economic obstacles tare the indicators that have kept women in poverty (DFID 2000 as cited in Robinson-Pant 2004). Investment in girl education also supports to protect social originality, cultural values and norms, leading to reduction in social discrimination as well.

The national target is set to provide equitable opportunities to the girls for education. The poverty reduction strategy paper of the Tenth Five-year Plan has stated that inclusion and gender mainstreaming is the key to reducing poverty. The Three-year Interim Plan (2007/08-2009/010) has reflected the importance of ensuring gender equity for gender equality. Facilitations from the government agencies of all sectors for women empowerment is the priority for national development. And ensuring equity in education is taken as a tool for women empowerment and gender equality. It is also in the line of Millennium Development Goal (MDG) to ensure access to complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality to all children especially girls from underprivileged poor and marginalized community (UNESCO 2000). Another important goal is improving levels of literacy, particularly among women.

Government of Nepal has started implementing programs in this direction by formulating gender responsive budget from the fiscal year 2007/08 under the leadership of Ministry of Finance and this strategy continues in the present as well. This is one of the effective approaches to mainstream women in policies and plans. It helps to reduce inequalities and supports to promote women's participation in educational, economic, social and political activities.

Globally girls are behind their boys counterparts in education. Nepal is also one of the nations where high number of girl children is out of school. Girls are either dropped out or never enrolled at schools. The access to education for girls is a familiar term for many of us. Many efforts have been put forward from government as well as I/NGOs to provide girls with education opportunity. The Government of Nepal with the support of bilateral/multilateral agencies and other governmental and nongovernmental organization is working for the expansion of network of educational institutions and facilitating the access of deprived sections of the society including girls to the education. The programs mainly focused on improving efficiency, enhancing quality, and achieving equitable opportunity for all. One of the biggest challenges to achieving the goals of education for the countries like Nepal is the access of the schools for all. And still a huge number of girl children are out of schools, either they have not access to or they are dropped out of the school. Ensuring equitable opportunities for joining and maintaining presence in school for the girl children is another key challenge as we still have tendencies for reproducing the gender inequalities within the society.

This paper mainly argues that despite the policy provision there are number of girls who are still out of schools. Why these girls are not entering within the school systems? What are the limitations of the girls' education and what can be done to bring all girls into the formal school education?

2. Social situation of girls in relation to education

Access to education is largely dependent on geographical location and socioeconomic situation of the family in question. For example, let us understand these two situations: "My father married another woman, when I was two years old. Then when I was four years my mother married with another father. I have one sister now. Four years ago my mother went to Qatar for job. I don't know about her. I was with my step father. He is drunkard and always bit me. So I came in this house. I like to go to school but no one is ready to help me. At least I am safe here and having good food (Samjhana Chaudhari, age 10 years)."

"I study in class five. The number of girls is greater than that of boys in my class. Girls are talent and mostly take first and second positions in the class. My parents always encourage me to study. They give me whatever I asked for related to my study (Reena Shrestha, age 10 years)". These above statements represents two different situations of the girls. The first one is taken from rural village of Nawalparasi and the second case from Kathmandu. We can get many more different but real stories of the girls deprived of opportunities to get education. By observing the situation and analyzing on my own I asked the question to myself "Can we predict and generalize the educational opportunities for the girls?"

In rural contexts girls are not yet a priority for many parents in Nepal. Being a patriarchal society preference has been given to the son. Many parents consider a girl child to be a burden, as they think their daughters have to go to their husband's house. Parents instead of educating them, they prefer to teach household works to their daughters. Parents are more concerned towards daughters' characters rather than their good education. These socio-cultural practices are some of the reasons to bring out girls from schools.

The involvement of girls' in domestic work is excessively high. Studies reveal girls between 5 to 9 years of age contribute 3.39 hours to domestic work and girls between 10 to 14 years of age contribute 7.31 hours a day (Tuladhar, 2007). This data shows that the contribution of girls to economic activities hinder their education as well as social status. This can be one of the reasons why parents are not interested to invest in education for the girls.

3. Theoretical belief on girls' education

To increase the access and number of the girls in school it is relevant to follow the discriminative actions between boys and girls. It could be a positive discrimination. But the principle of equal treatment in ethics is relevant here (Corson, 1998). According to the principle, it is obligated to people to treat everyone in life equally unless there is some relevant difference in the person or the setting that gives grounds for treating them differently. It is found difficulty to identify and raise voice for those groups who are not prepared and identified for mainstream of educational opportunities.

Among the different feminist perspectives the issue is trying to see through the perspectives of liberal and social feminism. Liberal feminism deals with providing equal opportunities to the boys and the girls. There should not be any kind of discrimination in between girls and boys.

Here in this case gender discrimination is the result of the cultural determinants and practices. The liberal perspectives assert the equality of men and women through the political and legal reform.

The gender equality can be seen in terms of access and level of achievements. The girls are prepared for household tasks and decision of schooling is made by other members of the family specially men. Therefore by an individualistic form of feminism and theory, which focuses on women's ability to show and maintain their equality through their own actions and choices. This is not practical for the majority of rural women in Nepal. Liberal feminism looks at the personal interactions of men and women as the starting ground from which to transform society into a gender-equitable place. There are institutional biases which always discourage women to participate in education. "The UNESCO EFA monitoring report 2003 began to address the need to know more about the nature of gender inequalities and equality interventions in curriculum and pedagogy (UNESCO, 2003, as cited in Unterhalter, 2005). For the better implementation of equitable practices the establishment of better and effective laws and the eradication of institutional biases are the important options.

Following the social feminist versions by removing the economic and cultural domination of the girl's equal opportunity can be provided. There is a role of capitalism as well as patriarchy in Nepalese context. Therefore there are multiple spheres by which girls are always oppressed. There are class, gender and economic discrimination. Gender and caste phenomena are the key for the domination of the girls. There is always domination of those groups which have no voice. Girls in our case are the voiceless and they need some strong voice for their rights to education. It is therefore in favor of the reestablishment of the voice (of the voiceless) (Subaltern can't speak).

There are no hard and fast options for the group which are always oppressed. The process can be begun with adopting the principle of educational equity with priority and designing school's mission for providing appropriate room to compromise with barriers for those lower achieving students that is girls. Paulo Freire addressed on the building pedagogy for the oppressed and the pedagogy of hope. The theory supported to create favorable environment for the education of the girls. It can be the access or be the encouragement for all the girls to have opportunities to go to schools earliest possible. His views are to design the curriculum for the learning of life skills and from environment in which they are growing up.

The social coherence can be maintained by balancing the power between men and women. Education is the tool for contributing social development and power balance. In this regarded pattern of social interactions are rituals which are serving to label individuals as so called deviant behavior. Due to which girls are labeled as a worker group and boys are the superior. From the inter-actionist perspectives every day experiences of life within the socio-cultural context of the society helps to maintain the micro- social order and is gained by equity in education.

4. Policies for increasing girls' enrollment in schools

The government of Nepal has formulated policy to provide opportunity of basic education for marginalized groups of poor and rural populations, disadvantaged social groups, and females. It is implemented by the nation since last few years. Nepal has also participated at the World Education Forum in Dakar in 2000, and adopted the

Dakar framework of Action for achieving the goals of education for all (EFA) by 2015. The agreed goal is "to ensure that by 2015 all children, especially girls, children in difficult circumstances, and children from ethnic minorities, have access to complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality (UNESCO, 2000). Another important goal is improving levels of literacy, particularly among women. Now the programs are implementing in line with EFA commitments.

In Nepal the EFA policy documents highlighted to emphasize on the inclusiveness in all aspects of education reducing gender disparity (EFA policy, 2004). Special measures are followed for girls and the children of disadvantaged communities and ethnic minorities to complete primary school cycle. There are provisions of scholarship for girls. There is a program to provide extra incentives for the parents whose daughters are retained at school to let them complete grade 2 and above (EFA/NPA, 2003). Government of Nepal has also planned for alternative schooling programs to facilitate children in difficult circumstances especially for those children who are in remote and deprived areas.

The EFA/NPA has continued the Basic and Primary Education Program (BPEP) by prioritizing access to and improving status of girls and women's education. Target made by EFA by 2000 to 2015 in gross enrolment rate of girls is 141 to 102 percent. In School Sector Reform Program (SSRP) also it is clearly written on the objectives of the basic education is to ensure equitable access to quality basic education for all children in 5-12 age group. To ensure free and quality basic education for all children of age 5-12 years is the states responsibility. Government has to ensure the equitable participation in basic education. SSRP has made the

provision of scholarship for 50 per cent Girl students (need based selection by the SMC). In addition there are the provision of free education for the girls which include cost free services for admission, textbooks, tuition and examination (SSRP, 2009). To remove the disparities special provisions are made for the children in Karnali Zone and for the children from Dalit, with disabilities and girls throughout the country.

There are other significant numbers of targeted scholarships for girls, along with Dalits, specific Janajatis, and children with disabilities. There are also provisions of incentives such as mid-day meals, oil-for-education, take home rations which have been implemented by both the government and the World Food Program (WFP) in areas where enrollment and attendance rate of girls are comparatively low. According to a study conducted by World Food Program in 2006, school feeding programs have led to significant improvements in enrollment and attendance, and reduced dropout rates for all children, but particularly in the case of girl children (WFP, 2006).

5. Girls' education status and present practices

The level of education is correlated with equality of income distribution (Psacharopaulos and Woodhall ,1985). The expansion of the school is more likely to foster equality of opportunity but meritocracy and access to higher education may be confined to socially more privileged students. In this case, girls are always behind. Reviewing the report of Millennium Development Goal (MDG) shows that the status and trends of improvements in the three indicators related to education goal.

Comparing the progress of different indicators from 2000 to 2009, the data

shows the increasing ratio of enrollment of the children at schools. Among them NER in primary education in1990 is 81, in 2000 is 86 and in 2009 is 93.7 respectively. While EFA 2009 target was 96.9. Similarly, survival rate to grade 5 is 63 in 2000, 79.1 in 2005 and 77.9 in 2009. However the EFA 2009 target as 85, the above mentioned data shows we are still under the target.

Millennium Development Goal has been given that the NER by the end of 2009 is 93.7 per cent and the retention rate till grade 5 is 77.5 per cent. This data shows that there is high risk of dropout than the enrollment. There have been gradual improvements in both the dropout and repetition rates for the entire five primary grades since 2005. However, grade 1 continues to have the highest dropout rate (at 9.9 in 2009) and repetition rate (at 26.5 in 2009) (NLFS, 2008). Among the drop outs and repeated, number of girls are high.

While reviewing the flash report disseminated by Department of education, the total number of students at primary, lower secondary and basic level is 4,335, 355; 1,835,313; and 6,170,668 respectively. The number is decreased by 2.4 per cent at primary and increased by 2.7 per cent at lower secondary level from the previous school year. Of the total primary, lower secondary and basic level enrolment, 84.6 per cent; 84.2 per cent and 84.5 per cent are in community schools and 15.4 per cent; 15.8 per cent and 15.5 per cent are in institutional schools (Flash report 2014/15). This shows that the institutional schools serve around 15 per cent of children in basic education.

The average Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) in ECD/PPCs is 77.7 per cent with 77.3 for girls and 78.1 for boys. Of the total enrolment at school, girls' enrolment constitutes more than 50 per cent at all

levels i.e. 50.8 per cent at primary level, 50.7 per cent at lower secondary level, 50.8 per cent at basic level. Of the total enrolment 7,542,393 students at all levels, 50.6 per cent are girl students. The overall survival rate to grade five is 86.8 per cent, with 87.5 per cent for girls and 86.5 per cent for boys. Similarly, overall survival in grade eight is 74.6 per cent, with 76.0 per cent for the girls and 73.3 per cent for boys. These data also shows that despite many operational and policy level efforts there are still a lot to do to bring all the girl children in the school system. According to the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS, 2011) data, there are 7,978,913 children of the age group 5-12 in the country. The highest percentage of out of school children are in age groups five, six and sixteen.

