The Influence of Socio-economic Variables on Female Labour Force Participation in Kathmandu Valley, Nepal

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ACRONYMS

CBS   Central Bureau of Statistics

FLFPR   Female Labour Force Participation Rate

ILO   International Labour Organization

KV   Kathmandu Valley

LFP   Labour Force Participation

NLFS   Nepal Labour Force Survey

NPHC   National Population and Housing Census

UN   United Nations

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1.   Background of the Study

Nepal, a landlocked country with the area of 147,181 Sq. Km. and the population of about 26.4 million (CBS, 2012) has been facing declining rate of population growth. The female population constitutes more than half of the total population. The population is clearly moving to enjoy "Demographic Dividend" in 2011 from "Young Population" in 2001 with nearly 35 percent under age 15 years and about 57 percent in the 'working age' group. National Population and Housing Census (NPHC) 2011 shows that the working age population in Nepal constitutes significantly higher proportion of female (53.2% female compared to 46.8% male). However, female labour force participation rate is lower (80.1%) than those of males (87.5%).(CBS, 2009)

Nepalese women have enormous potential to contribute to the economic development of the country. In this context, the study of women's participation in the labour force carries a paramount importance to contribute to policy implications for economic growth. Women's participation in labour force is conducive to increased family income and hence, improves women's social status and their empowerment by making them financially sound and independent. Women's empowerment is a key element of the agenda for the development partners to eradicate poverty from the developing countries.

Women of developing countries like Nepal invest a great deal of their time and life in household activities such as cooking, cleaning, washing, fetching water, collecting firewood, child-minding, and caring for the sick and the aged (CBS,1999). These crucial household activities have been conventionally categorized as non-economic activities because women perform these activities without deriving any cash income or cash profit. However, the same activities and services are categorized as economic activities if the women get paid for carrying them out such as by working as domestic helpers in other people's homes. Such non-income earning household activities, performed mostly by women in developing countries like Nepal, are driven largely by social and cultural customs. Although, women in developed countries do a great deal of household work, the time spent on these activities by these women is substantially reduced especially after the invention of time-saving and affordable household devices like washing machine, dish washer, readymade foods. Whereas, in the developing countries, women work longer hours than their male counterparts due to the prevalence of acute poverty and non-affordability of the time-saving such devices, their contributions to the national economy are largely unrecognised and grossly underestimated.

In Nepal, the attempt to incorporate those hidden activities of women in economic activities was made at the Nepal Labour Force Survey 2008/9. Though this survey categorized some of the women's household activities which produce tangible goods (eg. fetching water, collecting firewood) for household consumption as economic activities, it continued to treat other household activities, such as cooking, child-minding, washing, caring for the sick and the aged as non-economic activities.

The present study is about female labour force participation (FLFP) and its differentials according to various social and demographic factors in Kathmandu Valley (KV), Nepal. Kathmandu Valley, with the population of 2.5 million (CBS, 2012) and an

area of 899 square kilometres is situated in the Central Development Region[1]. Kathmandu Valley comprises three districts namely Kathmandu, Lalitpur and Bhaktapur, and is the prime region of economic activities of the country. This study will examine the influence of age, marital status, education and place of residence (urban/rural) on FLFP rate in the valley.

There are three key reasons for choosing Kathmandu Valley as the area of this study. Firstly, the valley constitutes five major cities[2] of economic activities including the capital city Kathmandu Metropolitan. As the capital city, Kathmandu attracts not only the people from all parts of the country with the availability of all the government agencies and basic social services and infrastructures like health services, education, drinking water, communication, transportation, road, housing but also the tourists from around the world with five world heritages within an area covered by 10 kilometres of diameter. Secondly, the valley has a substantial inflow of migrants from within and outside the country particularly from India. With the migration from various ethnic and cultural backgrounds from all parts of the country, Kathmandu Valley symbolizes a miniature of the whole country. Thirdly, there are hardly any studies on FLFP carried out in the valley so far. This study hence is aimed at filling this gap, which will open the door for further studies relating to FLFP in the capital city and its surrounding areas.