6. Obstacles to girls' participation

The majority of the world's 1.3 billion people living in poverty are women. Of the total estimated 855 million people in the worlds (one-sixth of the population) without to schooling are women and girls (UNGEI, 2002, as cited in Unterhalter). Figures disaggregated by sex, but not by race, show that the literacy rate for women, worldwide is 71.48 per cent compared to 83.71 per cent for men. In developing countries, the literacy rate for men is 59.19 per cent, while for women it is only 39.3 per cent. Of the 130-million school-age children who do not receive an education, 73 million are girls. Of the 960 million illiterate adults two-thirds are women. Although these statistics are not disaggregated by race, other evidence suggests that women and girls of disadvantaged racial, ethnic, immigrant and indigenous groups have fewer educational resources. Women's lower rate of literacy, school attendance, access to education and participation in training programs are marginalizing them in the public sphere and affects their awareness (Antonovsky, 2008).

Risk factors for girls to be out of schools are 2.6 times higher than that of boys (Tuladhar, 2007). The numbers of girls drop out is higher in secondary level of education than that of other levels. The reason is that girls are required to be involved in heavier domestic work by the time they reach the age of secondary education.

"At the more practical level two factors restrict girls' access to schooling: one, parents' worry about their daughter's marriage and the other, traditional role given to women that any substantial economic support (Parajuli, 2008)". Due to the cultural belief the practice of early marriage is still common in the rural areas so that the girl children are prepared to the household works rather than schooling. Being discriminated by various sides (Being daughter, being Dalit and being poor) they are forced to pull out the children from the school (Parajuli, 2008).

The EFA: 2004-09 program has identified girl children as falling in the marginalized group category (MOE 2004). Even according to MOE data, more than 218,000 children of the official primary school-going-age are still out of school. However the report of Millennium Development Goal has raised the questions on the categorization of the students by gender, ethnicity and caste. There are level of poverty within the caste and ethnicity. There is inequality within caste system. There is a good example of Terai Dalit and Hill Dalit. The same case can be found within various groups of Janajatis. These classifications within Dalit, Janajatis and other deprived groups are not able to identify the status and location of the out of school children properly. The data related to NER of the marginalized groups are not clearly generated. There are also inequalities within the *Madhesi* category,

between the caste and occupational groups (MDG, 2009). Therefore "the issue of gender discrimination in schooling is closely related with existing cultural practices (Parajuli, 2008).

Girls and women from marginalized groups are victims of multiple disadvantages, and their access to schooling is very limited (UNESCO, 2005). And the most common obstacles according to UNESCO are; family decisions (girls education expenses are not taken as a future investment), schools condition (Distance, infrastructure, abuse and exploitation, differential treatment to the girls and competencies related to time allocation and the girls own attitude and experiences. The social intervention to change the attitude of the girls and perceptions of the family members requires more efforts.

7. Conclusions

The government is anticipated to ensure that each citizen of the country has access to education. In our context girl education is very important and should have received much emphasis for if we have to achieve the targets of EFA as a part and parcel of the MDGs. Increasing girls' participation in education is being challenge in globally. Nepal is also facing challenge to make education more accessible to the girls. Another key part is to retention of the girls in the school till secondary education.

The involvement of girls in domestic chores is excessively high. This data shows that the contribution of girls to economic activities hinder their education as well as social status. This can be one of the reasons why parents are not interested to invest in education for the girls. The numbers of girls drop out is higher in secondary level of education than that of other levels. The reason is that girls are required to be involved in heavier domestic works by

the time they reach the age of secondary education. Girls are labeled as a worker group and boys as the superior member. There is high risk of dropout than the enrollment among girl students.

Access to education is largely dependent on geographical location and socioeconomic situation of the family in question. Many social, economical and cultural obstacles still prevail that prevent girls from harnessing education opportunities. The present trend shows education empowered individual being enabled to have greater access to resources and opportunities for being educated.

Some positive results are also appearing with efforts being conducted for the promotion of girl education in the recent years. There have been gradual improvements in both the dropout and repetition rates for primary grades (up to five) since 2005. Many international and bilateral organizations are also providing financial support for the increasing educational status of the girls.

Schools are well oriented for increasing enrollment, retention and continuation of the schooling for the girls. The infrastructures of the schools are also being improved. There are increasing results in GER as well but still there are issues regarding data relevancy.

There is huge gender gap in education. Equality is emphasized only on the equal number of boys and the girls in a school. There are cross-cutting issues regarding obstacles for girl's education. Therefore, until and unless the programs are been designed with adequate funding, clear accountability and monitoring mechanisms targeting the girls from the poor, disadvantaged and marginal groups the universal goal for education for all is hard to achieve.

For increasing the access and number of the girls in school it is relevant to follow the discriminative actions between the boys and the girls. It could be a positive discrimination. But the principle of equal treatment in ethics is still relevant here.

References

Antonovsky A. (2008). The social meaning of discrimination, http://www.jstor.org, Phylon (1960). Vol. 21, No. 1, pp 81-95

Ashley, D. & Orenstein, D.M. (2005). Sociological Theory, classical statements. New Delhi: Dorling Kindersley (India) Pvt. Ltd..

Benson C. (2005). Girls,educational equity and mother tongue based teaching. Bankok: UNESCO.

UNHCR. (2001). Gender dimensions of racial discrimination. Geneva: UNHCR.

Graves, B. (1998). Can the subaltern speak? Political discourse-Theories of colonism and postcolonism. http//www.postcolonial web.org/po;discourse/spivak/spivak1.html

Ministry of Education. (2009). Flash I Report 2071(2014-15). Sano Thimi Bhaktapur: Author

National Planning Commission. (2010). Nepal Millennium Development Goal progress report Singh Durbar. Kathmandu:Author

Parajuli M. (2008). Schooling: the way people see it. Journal of education and Research. Vol. 1(1)

Liberal Feminism; http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Liberal_feminism

Robinson-Pant A. (2004). Education for women: whose values count? Genderand Education. Vol. 16, No. 4.

Smith, M. K. 1997, (2002). 'Paulo Freire and informal education', the encyclopaedia of informal education. [www.infed.org/thinkers/et-freir.htm. Last update:]

Tuladhar S. n.d. Gender and social change in Nepal: educational implications. Society and Education; Occasional Journal of popular education. Forum for popular education.Vol 1, pp 97-110.

Unterhalter E. (2005). Global inequality, capabilities, social justice: the millennium development goal for gender equality in education. International Journal of Education Development.vo. 25

The author is PhD scholar at Kathmandu University School of Education.
E-mail: mee07dhl@gmail.com

Participatory Peer-led Intervention Model for Reducing HIV Risk Behavior among Female Injecting Drug Users

- JHABINDRA BHANDARI

Abstract

In the recent years, drug use is increasingly recognized as a social problem worldwide. People have been using illicit drug due to numerous reasons and its impacts on their overall health and wellbeing have been jeopardized. Evidence shows that drug abuse has profound impacts by affecting the most productive lives of young people in most of the countries. In most of the communities, the HIV risks of female injecting drug users are hidden; and there are increasing needs of cost-effective interventions to change their risk behaviors for community response. Results reveal that peer education has high potential to have profound effects in changing the knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors at the individual level. In this context, participatory peer-led interventions, which primarily focus on behavior change communications have shown significant impacts on reducing the HIV risk behaviors among female injecting drug users in most of the communities and societies.

Key Words: risk behavior; drug use; participatory peer-led interventions; behavior change communication.

1. Introduction

A recent estimate reveals an alarming situation, as there were 183,000 reported deaths due to drug use (UNODC 2013). This also implies that a mortality rate of 40.0 deaths per million among the population aged 15-64.

Globally, the consumption of illicit drug is ever increasing. It is estimated that between 162 million and 324 million people consumed illicit drug in 2012 which shares 3.5 per cent and 7.0 per cent of the global population aged 15-64, had used an illicit drug in 2012. The substance primarily

includes the cannabis, opioid, cocaine or amphetamine-type stimulants groups which were consumed at least once in the previous year.

The scope and extent of the drug use varies by regular drug users. It is found that those with drug use disorders or dependence remain stable at between 16 million and 39 million people. However, this indicates that it is most likely to result in gap to access service provision. Only one in six problem drug users globally have had access to or received drug dependence treatment services each year.

In case of injecting drug use, a most recent estimate shows that there are about 12.7 million injecting drug users around the world (UNODC/UNAIDS 2014) which constitutes a prevalence of 0.27 per cent in the population aged 15-64. The problem of injecting drug use has been found more complex and serious in Eastern and South-Eastern Europe because the problem seen to be 4.6 times higher compared to the global coverage.

There is a close link between injecting drug use and HIV. It is estimated that 13.1 per cent of the total number of people who inject drugs are living with HIV. UNODC, the World Bank, WHO and UNAIDS jointly arrived at a global estimate of the number of people who inject drugs living with HIV of 1.7 million persons (range: 0.9-4.8 million). That situation is particularly pronounced in two regions of the world: South-West Asia and Eastern/South-Eastern Europe, where it is estimated that the prevalence of HIV among people who inject drugs is 28.8 and 23.0 per cent respectively. More than half of the people who inject drugs are estimated to be living with hepatitis C.

Like many developing countries, drug use is one of the important social problems for development. According to a report by the Central Bureau of Statistics (2007), there are an estimated 91,534 hard drug users in the country, and still many believe hard drug use rates are actually much higher.

It is clear that drug use is a significant factor for contracting and spreading HIV and other blood-borne illnesses and diseases. There are evidences that drug users face risky behavior such as unprotected sex and needle-sharing behavior. For example, 56.6 per cent of users in Nepal are Injection Drug Users (IDUs) and analyses report that 29 per cent of IDUs share needles.

There is a growing concern that women have limited access to information but over the years, female drug users are most often overlooked in most of the research studies around HIV/AIDS and their risk behaviors. So, there are increasing needs to understand issues of female drug users.

However, there is still limited information about female drug users and their behaviors. A study (CBS 2007) estimated that 7.2 per cent of the total drugs using populations were women. The issues of female drug users widely vary from those of male drug users and there are limited studies on the risk behavior of female drug users and the effectiveness of interventions targeted to them. In this context, this study aims to understand the risk behavior of female drug users and the effectiveness of interventions targeted to them.

Evidence shows that unsafe injecting drug use will have serious health implications because of the high risks of the transmission of blood-borne infections such as HIV, as well as hepatitis B and hepatitis C, contracted

by sharing of contaminated injecting equipment. The Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) reports that the number of new cases of HIV among people who inject drugs (PWID) remains high, constituting up to 40 per cent of new infections in some countries and resulting in a major public health challenge.

Several estimation studies of the IDUs have been made in the past to address the issues of IDUs across the country. In Kathmandu, IDU estimate is around 5200 to 6760 (2007), Pokhara is 600 (2002), *Jhapa -Morang -Sunsari* - 2300 (2002), 18 Tarai districts – 1200 to1700 (2004), 26 highway districts – 10400 to 14560 (2007), Far Western Hills – 720 to 1140 (2007) and remaining districts account for 830 to 1660 (2007).

Review of existing literature and studies show that there is no comprehensive study conducted among female IDUs to determine both the risk behavior and the extent of their vulnerability. A study carried out in 2002 among 57 female IDUs, found that 16 per cent were HIV positive, showing female IDUs are equally if not more vulnerable to HIV (National Estimates of HIV Infections, Nepal 2007, HSCB and NCASC, 2007. P 16.). It reveals that several factors caused their vulnerabilities such as sharing of needles with their sexual partner, involvement in unprotected sex work to support injecting behavior and sexual exploitation.

There is very limited information and evidence about female drug users regarding the pattern of drug use and their risk behaviors as compared to male drug users. It is increasingly experienced that the HIV related behaviors of female drug users would be more serious for several reasons. Firstly, female drug users are engaged in sex work either for money or drugs. Secondly, female drug users who engage themselves in sex work do not feel that they are at risk of HIV infection because they do not perceive as sex workers.

Thirdly, it is most likely that female IDUs' may not always use condom as their drug dependency and financial crisis will lower their ability to negotiate for safer sex with their partners. Usually, female drug users largely depend on male partners for their access to drugs and injections which lead them to sharing of injecting needles in most of the cases. Fourthly, female drug users face more discrimination and are hence more stigmatized than male drug users, which limit their access to information and preventive services. For these reasons, female drug users are at high risk of HIV infections and contribute to HIV epidemic through their drug injection networks as well as sexual network. There are very limited evidences on this and the risk behaviors of female drug users are thus unknown.

2. Objective

The purpose of this article is to provide a brief overview of both conceptual and theoretical perspective on peer-led intervention model for reducing HIV risk behavior among female injecting drug users.