2.   Objectives of the Study

The prime objective of this study is to examine the level of labour force participation and work pattern differentials of women in Kathmandu Valley according to various social, economic and demographic factors.
Specifically, the objectives of this study are:
   (a) To investigate the influence of age, marital status and place of residence on labour force participation of women in Kathmandu Valley.
   (b) To investigate the relationship between the levels of education and labour force participation rate of women in Kathmandu Valley.
   (c) To examine whether social and demographic variables influences significantly on women's into labour force in Kathmandu Valley.

3.   Methodology

3.1   Data Source

The main source of data used in this study is the secondary dataset from Nepal Labour Force Survey 2008/9. This is the most appropriate and relevant source of data for this study because of the following reasons:

Firstly, this is the most recent available information on the situation of labour force in Nepal. Secondly, Nepal Labour Force Survey 2008/9 is the second survey carried out in series of this type in Nepal, which followed the current International Labour Organization (ILO) standards of defining work activities based on the United Nations 1993 System of National Accounts (United Nations 1993). Thirdly, this dataset provides a wide range of social and

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[1] Geographically Nepal is divided into five development regions and 75 districts..
[2] The five major cities in the valley constitute Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Bhaktapur, Kirtipur and Madhyapur.

demographic variables, which can be related to the explanation of differentials in FLFP in Kathmandu Valley.

3.2   Concepts and Definitions

The Nepal Labour Force Survey (NLFS) - II 2008/9 strictly followed the definitions of work in line with current ILO standards based on the United Nations 1993 System of National Accounts (United Nations 1993). With the adoption of this system, the boundaries of economic activities were substantially widened to include all the activities of production of goods for own use as economic activities. Consequently, activities such as collecting firewood, fetching water, weaving sweaters for own uses were counted as 'economic activities'. However, the production of household services for own account such as cooking for own family, minding own child (ren), caring for the sick in the family, house cleaning, have been excluded from the concept of work.

This study adopted the definition adopted in 'labour force approach' - working at least one hour last week - to define economically active population. For Kathmandu valley, the sample size consists of more than 3000 households, largely from urban areas. The survey was carried out in the three main seasons namely, rainy season, winter and the dry season to mitigate the effects of seasonal variations in employment.

3.3   Unit of Analysis

This study uses an individual as the unit of analysis. The areal units used in this study are classified into urban and rural according to available information.

3.4   Methods of Analysis

The present study is based on two levels of analysis, namely bivariate and multivariate. In order to examine the simple relationship between the variables, firstly, bivariate analysis based on cross tabulations is used. All variables that are expected to influence the FLFP are cross-classified to investigate the possible relationship between the socio-demographic variables and FLFP in Kathmandu Valley.

The second level of analysis that has been used in this study is multivariate analysis. As the relationship between education, demographic variables and FLFP is complex in nature, multivariate analysis is helpful in investigating the true relationship between one variable and FLFP by controlling for the effects of other variables. This method is utilized to investigate the influence of socio-demographic factors in determining women's entry into labour force in Kathmandu Valley. The statistical method for multivariate analysis used is logistic regression where the dependent variable is the dichotomous and independent or explanatory variables is various socio-demographic variables such as age, marital status, education and place of location.

4.   Relationship Between Socio-Demographic Characteristics and FLFP in KV- Results of a Bi-variate Analysis

This section examines the age pattern of FLFP in Kathmandu Valley, with a view to finding out whether age and sex of a person influences her/his decision to enter and leave the labour force. Also, this section deals with the influence of marital status on the activity rate of women. Likewise, the influence of women's education on their labour force participation rate is also examined. And finally, this section explores the influence of women's education on their labour force participation rate.

4.1   The Age Pattern of FLFP

The age pattern of FLFP varies considerably between countries. The differences in age pattern of FLFP can be attributable to the life-cycle of marriage, average age at first pregnancy, average number of children per woman (Standing 1978). Also, the variation can be related to the changes in economic structure, culture and sex typing of occupations (Jones 1984).

Labour force participation for female of age 15 years and above in KV is significantly lower (50.2%) than the national FLFPR (80.1%). The lower FLFP has been found in all age groups (Figure 4.1.1).