3. Conceptual Framework

The schematic below provides justification of the factors affecting HIV/AIDS related behavior among female IDUs in Nepal. These factors consist of socio-demographic factors (such as age, marital status, education etc.) and peer-led intervention model is used to reduce the risk of HIV related behavior among female IDUs.
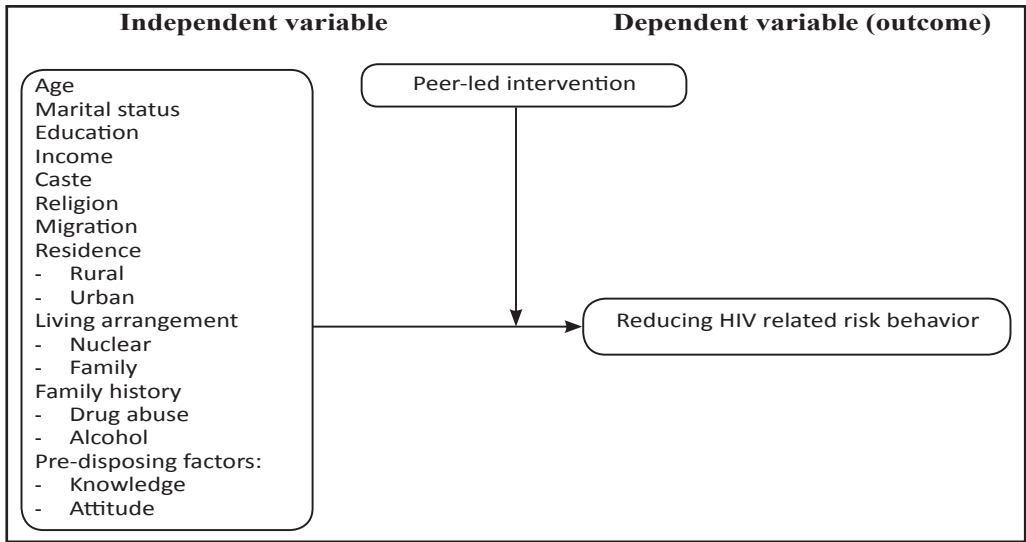
Risk in the context of HIV is defined as the likelihood of contracting HIV. It is mainly associated

with individual's own perception of likelihood of being infected with HIV.

Most interventions among IDUs, as well as among other at-risk populations, attempt to change individual risk behaviors by targeting the intervention at the individual. This tactic stemmed from the recognition that HIV was a pathogen that was spread predominantly, although not entirely, through certain risk behaviors among individuals.

A variety of interventions have been developed, including outreach interventions that targeted individual drug users in their communities to provide information about the risks of infection with HIV and how to prevent it. Some of these interventions were theoretically based and used theories such as the health belief model, the theory of reasoned action, and social cognitive theory.

Many of the individual-based interventions among IDUs have contributed to reducing injecting risk behaviors and, to a lesser extent, sexual-risk behaviors. However, it has not yet been adequately demonstrated whether long-term change and the maintenance of risk reduction can be achieved through an individual approach.

4. Theories

Peer education has been used extensively in different settings for the reduction of risk-taking behavior related to drug abuse and HIV/AIDS. The basic premise in using peer group members as peer educators revolves on the belief that young people learn about drug use and sex from their peers.

Peer education typically involves training and supporting members of a given group to effect change among members of the same group. Peer education is often used to effect changes in knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors at the individual level. In addition, peer education may also create change at the group or societal level by modifying norms and stimulating collective action that contributes to changes in policies and programs. Worldwide, peer education is one of the most widely used strategies to address the HIV/AIDS pandemic.

BCC is an interactive process with

communities (as integrated with an overall programme) to develop tailored messages and approaches using a variety of communication channels to develop positive behaviors, promote and sustain individual, community and societal behavior, and maintain appropriate behaviors. The basic framework in diagnosing a community, group or individual and bringing a change in behavior is used to:

- Increase perception of risk-behavior.

- Develop the skills and capabilities of young drug users to promote and manage their own health and development.

- Foster positive change in their behavior, as well as in their knowledge and attitudes.

BCC strategies at the community level use participatory community and social change techniques to involve communities at the local level.

4.1 Participatory Learning and Action Approach (PLA)

is an approach for learning about and engaging with communities. It combines an ever-growing toolkit of participatory and visual methods with natural interviewing techniques and is intended to facilitate a process of collective analysis and learning is generally meant for community acceptance at the entry of intervention and as formative research to obtain qualitative data. The purpose is to enhance decision making, which helps ensure that change is facilitated and grown from within, without any influence from external sources. PLA approach is used to achieve the formation of partnerships of key stakeholders. This includes mapping, timelines, transect walk and participatory observations.

4.2 Theoretical Framework

The design of interventions for peer-networks is based on different social change theories. This peer-led intervention is designed in a manner that each phase is based on a sociological theory

or a combination of the following theories (adapted from UNAIDS 1999a):

Phase I, II and III:

Social Learning and Cognitive Theories are based on the assumption that individual behavior

is the result of interaction among cognition, behavior, environment, and physiology.

Phase I

Theory of Reasoned Action attempts to explain individual behavior by examining attitudes, beliefs, behavioral intentions, and observed, expressed acts.

Phase II

The AIDS Risk Reduction Model is based on the belief that one has to label behavior as risky before a change can be effected. Once the behavior is considered risky, a commitment is made to reduce the behavior before action to perform the behavior is expected. Fear or anxiety and social norms are considered factors that influence moving from one stage to the next.

Stages of Change is based on the conception that individual behavior change goes through a process involving a series of five interrelated stages.

Hierarchy of Effects models focus on individual behavior change in a linear fashion, which begins with exposure to information and assumes that knowledge, attitudes, trial, and adoption of the desired behavior will necessarily follow.

Diffusion of Innovation focuses on the communication process through which new ideas or products become known and used in a target population.

Phase III

Stages of Change is mainly based on that individual behavior change goes through a process involving a series of five interrelated stages.

Diffusion of Innovation highlights on the

communication process to seek new ideas or thoughts in a target population.

Hierarchy of Effects models aim to enhance individual behavior change and this begins with access to information and assumes that knowledge, attitudes, trial, and adoption of the desired behavior will necessarily follow.

It is evident that intravenous drug use and needle-sharing can transmit HIV. So, an individual who is under the influence of certain drugs is more likely to engage in risky behaviors such as having unsafe sex with an infected partner. The most common way of contracting HIV is through unsafe sex.

Since drug abuse and spread of HIV are closely linked, drug abuse treatment is one of the effective approaches to prevent the HIV infection among the drug users. The drug abuse treatment in most settings primarily includes HIV risk reduction counseling, stop or reduce their drug use and related risk behaviors, including risky injection practices and unsafe sex.

In a cross-sectional study conducted between September 2010 and May 2011, HIV prevalence and risk factors for HIV infection were investigated among female drug users recruited in drop-in centres, parks and streets in the Kathmandu Valley. A total of 269 female drug users were recruited, of whom 28 per cent were found HIV positive; the majority (78%) being injecting drug users and aged below 25 years. (Ghimire B., et al., 2013)

A study in Montreal among active drug users found that increasing injection frequency is highly correlated with HIV transmission, as it may reduce the chances of sterile injecting equipment being used each time. (Bruneau J., et al 2001). Also, where group injecting is common, women may be the last to use the needles/syringes; this may have strong implications with regard to the spread of HIV.

A Meta analysis by Medley et al. (2009) shows that there is a moderate effect on improving behavioral outcomes such as increased condom use among at risk populations such as IDU. Another study by Bindya Jain et al. (2014) has stated that the effect of peer-led interventions on IDUs has been significant to reduce HIV risk behavior in *Harayana*, India.

4.3 Major Contents of Peer-led Intervention:

- Situation assessment with regards to vulnerability of drug abuse and HIV
- Stakeholders' meeting to discuss peer-led intervention approaches
- Baseline assessment
- Peer training on behavior change communication
- Participatory Learning and Action
- Trained peers' train their networks

After intervention of 6 months, there will be a follow up of IDUs every month till 6 months to monitor their risk behaviors and analyze whether there is significant risk reduction behavior among IDUs.

Implementation Design:
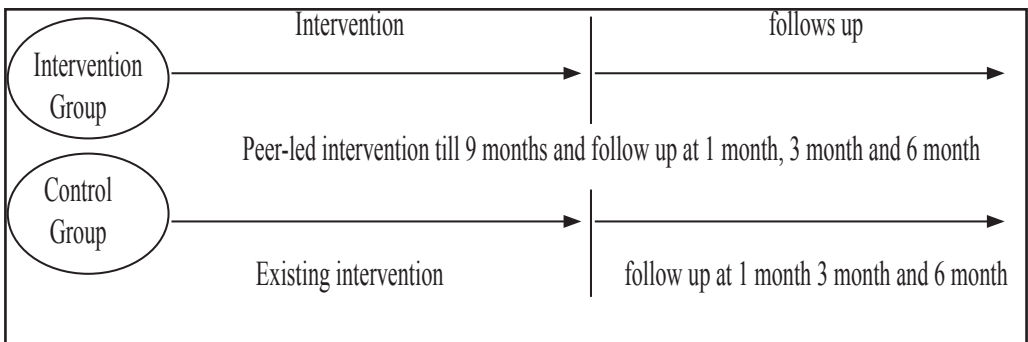
Three phases of interventions is illustrated as below:

Actual intervention starts from phase II which includes following steps:

1. A baseline risk assessment by undertaking KAP survey among both control and intervention groups.

2. Selection of peer volunteers and provides training to peer educators on peer-led behavior change communication. This is a 4 day-long training to peer educators who will facilitate peer networks/groups.

   The outline of four day training sessions mainly includes:

   a. **Skills for Peer-led Interventions:**

   The sessions include profiling a community, resource and vulnerability mapping, observation and listening skills, effective communication and barriers to effective communication.

   b. **Risk, Risk Behavior and Risk Reduction**

   The sessions include: basics of HIV/AIDS and associated behaviors, IDUs, alcohol and sex, knowledge, attitude and skills for peer educators, practicing outreach etc. Role of BCC is important for reducing risk behavior through interpersonal communication, mass media and peer education through participatory learning action approach.

   c. **Life Skills**

   The sessions mainly include identifying and managing emotions, stress management, respecting different viewpoints, leadership skills, and decision making process.

   d. **Accessing Help, Support Systems and Self-help Groups**

   Concept of volunteerism, accessing help, problem solving, empathy, monitoring and evaluation of peer-led interventions etc

3. The trained peer educators facilitate behavior change communication sessions to peer groups or networks

The implementation phase of peer-led intervention is summarized below:

Intervention Preliminary phase	**Intervention Phase I**	**Intervention Phase II**	**Intervention Phase III**
Situation assessment

Vulnerability of drug abuse and HIV

Sensitization on peer-led interventions | Laying out ground for intervention in DICs

Stakeholders' meeting to discuss on the peer-led intervention Baseline of risk assessment of IDUs visiting DICs | - assessment
- Peer training Behavior change communication
- Participatory Learning and Action | Trained peers train their peer networks
- Behavior change communication
- PLA sessions and follow ups |

5. Conclusion

Participatory peer-led intervention is increasingly considered as an effective model to empower the female injecting drug users by providing training on behavior change communications. Such peer-led interventions have significantly reduced the HIV related risk behavior of the female injecting drug users in the families and communities. The scaling up of such cost-effective interventions are extremely important and national HIV/AIDS programs targeted for drug users should promote participatory peer-led interventions for community response.

References

Ambekar A, Rao R, Pun A, Kumar S, Kishore K. (2013). *The trajectory of methadone maintenance treatment in Nepal. Int J Drug Policy. [Epub ahead of print]doi: 10.1016/j.drugpo.2013.06.001.*

Avins, A.L., Lindan, C.P., Woods, W.J., Hudes, E.S., Boscarino, J.A., Kay, J., Clark, W., Hulley, S.B., 1997. *Changes in HIV-related behaviors among heterosexual alcoholics following addiction treatment. Drug Alcohol Depend. 44: 47–55.*

Camacho, L.M., Bartholomew, N.G., Joe, G.W., Cloud, M.A., Simpson, D.D., (1996). *Gender, cocaine and during-treatment HIV risk reduction among injection opioid users in methadone maintenance. Drug Alcohol Depend. 41: 1–7.*

Celentano, D.D., Munoz, A., Cohn, S., Nelson, K.E., Vlahov, D. (1994). *Drug-related behavior change for HIV transmission among American injection drug users. Addiction 89: 1309–1317.*

CBS. (2007). *Summary Report of the Survey on Hard Drug Users in Nepal. Submitted to the Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of Nepal. http://www.cbs.gov.np/nada/index.php/catalog/6*

---(2013). *Summary Report of the Survey on Hard Drug Users in Nepal. Submitted to the Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of Nepal. Kathmandu: Central Bureau of Statistics.*

Chatham LR, Hiller ML, Rowan-Szal GA, Joe GW, Simpson DD. (1999). *Gender differences at admission and follow-up in a sample of methadone maintenance clients. Subst Use Misuse; 34(8):1137–1165.*

Cohen, E., Navaline, H., Metzger, D., (1994). *High-risk behaviors for HIV: a comparison between crack-abusing and opioid-abusing African–American women. J Psychoactive Drugs 26, 233–241.*

Integrated Biological and Behavioral Surveillance (IBBS) Injecting Drug Users (IDUs). (IDUs) in Kathmandu Valley, Nepal - Round V - (2011). USAID, ASHA (2011).

Kelly, S., Schwartz, R., O'Grady, K., Mitchell, S., Reisinger, H., Peterson, J., Agar, M. and Brown, B. 2009. *Gender Differences Among In- and Out-of-Treatment Opioid Addicted Individuals, The American Journal of Drug and Alcohol Abuse, 35:1,38 — 42.*

Lohar, I., and A. Shrestha. (2002). *Empowering Women Substance Users: A Report on Participatory Research. Kathmandu: The Richmond Fellowship Nepal, Women Research Project.*

Longshore, D., Hsieh, S., (1998). *Drug abuse treatment and risky sex: evidence for a cumulative treatment effect? Am. J. Drug Alcohol Abuse 24: 439–451.*

Sharma, B. (2007). *Drug Problem, Treatment, and Rehabilitation in Nepal. Surakchit Jivan: The Nepalese Journal for Drug Control 1(1):27-28.*

Sinha, A. (2009). *Exploring the Social Dimensions of Drug Abuse and Service Interventions in Nepal. SINHAS, 13 (1), pp. 71-115.*

Sorensen, J.L., Copeland, A.L. (2000). *Drug abuse treatment as an HIV prevention strategy: a review. Drug and Alcohol Dependence. 59, 17–31.*

UNGASS. (2010). *UNGASS Nepal Country Progress Report. Kathmandu: National Center for AIDS and STD Control.*

UNGASS. (2012). *UNGASS Nepal Country Progress Report. Kathmandu: National Center for AIDS and STD Control.*

Mr. Bhandari is with NEPAN EC and presently PhD research fellow in public health in Chulalongkorn University, Thailand.

The author is PhD research fellow, Chulalongkorn University, Thailand.
E-mail: talk2jhabindra@gmail.com

Short Communication

Information and Communication Technology Potential for Development: How to Reap Benefits through Monitoring and Evaluation?

- ANOJ CHHETRI

1. Introduction

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) is an umbrella term that includes any communication device or application—including radio, television, cellular phones, computer and network hardware and software, and satellite systems, as well as various services and applications associated with them, such as video conferencing and distance learning. ICT is often considered to be a general purpose technology, much like steam and electricity in earlier eras that has broad economic impact through multiple applications (Conference Board, 2011). The role of ICT in enhancing the economic growth is present in the development sector through a reasonable shift from the traditional approach of monitoring and evaluation. An attempt has been made in this article to explore opportunity generated by the revolution of ICT in the development sector in the broader sense and M&E in particular by linking essentially with ICT progress made around the world.

Policymakers today face a different environment for ICT than the one for which they designed policies. ICT technologies are far more pervasive than they were previously assumed: whilst talking about Nepal as a least developed country by many facets, more than 90 per cent Nepalese people currently but surprisingly possess a mobile phone (based on various media reports and projection made by the Government of Nepal although this is just about 65% based on 2011 census data). With ICT access approaching ubiquity, therefore, policy makers' next challenge is to ensure that individuals, businesses, and governments are making the best possible use of networks and applications to the equitable distributions of development dividends. Countries that have achieved advanced levels of digitization— mass adoption of connected digital technologies and applications by consumers, enterprises, and the governments —have realized

significant benefits in their economy, their society, and the functioning of their public sectors. There are phenomenal cases given in the human development reports published in 2005. One of the examples is related with telemedicine and distance education promoted in many countries around the world including South Asia (HRD, 2005 and Intel, 2009 and ITU 2010, 2011 and 2013) changing pattern of livelihoods.

In this backdrop, this article talks about the potential contribution of ICT in the participatory approach of monitoring and evaluation (M&E). Although there is abundance of documents in the realm of M&E as such and it has been known by various streams, the application of ICT in the M&E has just begun in true sense and its full potential is yet to be realised. The reason for this gap is that there is lack of coherent policy framework on the ICT convergence and penetration in the development sector.

Needless to mention that this is the age of hyper-connection by ICT, which are changing so many facets of life and opening so many new possibilities across individual, society, and business. A prominent economist once asked, "What's the difference between computer chips and potato chips?" The short answer is "a lot." As this fact sheet demonstrates, computer chips—or more broadly defined ICT, including hardware, software, telecommunications, and the Internet— has been, is and will likely remain, for the foreseeable future, the dominant driver of social changes and growth throughout the global economy. Even more than 28 years after the first dot!com website was registered, information and communications technology (IT) continues to be a driver of prosperity (Atkinson,

2013), but who are prosperous? Is the spill over impact of ICT noticeable at the grass-root level? But the moot question is how to measure the impact without any country specific ICT indicators? This is where this article notices a pull factor to drive participatory M&E to be recharged with the full potential of informatics.

Today, ICT has become one of the most important enabling forces for office business. According to the European Commission, the importance of ICTs lies less in the technology itself than in its ability to create greater access to information and communication in underserved populations (Franklyn, C. and Tukur, A. 2012). This viewpoint is reflected by activities going on in villages of some remote districts. A striking example relating with Dr. Mahabir Pun, the winner of 2007 Magsaysay Award who has brought changes in the mountain rural areas by promoting ICT in rural areas, reveals the fact that ICT can hold untold promises not only to the day to day conversation with family members, but also for the ongoing activities run by grass-root level organisations in sharing their good practices and lesson learnt and vice-versa.

In the past few decades, ICT have provided society with a vast array of communication capabilities. For example, people can communicate in real-time with others in different countries using technologies such as instant messaging, voice over IP (VoIP), and video-conferencing. Social networking websites like facebook, linkedin, twitter and many other allow users from all over the world to remain in contact and communicate on a regular basis and share lesson learnt in the development process with development stakeholders (including donors). This is how; ICT has

created a "global village," in which people communicate with others across the world as if they were living next door. For this reason, ICT is often viewed in the context of how modern communication technologies that affect society and its business, as now being furthered by tweaking in the development sector through advanced information management system. There are many ICT initiatives undertaken in India such as e-Choupal which is an India-based business initiative by ITC Limited that provides Internet access to rural farmers. The purpose is to inform and empower them and, as a result, to improve the quality of agricultural goods and the quality of life for farmers (HRD, 2005). ICT is seen as a key to agricultural development in many countries around the world. Discussions and debates have been raised all over to accelerate and accommodate the use of ICT by farmers in rural areas. Huge funds have already been disbursed to many locations to see if ICT innovations can actually coexist with farmers' expectation to agricultural flourish. However, there are gaps and challenges which need to be addressed; one of such is about project **'sustainability'**.

In case of Nepal, ICT for Agriculture**, a** project which built SMS system and Mobile application called **IFA Krishi**, won NCELL App Camp Challenge 2014, Rec@ nnect Award 2014, and ICT for Mountain Development Award 2014, and World Summit Youth Award 2014. This is the first ICT innovation conceptualized in 2013 with an aim to transform agricultural sector. This project has already been supported by US Embassy Nepal, CEAPRED, iDE Nepal and USAID Nepal, and so far covered eight districts and 1500 farmers. SMILES and ASK Foundation owns this project at present.

The role that ICT has played in the M&E is however not explicit at this stage, but major concern being cropped up is based on the lessons learnt about the sustainability of this mode of project. We have realized that this is a cost-involved project which cannot go further on donor-driven model. This has to be dealt in revenue model in order to keep alive the 'spirit' and 'motivation'. Therefore, with the support of KISAN Project, we have now developed a **Business Model Plan**. *This plan includes Needs Assessment, Key Findings, Information Hub Identification, Subscription Fee Assessment, Stakeholder Contribution, Possible Barriers, Ownership Transfer, Financial Sustainability and Key resources, Marketing Plan, Critical Risks, Problems and Assumptions and Cost-Benefit Analysis (https://www.facebook.com/ askfoundation).*

2. Potential Application of MS Excel in M&E

The simple application of advance tool such as Excel feature for development of various spreadsheets culminating into a dashboard for decision-making body with pivot tables and charts is generally untapped source of power of information for timely decision-making process at the grass-root level.

The decision-support system founded on the power of intranet (connection of computers within organisation but located across region or state) supported by up-to-date information from field level will be priceless input for timely and effective action. The participation of program beneficiaries in the productive application of short message service (SMS) as an example through field staff can generate vast amount of real time information on regular basis through regional hub. The Participatory M&E tools and techniques such as social and resource maps, Venn diagram can be used for GIS
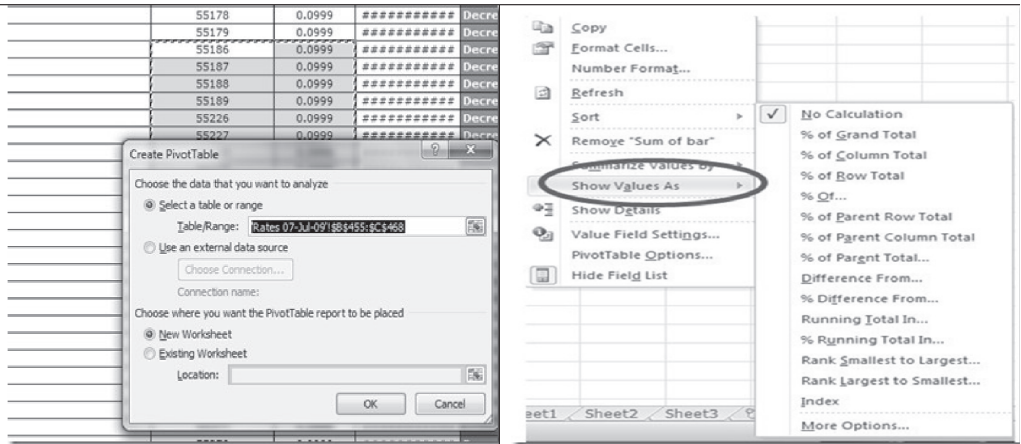
which will be linked with MIS to ensure correct, precise and timely decision at both operation, tactical and strategic levels of management. That being stated, however question of affordability, accessibility and usability remain formidable challenge for many organisations at the Nepali hinterland, therefore the pragmatic application of ICT approach at the grass-root level has got to be developed.

This will bring positive changes in the mode of usability of M&E report particularly by the public sector such as Government and non-government organisations. The culture of information burden and information sink will also go away when we develop real time practice of ICT application in M&E. The mundane form of SMS usability (hospital notification of report by SMS as an example) and processing of information through MS office such as Excel spreadsheets and its linkage with MS Access bring

meaningful changes in the application of M&E tools and techniques. The real time use of M&E outputs for strategic reasons of organisation will be meaningful. The fruitful application of social media such as Linkedin and facebook turn pages of M&E reports towards its applicants to generate socio-cultural-politico and economic value. Let's think how a mobile telephony on the hand of a vegetable farmer generates valuable marketing information that reflects changes due to development intervention. Let's think how we can consolidate bits of information from community through ICT at real time and feed in senior management when it needs for strategic and informed actions.