Figure 4.1.1: Age differentials in FLFPR in KV-Nepal, 2008/9
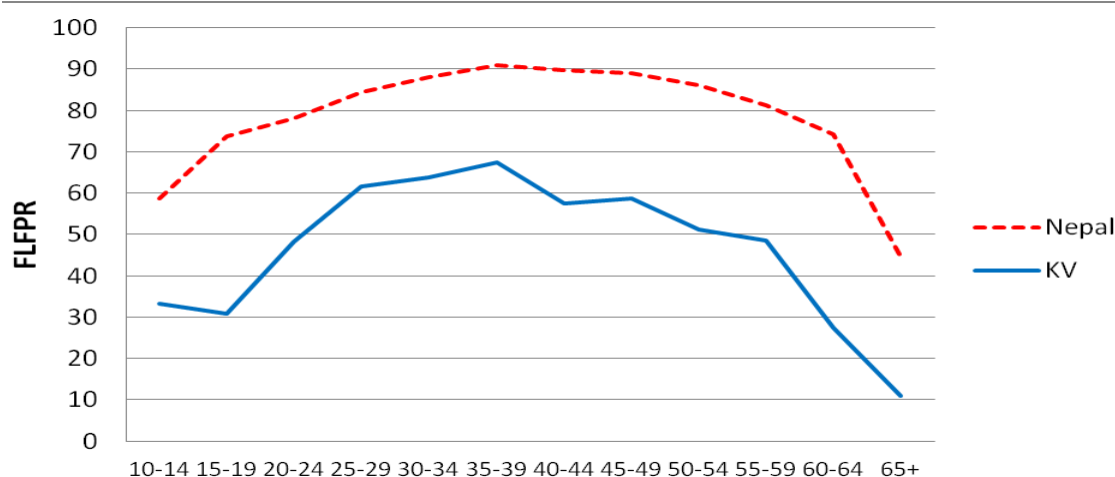
The age pattern of FLFP in KV shows the general shape of an inverted U (Figure 4.1.1). The pattern, which Durand (1975) classified as "Plateau", exhibits the highest participation rate in the age group 35-39. However, in rural areas the peak in the participation rate reaches at the later age groups (Figure 4.3.1).

The rate of women's entry into labour force increases with increasing age, especially after the age group 15-19 years. This age group 15-19 years is crucial for women's entry into labour force because (i) girls usually complete their school education by this age group and, (ii) they get married close to this age group.

The steep increase in FLFP slows down after the age group 25-29 and shows stabilizing tendency. The FLFP hovers around 60 percent and reaches peak at the age 35-39 years. FLFP in the valley deceases after the age group 35-39 and the decrease is steep particularly after the age group 55-59 years which shows the early retirement of the female in the valley. Also, girls' entry into labour force before the completion of their school education is quite lower than the national level. This suggests the possible decrease in girls dropout from school education.

4.2   Gender Differentials in FLFP

Table 4.2.1 demonstrates that not only the proportion but also the size and share of the female labour force are lower than those of males. The gender-gap in labour force participation persists at all ages and the gap widens beyond the age group 15-19 (Figure 4.2.1).

Table 4.2.1: Number, percentage and share of the population 15 years and above by sex and employment status based on activities performed last week, Kathmandu Valley 1998/99

Activity in the Previous Week	Number			Percent			Share	
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
In Labour Force	479,071	331,702	810,772	72.2	50.2	61.2	59.1	40.9
Employed	447,164	301,013	748,177	93.3	90.7	92.3	59.8	40.2
Unemployed	31,907	30,689	62,596	6.7	9.3	7.7	51.0	49.0
Not in the LF	184,042	329,371	513,413	27.8	49.8	38.8	35.8	64.2
Total	663,113	661,073	1,324,185	100	100	100	50.1	49.9

Unemployment rate for female is higher than that of males. Surprisingly, this study shows that half of the working age female population is still out of the labour force. The size of the female population not in labour force is almost 75 percent more than males.