Source: folpynsea.com
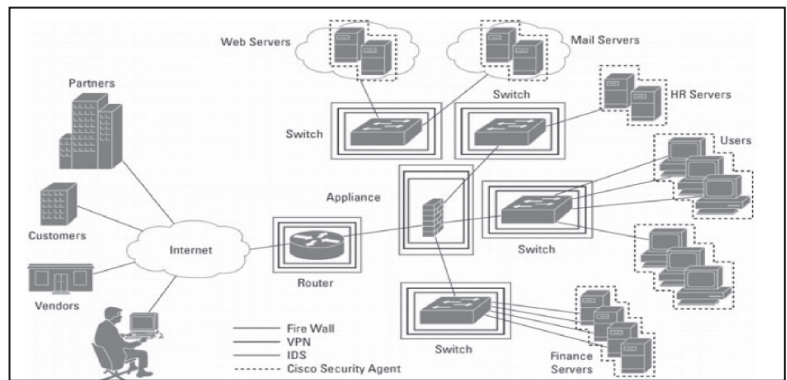
On another note, although it might seem counterintuitive, hyper connectivity could be a boon to sustainability of environmental intervention. The Internet of things presents an opportunity to eliminate human intervention in many types of business and civil operations thereby ensuring environmental protection. As importantly, robust virtual environments can drive reductions in carbon emissions because major activities (e.g., education, medical care, government-related activities, and retail sales) can take place without requiring physical travel for the subjects' involved hyper connected workforce, who can work from anywhere and are able to take advantage of existing housing stock and urban infrastructure.

For instance, one of the biggest challenges facing most urban centres like Kathmandu is vehicular traffic and transportation. Opportunities to re-envision the travelling experience through the use of hyper connected transport systems are plentiful. Intelligent transportation systems—which include synchronized traffic and notification systems, on-board tele-metrics, and dynamic signalling—have the potential to encourage eco-driving, reduce congestion, assist with routing and journey management optimization, and enable pay-as-you-go pricing for road usage. Moreover, smart logistics solutions can enable fleet tracking and passenger tracking, which makes it easier to calibrate food and lodging needs with expected real-time demand.

Furthermore, we must recognize that we are in the very early stages of establishing appropriate ground rules regarding how we—as individuals, societies, companies, and government—will apply them in M&E in light of the availability of new technologies and capabilities. The increased levels of access to information, new possibilities for integrating and sharing formerly incompatible data sources, and the pervasive use of connected devices are in a nutshell something that needs to be discussed further vis-à-vis its significance in the field of development targeted to people on the ground through revised M&E approaches. NEPAN could be potentially a vehicle in this endeavour of information management.

References

Atkinson, R.D. and Stewart, L.A. (2013).Just the FACTS. The economic benefits of Information and Communications Technology. USA: ITIF.

Conference Board . (2011). The Linked World: How ICT is Transforming Societies, Cultures, and Economies. Research Report R-1476-11-RR.Trusted Insight for Business world.

Franklyn, C. and Tukur, A. (2012). Problems and Prospects of Adopting in Agriculture: Some Comments. Federal University of Technology, Yola, Adamawa, State Nigeria. African Journal of Agricultural Research and Development, Volume 5, Number 3, 2012 ISSN: 2141-0097.

HDR. (2005). Promoting ICT for Human Development in Asia (2004): Realizing the Millennium Development Goals. ELSEVIER: Regional Human Development Report.

ITU. (2011). The Role of ICT in Advancing Growth in Least Developed Countries: Trends, Challenges and Opportunities. Geneva: International Telecommunication Union.

_ (2010). Measuring Information Society. International Telecommunication Union. Geneva Switzerland: Place des Nations CH-1211.

_ (2013). Measuring Information Society. International Telecommunication Union. Geneva Switzerland: Place des Nations CH-1211.

Intel. (2009). The Economic Benefits of Strategic ICT Spending. USA: White Paper.

The author is Adjunct Professor at South Asia School of Rural Reconstruction, Kathmandu, Nepal
E-mail: anoj.chhetri@gmail.com

Data Quality Assessment:
A Participatory Tool for Data Verification

- ANITA ADHIKARI

The ultimate goal of the entire process of Data Verification is to improve effectiveness of the database, ensure accurate and reliable data for the present as well as future, and guarantee validity of data.

1. Introduction

Before defining the tool, we first need to understand the concept of data and its importance in a project/program. Data are the facts of the qualitative or quantitative variable and individual figures in the raw form. We can only derive and generate information after we compile and analyze the data. This information is used for reporting and decision-making. Thus every project needs data to track progress of a plan, monitor and evaluate the effectiveness of the program, analyze the context and reach an evidence based decision-making process. Data passes through different stages before reaching the funding agencies via the central level reporting. Any data is first collected at the source before being recorded, transported, processed, and analyzed. Finally, information is derived from the data and reported to the funding agencies. As we can see, in a project, the data are recorded at the field level, then transported to the regional level and then finally reported at the central level. The responsibility of compiling, analyzing and reporting the information to the donor agencies, lies with the central office.

A point to be noted is that it is essential to maintain quality of the data throughout the entire process. The tool that is used to examine the quality of data during the
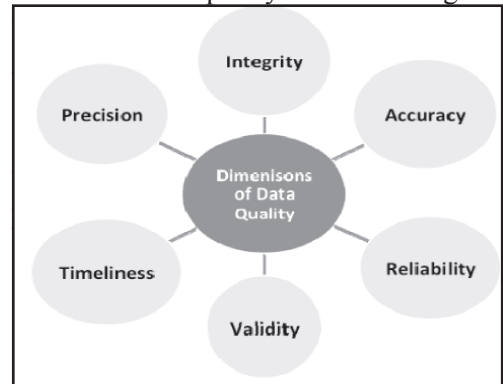
Thus, DQA is the systematic approach to assess and ensure the quality of data over all time and levels. According to The United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), Data Quality Assessment is the scientific and statistical evaluation of environmental data to determine if they meet the planning objectives of the project, and thus are of the right type, quality, and quantity to support their intended use.

In other words, DQA can be termed as a data quality audit as it verifies the data across the levels going through the details for data verification.

DQA reassures that the data fits well with six dimensions of quality. However, the special focus is given on accuracy, validity, precision, reliability and integrity during the assessment.

2. Importance

Any development project produces a huge database, although the effective database management system is entirely another issue for discussion. For all database produced by the project, data quality is a significant factor and thus the DQA is an essential tool to ensure it. Data, which has been periodically verified through the DQA, is powerful as it assures all quality dimensions. Funding agencies tend to rely more on the data provided by projects, which conduct periodic assessment, as this is a hallmark of quality. The DQA is crucial to ensure quality of data and gain donor confidence.

3. Objective

The overall objective of the DQA is to ensure data quality at all levels from field offices right up to the central office. The assessment results determine the accuracy (validity of the data), accessibility (easily available at the time of need), completeness (resourceful), reliability (how authentic the data is), consistency (uniformity of data across levels), precision (sufficient details) and integrity (how honestly the data are collected, recorded etc.) of the data generated. This will consequently help build a strong database management system for the project. It also aims to enhance responsibility and accountability of the staff authorized to collect and document the data.

4. Process

The DQA is a participatory tool where a person responsible for DQA along with the staff involved in database management at different levels, sits together and verify effective database management. It is a mutual process of assessing the data. The DQA is not only about finding out the errors in the data. It is more about studying the challenges and flaws in the database system and providing feedback and suggestions to enhance it.

It may not be possible to carry out the DQA of the whole data set, so specific data is selected to conduct the DQA at specific field office. After the selection of site and activities to be covered, a detailed DQA plan needs to be prepared. A separate checklist is required for each specific activity depending on nature of activity. A checklist is a must for conducting the DQA as it guides the whole process. The DQA plan needs to be shared with the respective staff at field offices beforehand so that s/he

can make adequate provisions for efficient DQA process.

Based on the plan and the checklist, the designated person conducts the DQA at field office. Basically, persons under M&E unit are responsible to carry out DQA. S/he shares the initial findings and feedback for improvement with respective staff at the time of DQA and also shares the final report with findings and recommendations.

It is important to ensure that the database is maintained in a consistent, accurate, efficient and effective manner across the levels i.e. field offices, regional offices and central office. For this, the designated persons from the M&E unit should conduct DQA on a periodic basis. This also contributes towards building a strong database management system.

The DQA not only allows the central level M&E personnel to find out errors and issues in data quality, it also provides opportunities to learn about loopholes in the data management process and provides ample chances to improve the effectiveness of the data management system.

For instance, if a project at central level reported that 100 poor households in X project area have been benefited from the livelihood support activities and provided the detail disaggregated information of the 100 households, the central M&E

staff may want to visit X project area and field office for assessing the quality of data reported by the regional/field office. A detailed plan will be prepared and the M&E personnel will visit the field office and project area to assess the data quality that has been reported by the regional/field office at the central level. The person my visit sample individual households and ask them for the contract paper, their economic status, reassess disaggregates and the status of livelihood initiatives, etc. The DQA staff will visit the field office in the X project area and then can ask for the details of 100 households benefited from the livelihood activities. Likewise, at field office the monitoring of the documentation of essential documents, use of standard database formats, data verification and authentication process, timeliness, data completeness etc. will be assessed. The findings and areas for improvement will be shared with responsible persons for further enriching the database management system.

5. Conclusion

Since this is the new approach for the rest of the organization, the tool itself will be gradually tested and adapted as per need. However the ultimate goal of the entire process is to improve effectiveness of the database, ensure accurate and reliable data for the present as well as future, and guarantee validity of data to the donors for compete and true picture of the project.

The author is monitoring and evaluation personnel.
E-mail: anita_dhkr@yahoo.com

New Arrivals at
NEPAN Resource Centre

- **Changes in Nepalese Civil Service after the Adoption of Inclusive Policy and reform Measures, Support to Participatory Constitution Building in Nepal**

- **Private Sector Involvement and Investment in Nepal's Forestry: Status, Prospect and Ways Forward, Multi Stakeholder Forestry Programme Kathmandu 2014**

- **Value Chain Analysis Of Selected Forestry Based Products Of Rapti Area, Rupantaran Nepal Multi Stakeholder Forestry Programme April, 2014**

- **From Literature to Culture,** Kamal P. Malla

- **The Road to Nowhere,** Kamal P. Malla

- **Development In Practice (Vol- 24, issue 2, April 2014),** Brian Pratt, INTRAC, Oxford, UK

- **Development In Practice (Vol- 24, issue 3 May 2014),** Brian Pratt, INTRAC, Oxford, UK

- **Development In Practice (Vol- 24, issue 4, June 2014),** Brian Pratt, INTRAC, Oxford, UK

- **Development In Practice (Vol- 25, issue 1, February 2015),** Brian Pratt, INTRAC, Oxford, UK

- **Gender in the Himalayas, Feminist Exploration of Identity, Place and Positionality,** Journal, Edited by Shubhra Gururani & Kim Berry, 2015

- **Political Economy of Less Priority Crops in Food and Nutritiion Security of Nepal,** Nar Bikram Thapa, PhD, Jana Bikash Pvt. Ltd., Nepal

---

REQUEST

You are cordially requrested to send your valuable publications to enrich **NEPAN Resource Centre**. We will acknowledge your contribution.

- NEPAN Secretariat

A Nepali Scholar's International Gift:
'Philosophy of Fearism'

When we type "Fearism" a computer, the screen shows a red underline. It means either that the word is wrong or that it does not exist in the corpus of the English language. Yes, "Fearism" is a new word for the world, for all the computers and all English dictionaries. This is absolutely a new word.

And, this new word was invented/used/promoted/advocated by a Nepali scholar- Desh Subba. He was born in Dharan. Now he lives in Hong Kong. He is a famous Nepali poet and novelist. He gave birth to this new word- "Fearism".

After a long 20 year period and a rigorous study on "fear", the Theorist/ Philosopher Desh Subba came with the new word "Fearism". In Nepali language as well, the word "Bhaya" ('dar', 'traas') was there (Brihat Nepali Sabdakosh, 2040 Bs, p. 562/999) , but there was no "Bhayavaad". But now gradually it's becoming common. We can get lots of Nepali literature (poetry and novels) by Desh Subba focusing on "Bhayavaad". And, very recently, he has published a book in English, entitled, "Philosophy of Fearism". It is published by an international (Australian) publisher- 'Xlibiris'. The book (from Bhayavaad) has been translated from Nepali to English by Rajendra Subba and Bhabindra Kumar Rai.

If we see the real meaning of "-ism", the Collins Co-build Dictionary contains three meanings: i) –ism is used to form uncountable nouns that refer to political or religious movements and beliefs; (like Buddhism, Hinduism etc.) ii) –ism is used to form uncountable nouns that refer to attitudes and behavior (e.g. heroism, pacifism), and iii) –ism is used to form uncountable nouns that refer to unfair of hostile treatment of a particular group of people (e.g. racism, sexism) (p.770).

Based on these meanings, the philosopher is more oriented towards the first meaning of "-ism", political or religious movements
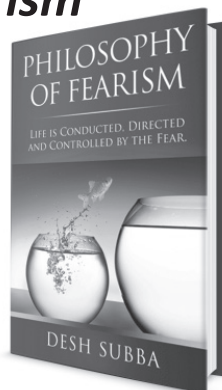
and beliefs. Here we can add a new word 'social movement'. Fear is a societal product. Every human (in real sense, not only human, but also all 'creatures' in this world) ' is born with fear' and 'dies with fear'. Every society lives with fear and walks with fear. Fear is an integral part of life. Without fear no creature exists in this world. This is the theory; this is the philosophy of Desh Subba.

After publishing the English book, Desh has already been honored by many prizes and felicitations in Nepal Hong Kong and also in USA. Very recently, Nepal's national newspaper also published a news with high priority giving title, "3 American awards to Desh" (Desh laai teen Amerikee award)" (Kantipur, 11 August 2015, p. 10). The news says, "……. After publishing the (Philosophy of Fearism) book, Desh Subba has been honored with 3 prestigious American awards in one year period: National Indi Excellency Award, International Book Award, and New York Book Fest Award. His book has now been internationalized..."

Title of the book :	*Philosophy of Fearism*
Author	: **Mr. Desh Subba**
Language	: **English**
Published Year	: **2014**
Publisher	: **Xlibris LLC, Australia**
Total Pages	: **360**
Price	: **not indicated in the printed book** (online purchasing available)

Fearism: some key features

What do you fear the most? A Ghost? An animal? Men? Women? Or, anything else? Or, fear of failing in exams? Or fear of failing in enterprise/ business? What so ever, not only you but I also am afraid of those things and numerous other things. Human life is full of fear. We're afraid more than animals are. We get afraid more than any other creature. And, in our society richer people afraid more than the poorer, older people get fear more than the youths. These are the realities, and all these aspects are well discussed in this book. Published in 2014 (July), the book contains almost 360 pages, with beautiful cover, layout and fine quality of paper. The whole book is divided into 34 sections, starting from the introduction to 'fear' to the 'index'. "Fear has completely surrounded all living creatures, especially (hu)man", he highlights as a leading sentence of his 'Foreword' (p. 11). This eye-catching sentence gives the overall essence of the whole book, 'Philosophy of Fearism'.

In the Introduction chapter, the author has given a summarized version of the Philosophy of Fearism. What is fear?. He has made very good effort in defining 'fear' by providing 21 statements (theories) about fear. He notes, 1) Fear is a beautiful consciousness; 2) Fear is a director of life; 3) Fear is driving force of civilization; 4) Fear is a universe; 5) Fear is a blackhole of space; 6) Fear is an invention; 7) Fear is a light; 8) Fear is a seer; 9) Fear is a mystery; 10) God is fear; 11) Fear is a super power; 12) Fear is an alert indicator; 13) Fear is courage; 14) Fear is an enemy of a person; 15) Fear is beauty; 16) Fear is a powerful weapon; 17) Fear is a controlling mechanism; 18) Fear is a super law; 19) Fear is a guardian of all activities; 20) Fear is a group of psychological effects; and, 21) Fear protects birds and animals.

When we are more aware and we are more conscious we fear more. He writes, "the consciousness is a major cause of fear; it gives us both knowledge and fear". When we read these lines, we may not be satisfied with his philosophy and propositions. This is philosophy. A philosophy is an inquiry. He has inquired much on 'fear'. The dictionary defines the meaning of Philosophy as: "Philosophy is the study or creation of theories about basic things such as the nature of existence, knowledge and thought or about how people should live". Similarly, the Dictionary of Philosophy (Penguin, 1996) describes the word Philosophy as: "Philosophy is an intellectual activity can be variously defined, depending on whether the emphasis is placed on its method, its subject-matter or its purpose. The method of philosophy is rational inquiry." (p. 466).

In the subsequent chapters, he has elaborated his findings based on his study, in-depth inquiry, feelings and experiences. For instance, in chapter 2, he talks about fear system and fear; in chapter 3, he discusses about the 'age of fear' elaborating the historical perspectives linked with fear. "Fear has been on a ceaseless journey since the beginning of human civilization", he concludes in this chapter. Likewise, he has tried to shed light on the questions and issues of 'how does fear occur?', 'fear path', 'sources of fear', ' causes and determining factors of fear', 'scope of fear' in chapters 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 respectively. In the 9th chapter, the author presents a 'pyramid of fear'- which briefly means, "fear differs according to the size of rooms". Here, he justifies by saying that the 'home' is also a small room; then a bigger room is village, then the town/city, consequently, the capital city, and finally the abroad (foreign country) are big rooms, where more fear can arise. He has also illustrated the nature of fear from world perspectives. This is described in 10th chapter.

Similarly, 'condition of fear', 'types of fear', the 'fear circle', 'periphery and relativity of fear', 'fear based on human temperament', fear (tiger) of the heart', are well described & discussed in the chapters 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 16 respectively. In the 17th chapter, the author has made an effort to highlight the 'utilization, effect, and measurement of fear'. In this chapter, he particularly notes that external and internal factors always strike fear from all sides; so, we have not been able to treat fear easily (p. 153). In the same manner, 'fear in medical sector, ' emergence', flow of possible events', probability of fear' are elaborated in chapters 18, 19, 20 and 21 respectively. "Life is conducted, directed and controlled by fear" is the main message of the book. Very important part of the key message, 'life is directed by fear' is thoroughly discussed in chapter 22. He writes,

"Fear conducts, directs, and controls how a man(!) eats, drinks, lives, walks, plays, thinks, reads, and writes from his(!) childhood" (p. 189). This is the main message of the chapter, which is also the 'tag-line' of the book.

Likewise, 'word as a medium of fear', 'fear struggle', 'pyramid of fear', 'fear weapon', 'organizations for fear' are the titles of chapters, correspondingly, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27. In chapter 28, he has tried to compare the Eastern philosophy and the Western philosophy with the perspectives of fear & fearism under the title, 'Fearism dephilosophy'. This is the biggest and main chapter of the book where he has cited different examples from Rahul Sankritayan as well as many veteran Nepali writers, such as- Mohan Raj Sharma, Sanjeev Uprety, Rishi Baral, Jhamak Ghimire, Bishnu Adhikari, Birendra Prasad Mishra, Sachchidananda Mishra, Tulasi Diwas, Tulasi Bhattarai, Gobinda Raj Bhattarai, Ninu Chapagain, Kavitaram Shrestha, etc. Along with this, he has given suitable examples from the Western philosophers including- Charles Darwin (Struggle in existence), Abraham H. Maslow (Fear in necessity order/ladder of needs), Thomas Malthus (Fear in population growth). In the same manner, several discourses on 'fearism' are presented from Marxism perspective, post-modernism perspective as well as 'Bhaya Rasa' (fear taste, p. 259) perspective. We can take this chapter as a main beauty of his research/ book.

In the chapters 29 and 30, the author has been able to discuss about 'fearless path' and ' examples of fearless path'. He suggests numerous measures to minimize or alleviate fear. But he opines, "Our aim is 'zero' fear; nevertheless, it is not possible to achieve cent percent fearless life" (p. 315). The last chapter (31) is the 'concluding remarks' chapter, which presents 14-point summary as an 'abstract' of the book (p. 332-333). In his conclusion, fearism as a theory has been interpreted everywhere. Thus, fearism interprets, investigates, and analyses many things in this way. Fearism unfolds the folded aspects/sides; and, it also opens the closed doors. That's why it's a theory, it's a philosophy. The writer has also provided a long list (in an Appendix) of 'phobia'. Phobia, such as- Achluophobia (fear of darkness), Brontophobia (fear of thunder and lightning), Catoptrophobia (fear of mirrors), Dentophobia (fear of dentists), Epistemophobia (fear of knowledge), etc. The list is very long, containing at least 500 types of phobia (p. 335-350). The author has given the source, they could be found at www.ttp://phobialist.com. The book is really useful to everyone, who wants to know more about fear and phobia. It's a product of long study (I say 'tapasya').

While writing these lines, I have again a big fear that whether the editors would fearlessly accept this write-up or not, because, it has crossed the 'limit of pages' allocated by NEPAN. But, I have also alleviated the fear a bit with a confidence that I have this time reviewed an international book, written by a Nepali scholar; a renowned book, which has won several international prizes as well. This is good opportunity for 'Participation'/ NEPAN as well. Let's congratulate the author, let's salute him! Dor Bahadur Bist discussed much about "Fatalism", and now Desh Subba has come with "Fearism". Let's investigate and promote more "isms" from Nepal.

Limitations

As a reviewer, I must indicate some of the limitations that any reader can find/realize in this book. Firstly, there are no captions in the figures; and, sources of such figures are essential in such books. If those were developed by the author himself, those could also be indicated as "Source: Author, 2014" or likewise. Secondly, the author has used gender-biased words such as- man, he, etc. throughout the text. Using gender neutral words (e.g. human, persons, etc.) is a dharma of present writers. And finally, the chapter division seems to be bit unprofessional. Some chapters could have been combined, so that book could be managed in maximum 12 to 15 chapters; for example, there is no much sense of separating chapters 29 and 30. Chapter 30 could be the second part of the chapter 29, because it deals with the examples of the 'fearless path', which is the main theme of chapter 29. There are other several chapters too, which can be reshuffled. We can hope these limitations would be improved on in the second edition of the book.

- CN 'Harit', National Development Centre, Kathmandu
E-mail: nationaldc329@gmail.com, chetnk@yahoo.com

Book Review

A Good Discourse on the Political Economy of Agriculture in Nepal

Dr. Nar Bikram Thapa (PhD) is a social activist and has proven himself the key to development in the society. He has been contributing for the transformation of society through his active participation for more than 30 years. He has spent the prime time of his life for bringing changes in the societies. The target fields of his support are men, women, children, Dalits, ethnic groups, and the marginalized people of remote areas. He has left no stone unturned in contributing to the society with his ample publications. His Voices of Lasting Peace (2003), Societal Analysis: Politics of Poverty, Injustice and Inequality (2005), Nepalko Yugantakari Jana Aandolan: Rajnitik Samajshastriya Adhyayan (2007) etc are very popular among readers.

This book, 'Political Economy of Less Priority Crops in Food and Nutrition Security of Nepal', has explored the key issues associated with major crops that are still neglected and abandoned in Nepal. It's partly due to political reasons, and partly due to local social & economic reasons. Despite their very important role as a source of living to the people in the remote areas of Nepal, these neglected agricultural crops and wild edible plants have been the 'victim' for a long irrespective of their very high-level of nutrients. There are mainly two reasons: negligence due to lack of awareness among the local people; and, lack of clear policy in order to promote those crops. The author has well advocated these issues in this book.

There is no doubt, the right recognition and utilization of such crops would help to remove starvation and malnutrition in Terai, Hill and Mountain regions of Nepal. The book is very useful to the individuals who are doing research & advocacy work in cultivation, promotion and marketing of less priority crops and the people who want to cultivate such crops as a source of their livelihoods.
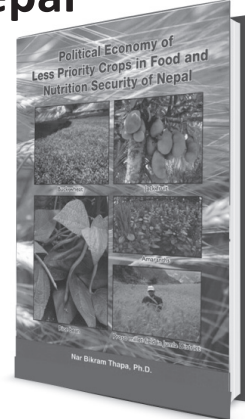
The book- a tool for discourse in agriculture

The book, which is presented in a research report format, contains the brief introduction of less priority crops and their nutritional value in an informative way. The crops like amaranths, buckwheat, cassava, horse gram, niger, perilla, taro etc. are explained in its finding part. It also presents the world-wide scenario regarding the market management of the crops and the level of poverty. It depicts the real global situation of price determination on the foods that are produced locally. The food is produced locally and governed by globally in case of price determination which is injustice for the local farmers as they cannot compete with food produced globally with the help of modern technologies.