**Figure 4.2.1**: Gender Differentials in LFPR in KV-Nepal, 2008/9
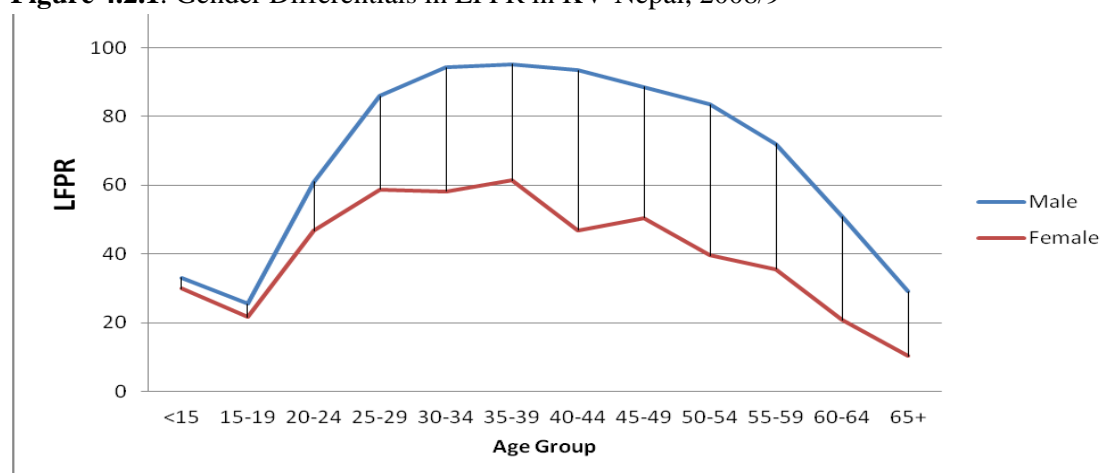
Figures 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 illustrate that the existing gender disparities in LFP in Kathmandu Valley is largely due to the disparities in the urban areas. Also, the figure shows that female in urban KV retires much earlier than females living in rural areas. The gender disparity in LFP in KV is highest in the age group 40-44 years.

Four reasons can be suggested for the prevailing gender discrepancy in activity rates: (i) under the system of the existing patriarchal society, a man's duty, especially after marriage, is to provide financial support to his family, whereas a woman's duty lies in performing household non-economic activities such as cooking, washing clothes, cleaning, caring for the sick and elderly, all of which demand large proportions of their time; (ii) women's relatively lower skill and education, induced largely by the gender discrimination in women's access to education, limit their opportunities for gainful employment in the labour market; (iii) the unavailability of sufficient and affordable childcare services causes a major obstruction to married women with small children to join the labour force, particularly in the urban areas; and (iv) The incompatibility of the labour market and employment structure that discourage women with family and children to join the labour force who want to balance family and work as there are hardly any casual or time flexible jobs suitable for married women. Consequently, larger proportions of women with children are compelled to confine their activities to household non-economic activities.

4.3   Urban-Rural Differentials in FLFP

Figure 4.3.1 illustrates the regional discrepancy in FLFPR in the Kathmandu Valley.

Figure 4.3.1: Rural Urban Differentials in LFPR in Rural KV-Nepal, 2008/9
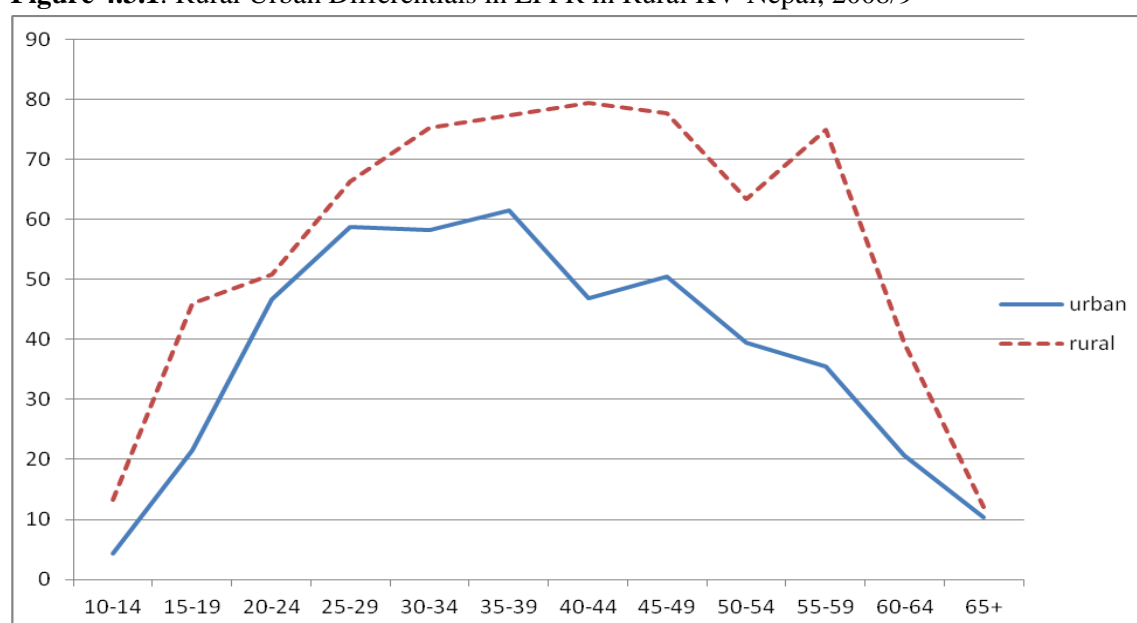
Five distinct features are apparent regarding urban-rural discrimination in FLFPR in the valley: (i) The FLFPR among urban women in the valley is lower than their urban female counterparts in all age groups. (ii) Girl child labour is higher in rural areas than urban areas. (iii) The urban-rural differential in FLFP increases with the increase in the age after the age group 20-24 years. (iv) FLFP in rural area reaches at the peak at an older age group than in urban areas. (v) FLFP in urban area stabilizes around 60% during the age group 20-39 years And, (v) urban women start retiring quite earlier than their rural counterparts.

Various reasons can be attributable to the prevailing urban-rural disparity in FLFP. Firstly, the definition of economic activities (based on SNA 1993) adopted, particularly inclusion of activities "Fetching water" and "Collecting Firewood" as an economic activities, might have increased the FLFP in rural areas as the . Secondly,

4.4   Marital Status and FLFP

It is argued that women's decision of entering the labour force is substantially influenced by the stage of their life cycle. Generally, married women have the lowest activity rates than women in any other marital status in both developing and developed countries (Durand 1975; Youssef 1976). However, in contrast to this general trend, it is observed that LFPR of married women is higher than women in any other marital status in both urban and rural areas of KV (Figure 4.4.1).