The author has also raised voices over the importance of organic cultivation of such crops. The major beauty of the cultivation of less priority

Book Title	:	*Political Economy of Lesser Priority Crops in Food and Nutrition Security of Nepal*
Author	:	**Dr. Nar Bikram Thapa, PhD**
Published Year	:	**2014 (1st Ed.)**
Published By	:	**Jana Bikash Pvt. Ltd.**
Language	:	**English**
Total Pages	:	**78**
Price	:	**NRs. 150/-**

crops is their organic quality which is public health-friendly as well as environment-friendly. The food produced using chemical fertilizers, insecticides and pesticides harm human health. They work as 'slow poison' and kill people due to cancer and other diseases.

The book has been able to advocate the significance of less priority crops that are neglected along with the advancement of technology and growth of population. If they are cultivated in a planned way with the support of government, they can be nutritional security for rural people of Nepal. It has synthesized the nutritional value of less priority agricultural crops and wild edible plants which can be an excellent source to fulfill the nutritional needs of the people in remote areas. The analysis of opportunities and challenges of lesser priority crop species is another beauty of the book. The descriptive part of the book is appreciable. The less priority crop species and edible wild plants & herbs are explained with their usefulness. The description is flowing smoothly.

Critique

Despite the aforesaid qualities of the book, it contains some flaws as well. The first and foremost weakness is the mismatch of the title of the book and its contents. Literally, the title is very intense but the contents are very apparent. The elements analyzed in the book do not do justice to the title. The subject-matter regarding the 'political economy' has got very less space in the book. Actually, it is very difficult to understand what the 'political economy' of the crops is. Thus, the author should have given much gravity to the political economy of less priority crops rather than merely explaining their present situation like a general agricultural book. Further, the book is written in the form of a research work. It is not a 'book' exactly; rather, it is a 'report' as it has embraced the elements of report writing. The writer should have followed the norms of writing a book. Likewise, the book has mostly taken the support of 'internet' as secondary source of information; it would have given much focus on primary sources. Similarly, there are some grammatical flaws in the book.

Hopefully all these flaws will be corrected in the second edition of the book. Congratulations to the writer and have very prosperous professional journey in the days ahead.

- **Khageshwor Giri** (AIA)
Lecturer**, St. Lawrence College**, Kathmandu
E-mail: gkhageshwor@gmail.com

Book Review

Local Feminisms and Feminist Ethnography in the Himalayas

Journal, Gender in the Himalayas is a collection of research articles by scholars who have long-term research with communities in the Himalayan region. Journal include six different articles which allows us to examine the multi-scalar dimensions of regional modernity, as well as to examine the gendered relations and subjectivities that are constitutive of the cultural politics that make and remake the Himalaya. The works highlights the discussion on gendered subjectivities, political mobilization, and activism with three interconnected themes: development as discourse, practices, and imaginative spaces; the co-constitution of gendered subjectivities and new spaces for political mobilization; and feminist methodologies. Articles increasingly draw the awareness to the ways gender intersects with ethnicity, kin position, caste, religion, age and other salient marker of difference within locales. Article in this special issue is related to development not only as sets of practices and institutions, but also sites of imagination and discursive terrain. Further, articles efforts in engaging the question of gender and gendered livelihoods in the Himalayas. By drawing attention to the explicit and implicit inequalities of power between the researcher and the researched, feminist ethnographers have advocated for collaborative, participatory, and dialogic research processes that acknowledge and negotiate the power differential.

In an article titled Single but Not Alone: The Journey from Stigma to Collective Identity through Himachal's Single Women's Movement, research Kim Berry analyzes the emergence of Ekal Nari Shakti Sangathan, a social movement of single women in Himanchal Pradesh. The work highlights how the single women's movement is a response to both feminist activism and development discourse and practices. Further article reflects on how the single women's movement has carved out a space for single women to craft lives of dignity and security, not as supplemental wage earners but as heads of household demanding full rights of citizenship and access to the development program and projects of the state.
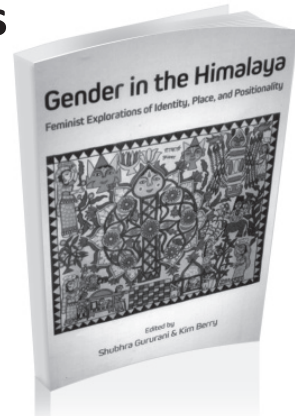
Strategic Deployments of 'Sisterhood' and Questions of Solidarity at a Women's Development Project in Janakpur, Nepal, by researcher Coralynn V. Davis, the writer highlights the history of discourse shaping women's development over the decades. The primary focus of the work is on contested meaning of sisterhood as it operated with the spaces of the Janakpur Women's Development Center (JWDC). As sisterhood has been a prime signifier of solidarity among women, Davis explores JWDC's workers strategic use of the multiple meaning and registers of a variety of words for sisters to negotiate hierarchical differences and conflict of interest. The women producers at JWDC, using the term sister provides access to a world of status and privileged connection whereas the same signifiers are used

Title	:	*Gender in the Himalaya* *(Feminist Explorations of Identity, Place and Positionality)*
Edited By	:	**Shubhra Gururani & Kim Berry**
Genre	:	**Journal**
First Published in	:	**2015**
First Published by	:	**Himal Books for the Association of Nepal and Himalayan Studies and Social Science Baha**
ISBN	:	**9789937597227**
Price	:	**590/-**
Pages	:	**185**

by local women to negotiate ambiguous relations of trust, dependency, intimacy, hierarchy, and difference. It further analyze on women's domestic roles as mothers and wives, to the integration of women into mainstream development, and finally to women empowerment.

Another article titled "Geographies that Make Resistance": Remapping the Politics of Gender and Place in Uttarakhand, India, researcher Shubhra Gururani traces the gendered histories of labor, forest, and liquor in this region, framing landscape as dynamic and co-constituting space, place and identity. According to Gururani, only through gendered and spatialized understanding of regional politics can we come to acknowledge the political agency of women and also begin to craft trajectories of the future that are inclusive, equal and socially just. She further describes how sedimented histories produce not only gendered subjects but also gendered landscapes of work, mobility, livelihood, and gendered resistance. It describes how places, even remote and distant like Uttarakhand, are constituted at the nexus of local and global networks of power and capital, and in turn constitute social relations of difference, like gender, caste, and ethnicity.

Article titled Fields in Motion, Field of Friction: Tales of 'Betrayal' and Promise from Kangra District, India, researcher Radhika Johari intended to offer some reflection and insights on how feminist routes might be carved through a developmentalizing terrain such as Kangra. She aimed to show how an attentiveness to the process and pathways of friction, which propels the movement of people, ideas and resources, offers both necessary and promising routes for collaborative feminist praxis. Further have tried to attempt to demonstrate how a feminist methodology of location work can be used to creatively engage with friction and to map its pathways, some of which many offer divergent flows from mainstream development current towards wider and inclusive processes of social justice and change. Further the article aimed at illustrating the unpredictable effects of friction within and outside of Kangra's development flows, highlighting its genesis and engendering role as contrasting positions and perspectives have articulated across the gaps of development practice.

Article titled Gandhi's Other Daughter: Sarala Devi and Lakshmi Ashram, researcher Rebecca Klenk analyze the life of British born Sarala

Devi and her establishment of Lakshmi Ashram in the Kumaon Hills of Uttarakhand, India for the empowerment of Himalayan women. Sarala Devi felt that Himalayan women needed to be given a voice to become empowered agents capable of trapping into their innate strength and initiating changes in their own circumstances. Article traces the possibilities, contradictions and limitations of Sarala Devi's twenty years of work, following in the footsteps of Gandhi, and forwarding a curriculum to craft Indian subjects capable of realizing a vision of village self-sufficiency. This Essay analyzes (Sarala Devi who founded a training center for women and girls – Lakshmi Ashramin in Kumaon) her translocal work and restless, shifting subjectivity in the context of her transnational position as she negotiated colonial, modernist, feminist, and Gandhian discourse on nation and womanhood in her mission to uplift Himalayan women. Her intervention deployed a Gandian critique of Eurocentric modernity to disrupt colonial feminist assumptions that 'progress' did not exist in village life and that Indian women were incapable of self-empowerment. Her position as a colonial woman doing anti colonial work made it possible for her mission to reform Himalayan womanhood to be taken seriously by male nationalists, despite her marginalized position in Britain.

Political Transformation: Collaborative feminist Scholarship in Nepal, by researcher Andrea J. Nightingale, Katharine N. Rankin, sought to capture the political transition in Nepal. It sought to investigate the emergence of democracy after the restoration of peace in 2006. The article also reflects on how gender and households, which play a fundamental role in the everyday processes of state and political transformation are typically treated as secondary social problem illustrating examples from Khotang, Mugu and Morang and traced governance processes to the center in Kathmandu. Likewise article explores how democratic politics are built from the ground up, through the everyday practices of ordinary people in civil society.

Overall the book is able to engage readers by offering a grounded assessment of the ways that feminist reading of everyday life can illuminate cultural and politics of differences, in inequality and exclusion.

- Susma Poudyal, MPhil Student
E-mail: susminem@yahoo.com

Participation
PEER REVIEW POLICY

All types of articles as well as reviews are peer-reviewed in the ***PARTICIPATION*** JOURNAL. Also, all forms of published corrections may also be peer-reviewed in principal at the discretion of the editors.

1. Reviewing with access code

We ask reviewers to submit their comments via our secure online system by using the instantly generated "access code". The reviewers may use this code only for reviewing. They may submit their comments for the author and confidential remarks directed to the editor. Once the review comment has been sent to the editor, the access code is no longer valid. If the reviewers would like to refer to their reviewed contents on manuscripts, they can confer with the editorial office.

2. Criteria for publication

We are currently receiving more submissions than we can publish. Therefore, we ask reviewers and editors to be more critical to the given manuscript. To avoid accumulation of manuscripts to-be-published and the subsequent delay of publication of valuable findings, the number of the incorporated articles has been gradually increased, with the acceptance rate decreasing during the last three years. To be published in SE, a manuscript should meet our general criteria:

it must provide strong evidence for its conclusions.

it must be of novelty and significance to the related fields.

3. The review process

All submitted manuscripts are read by the editorial staff. To save time for authors and peer reviewers, only those papers deemed by most of our editors and that lack our criteria in terms of scientific merit as well as overall styles are rejected promptly without review. These decisions are also based on informal advice from specialists in the field. Manuscripts judged to be of potential interest to our audience are sent for formal review, typically to two reviewers.

The editors then make the first decision based on the reviewers' comments as follows: accept with or without editorial revisions; request the authors to revise their manuscript to address specific concerns before final decision is made; reject.

4. Evaluation category

In addition to the review comment, we provide evaluation categories so that the reviewers can answer the specific questions on the manuscript, which is helpful to the editorial staff for further processing. The evaluation category includes:

· **scientific quality:** high, good, acceptable, poor;
· **significance of research:** high, good, acceptable, poor;
· **priority:** high, acceptable, low;
· **style:** clear and concise, acceptable, low;
· **length:** appropriate, acceptable, too long, too short;
· **language (English writing):** appropriate, acceptable, poor (proofreading required).

EDITORIAL POLICY

The *PARTICIPATION* is an international English journal published annually. The manuscripts submitted for publication must be previously unpublished research works written in English language, which are not being considered for publication elsewhere. All the papers will be critically read by at least two reviewers who are selected for their competence in the subject matter of the paper.

Acceptance of the paper will depend upon its scientific merit and suitability for the journal. A paper may be accepted in its original form or accepted subject to revision. The reviewers' (and editor's) suggestions will be conveyed to the author without identifying the reviewers and the author will have an opportunity for revision as well. If a manuscript returned to an author for revision is held longer than two months, or if revision is sufficiently extensive, the date of the receipt of the revised manuscript will be substituted for the initial date of receipt.

Galley proofs for an accepted article will be sent to the corresponding author for correction. These should be returned to the editorial office within the requested time. The content of an article cannot be changed during galley proof reading.

Thank you,

Editorial Board

PARTICIPATION Annual Journal, NEPAN

The *PARTICIPATION* **Journal** is a multidisciplinary peer-reviewed journal published annually by NEPAN. It is dedicated to increasing the depth of research across all areas of social science especially on social protection, inclusion and participatory methods and processes.

Call for Papers

PARTICIPATION welcomes the submission of manuscripts that meet the general criteria of significance and scientific excellence in this subject area, and will publish:

·   original articles in basic and applied research

·   case studies

·   critical reviews, surveys, opinions, commentaries and essays

We invite you to submit your manuscript(s) via **email at <u>nepan@nepan.org.np</u>** for publication. Our objective is to inform authors of the decision on their manuscript(s) within four weeks of submission. Following acceptance, a paper will normally be published in the next issue. Instruction for authors and other details are available on our **website at <u>www.nepan.org.np</u>**

Letter to the Editor

Dear Editor,

Participation- Nepalese Journal of Participatory Development, NEPAN

I am a new reader of "Participation". I got chance to read the 15th issue published in 2014. In the first glance, I was impressed with the quality of the articles. All the articles included in this issue are very insightful and informative. I found all the published articles timely, relevant and very useful for development practitioners and academicians to understand the present contexts of Nepalese development.

Firstly, as I am a student of Development Studies, the article entitled "An Evaluation Study of Food and Nutrition Project, Dailekh, Nepal" by Dr. Nar Bikram Thapa helped me to understand the evaluation processes in brief.

Secondly, "Participation" as its name, has included all the current development issues like children, gender, education, health, food security, nutrition etcetera. These are the positive sides of the journal.

Thirdly, the articles "Children's Participation in Nepal: Rhetoric to Reality by Dr. Bhola Prasad Dahal and "Child Participation through Children's Clubs: Perpetuating Exclusion and

Inequality in Kapilvastu and Pyuthan Districts" by Indra Mani Rai are very informative and have given clear picture of current status of Nepalese children.

Lastly, I want to congratulate "Participation" editorial group, peer reviewers and all the helping hands for good work and wish all the best for every success in coming days.
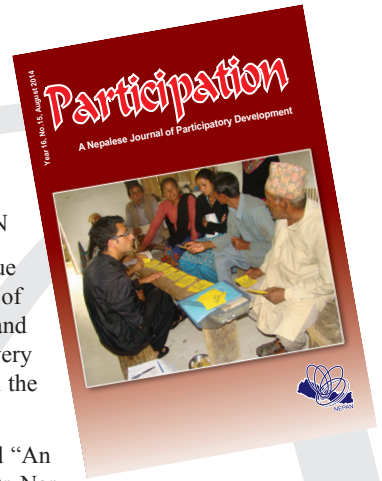
Meera Shrestha (Dharan)
Now- Lalitpur-3
Email: me.meerastha@gmail.com

Become a NEPAN Member

Be in the mainstream of participatory development process in Nepal

Membership Fee (Rs.):

Type of Member	Reg fee	Annual	Life
Individual	300/-	1,000/-	5,000/-
Institutional			
i. CBOs		600/-	4,000/-
ii. Local NGOs		1,000/-	4,000/-
iii. National NGOs		3,000/-	12,000/-
iv. International NGOs	5,000/-	20,000/-	

Monitoring & Evaluation-related articles published in previous issues of *PARTICIPATION* Journal (Issue No. 1 to 15)

Vol./ Issue No.	Published Year/ Month	Title of the article	Author(s)	Remarks
Year 1, No. 1	1999, June	Towards participatory watershed management: An experience of Bhusunda Khola Watershed Project	Basanta Kumar Rimal	P. 9-14
Year 2, No. 2	1999, June	Participatory monitoring and evaluation (PM&E)	Chandi P. Chapagain	P. 27-29
Year 2, No. 2	2000, June	Attitude and behaviour of PRA practitioners: A reflection of Nepal's experiences	Lamu Sherpa	P. 33-34
Year 3, No. 3	2001, June	Forest User Group development process	Judith Van Eijnatten	P. 24-32
Year 4, No. 4	2002, July	Conflict analysis & impact assessment of development programmes and projects- An introductory framework to development professionals	Dr. Bishnu Raj Uprety	p. 13-17
Year 4, No. 4	2002, July	Joint evaluation of micro projects: an evolving public auditing approach to strengthen forest user groups	Brahma Dhoj Gurung	p. 24-27
Year 4, No. 4	2002, July	Let's learn from Doon Valley	Jhabindra Bhandari	p. 28-29
Year 4, No. 4	2002, July	How do intermediaries complement: Experiences of Helvetas- L-Link Project	Bishal Bhakta Kasu	p. 30-32
Year 4, No. 4	2002, July	Capacity strengthening of partner organisations: Experiences of SNV Nepal	Tej Raj Dahal	p. 33-34
Year 4, No. 4	2002, July	Implication of income generating programme on gender empowerment- A case study	Dr. Ganapati Ojha	p. 35
Year 4, No. 4	2002, July	An experience of community review process	Nara Bikram Thapa and Prakash Shrestha	P. 36-38
Year 5, No. 5	2003, July	From inquiry to impact: Adding an appreciative dimension to participatory planning monitoring and evaluation	Dr. Malcolm J. O'dell	p. 39-41
Year 6, No. 6	2004, September	A participatory approach to evaluating NGO development impacts on the lives of poor and disadvantaged people: Experiences of NGO/ CBO participatory learning and advisory project NPLAP	Dr. John Cameron	p. 14-17

Year 6, No. 6	2004, September	Food deficit and coping mechanism: Experiences of Mid and Far Western Nepal	Shyam Adhikari Nirmal Phuyal Sangita Shakya	p. 36-40
Year 7, No. 7	2005, December	Breaking the vicious cycle of poverty: Field experience of a poverty reduction project	Shyam Adhikari	p. 18-21
Year 7, No. 7	2005, December	Using appreciative and participatory approaches to evaluation	Narayan P. Bhatta	p. 30-32
Year 7, No. 7	2005, December	Multi-partnership approach in community forestry: A new institutional framework to maximize the impact at the grass-roots	Brahma Dhoj Gurung	p. 33-37
Year 7, No. 7	2005, December	Combating xenophobia and discrimination against Dalits in Nepal- A case of social inclusion	Narbikram Thapa	p. 39-49
Year 8, No. 8	2006, September	Making a difference in the lives of Terai Dalits: a case of Mahottari district	Narbikram Thapa	p. 13-18
Year 8, No. 8	2006, September	Participation of disadvantaged groups in local development: A case of Rupandehi district	Dal Bahadur GC	p. 33-37
Year 8, No. 8	2006, September	Appreciative inquiry for building human capacities and achieving development missions: An innovative approach for the new millennium	Dr. Chandi Chapagain	p. 38-41
Year 9, No. 9	2007, August	The five "L"s: A self assessment tool for measuring NGOs development continuum	Gopal Tamang	p. 12-15
Year 9, No. 9	2007, August	In search of new VDC: Experiences from Dolakha district	Birkha Kranty	p. 32-35
Year 10, No. 10	2008, August	Livelihood security of Dalits: A case of Katunje, Bhaktapur district	Purna Nepali, Kalawati Rai, Mahima Neupane, Samana Adhikari, Shristi Singh	p. 20-24
Year 10, No. 10	2008, August	Mainstreaming Madarsa into formal school system: A case of Banke district	Gopal Tamang	p. 28-31
Year 10, No. 10	2008, August	Struggle against poverty: women reaching the destination (cases from Makwanpur district)	Shree Ram KC	p. 42-44
Year 11, No. 11	2009, August	Multiple perspectives of participation: A case study from Kenya	Hom Nath Gartaula	p. 2-5
Year 11, No. 11	2009, August	Food security in Dailekh: People are surviving with hunger	Narbikram Thapa	p. 6-11

Year 11, No. 11	2009, August	Social exclusion and group mobilisation in Nepal: Examples from Dhanusha district	Prof. Dilli Raj Dahal	p. 12-13
Year 13, No. 12	2011, July	We review and revitalize participation	Gopal Nepali, Yub Raj Guragain	p. 76-80
Year 13, No. 12	2011, July	Turning upside down: Impact of climate change	Kiran Maharjan	p. 81-89
Year 14, No. 13	2012, August	Gender relations and it's impacts on girls' education among Dalit community	Sanju Nepali	p. 29-38
Year 14, No. 13	2012, August	Impact of climate change on food security: A case of Dailekh district	Narbikram Thapa	p. 49-48
Year 14, No. 13	2012, August	Measuring quality education and learning outcomes through EGRA: A learning experience from Kenya	Gopal Tamang	p. 70-79
Year 15, No. 14	2013, August	Re-defining participation beyond Compulsory labour contribution: Lessons from food security projects in Nepal	Prakash Kafle	p. 16-20
Year 15, No. 14	2013, August	Performance-based funding in district development committees of Nepal	Dr. Krishna Babu Joshi	p. 21-28
Year 15, No. 14	2013, August	Evaluation of the community-led solid waste management programme in Lalitpur sub-metropolitan city, Nepal	Dr. Narbikram Thapa	p. 41-54
Year 15, No. 14	2013, August	Mapping health impact of climate change from global to local level: Review of Nepalese health cases	Yashoda Rijal	p. 65-76
Year 16, No. 15	2014, August	Health impact of climate change in Asia	Jhabindra Bhandari	p. 57-61
Year 16, No. 15	2014, August	An evaluation study of food and nutrition project, Dailekh, Nepal	Dr. Narbikram Thapa	p. 62-75

Compiled by: Fatik Thapa & Dibesh Sayami; NEPAN Secretariat.

NEPAN'S KEY
RESEARCH PUBLICATIONS: AT A GLANCE

GENDER SENSITIVE MONITORING AND EVALUATION

OPERATIONAL MANUAL

SNV

September 2005

Towards Secure Ageing

Proceedings of the National Preparation for the Second World Assembly on Ageing

Nepal Participatory Action Network (NEPAN)
Kathmandu, Nepal

The Effectiveness of Non-contributory Social Pension in Nepal

Participatory Research Report

HelpAge International
global network

Nepal Participatory Action Network

May 2011

ODI
Overseas Development Institute

Social protection for informal workers:
Supporting social inclusion in Asia

This three-year multi-country research project seeks to assess the effectiveness and relevance of social protection in tackling social exclusion and promoting social inclusion in Asia. The research has been developed and will be conducted in collaboration with research partners in four countries: Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India and Nepal. It will examine the potential for social protection initiatives to enhance labour market and economic opportunities for socially excluded individuals and improve their access to and utilisation of essential social services, including health and education. It will also explore the extent to which social protection can support individual empowerment and social cohesion in local communities. It will assess various dimensions of social exclusion, such as caste, ethnicity, religion, gender and disability. The project will assess a range of social protection interventions, including health insurance for social excluded in India, youth employment programmes in Afghanistan, and cash transfers in Bangladesh and Nepal.

www.odi.org.uk/spp/socialprotectionforinformalworkers

ODI
Overseas Development Institute

Governance and citizenship from below:
Views of poor and excluded groups and their vision for a New Nepal

Nicola Jones with Binod Bhatta, Gerard Gill, Sara Pantuliano, Hukum Bahadur Singh, Deepak Timsina, Shizu Uppadhaya, and David Walker
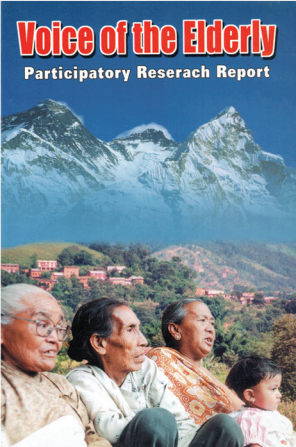
Working Paper 301
Results of ODI research presented in preliminary form for discussion and critical comment

---

SOCIAL EXCLUSION
and
INCLUSION IN NEPAL

Examples from Dalit, Muslim and Indigenous Communities

Nepal Participatory Action Network (NEPAN)
November, 2009

Voice of the Elderly
Participatory Research Report

ODI

How does social protection contribute to social inclusion in Nepal?

Evidence from the Child Grant in the Karnali Region

Abstract

This study uses a social exclusion lens to analyse the effects of Nepal's Child Grant in the Karnali region and tests assumptions about the role social protection can play in contributing to social inclusion and poverty reduction. The study used mixed methods and employed a quasi-experimental impact evaluation. The findings show that in the first three years of implementation, the Child Grant has had only small effects on some indicators of social inclusion, most notably access to a more diversified diet. The research suggests that the impact of the Child Grant is limited by both design and implementation weaknesses.

Shaping policy for development

NEPAN

SOCIAL PROTECTION AND OLDER PEOPLE IN NEPAL

A GOOD PRACTICE MANUAL ON ACTIVE MOBILISATION OF OLDER PEOPLE AS AN ACTIVE AGEING GROUP

HelpAge International
age helps

30 years as a global network

Participation

CONTENTS