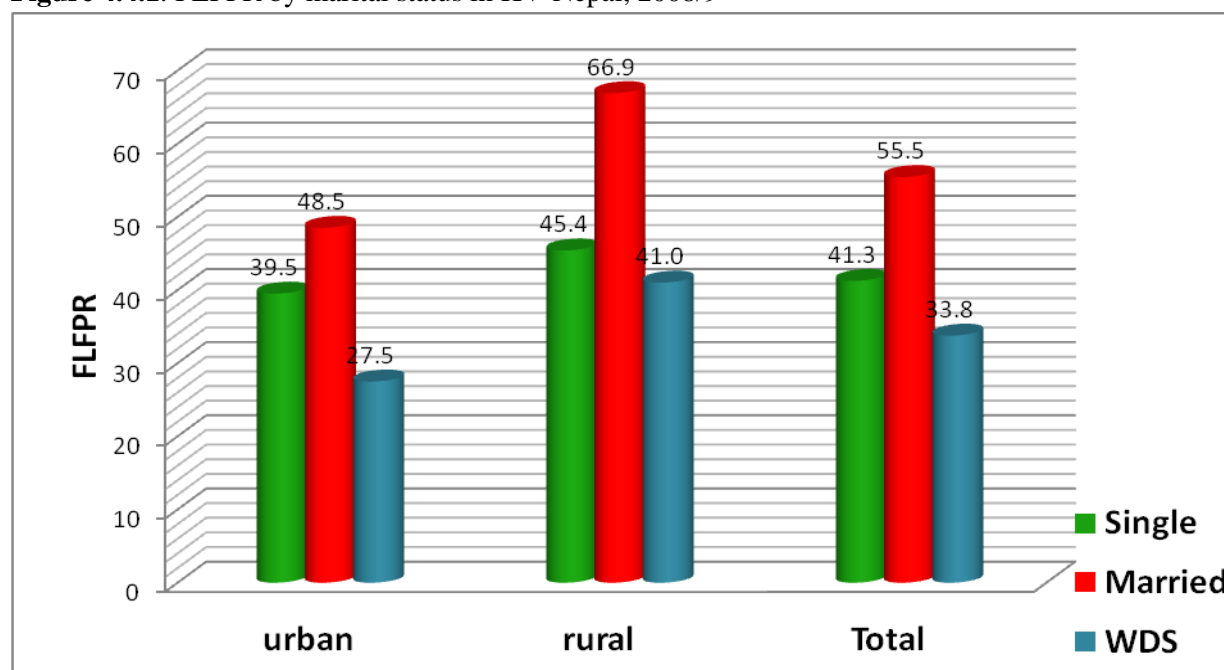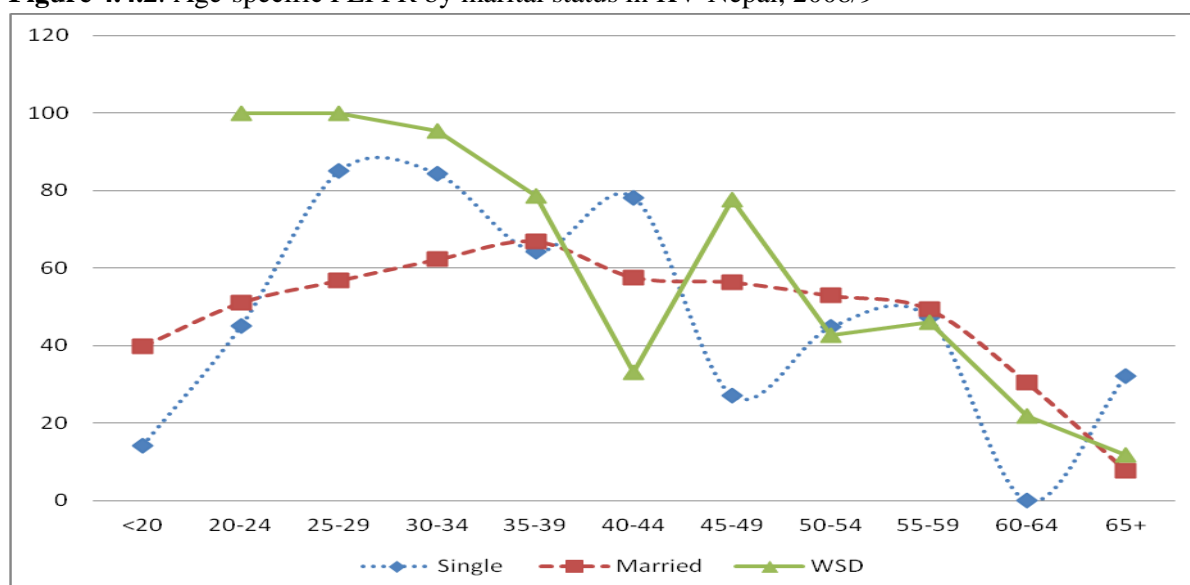**Figure 4.4.1**: FLFPR by marital status in KV-Nepal, 2008/9

Figure 4.4.2: Age-specific FLFPR by marital status in KV-Nepal, 2008/9

Single women especially in developing countries usually live with their parents and hence they are under less economic pressure to join the labour force. This is however not applicable to those single women whose parents have lower socio-economic status. Figure 4.4.2 shows steep increase in FLFP of single women from 20-24 years and reaches first peak at 25-29 years. However, the slower increasing FLFP of married women during this period could be due to the fact that women after having a child spend a large duration of time in child rearing and other household activities. FLFP of married women reaches to the peak during 35-39 years and then gradually decreases thereafter.

4.5   Relationship between Education and FLFP

The role of education in influencing FLFP is complex in nature (Boserup, 1970; Ben-Porath, 1973; Michael, 1973; Tinker, 1976; Cochrane, 1979). In general, education has direct and indirect positive influences on FLFPR. Education directly influences the female participation rate by enhancing the opportunities of employment, increasing both income aspirations and cost of inactivity and mitigating the effect of cultural traditions that confine women's work in domestic activities only (Standing, 1978). Furthermore, education has several indirect positive influences on female labour force participation rate. Firstly, education has a negative effect on actual and expected number of children in a woman's life. Fewer children means more time to invest in economic activities. Secondly, it delays marriage and the start of childbearing. Thirdly, as education is the prime cause of income aspirations and expectations (Standing 1978), it is likely that education can increase the tendency of women to migrate especially from rural to urban areas in search of greater economic activities.

For this study, four educational levels are used - "No Schooling (NS) or Illiterate", "Less than Primary", "Primary and secondary" and "Higher". The proportion of working age women in the respective educational categories are about 67.7, 13.5, 11.2 and 7.5 percent population.

Though the influence of education on FLFP is complex in nature, the general observation is that there is a positive correlation between the two variables. The positive relationship between the education and FLFP can be explained on the basis of the opportunity cost argument, relative employment opportunity and aspiration effect arguments (Standing 1978). However, this study shows a peculiar relationship between education and FLFP in the valley.

Figure 4.5.1: FLFP by education level in KV, Nepal, 2008/9
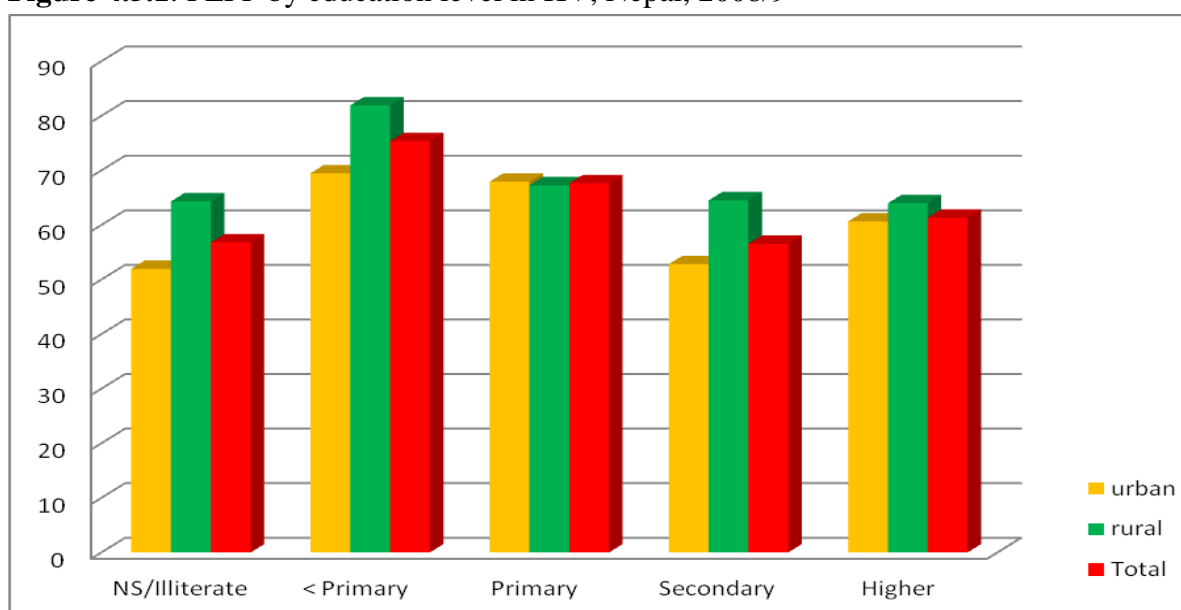
Interestingly, this study reveals that the association between education and female labour force participation rate shows the decreasing LFPR with the increase in the educational level. Female with "less than primary education" achieve the highest activity rate in both the urban and rural areas whereas women with secondary education have the lowest activity rate (Figure 4.5.1).

The higher rate of LFP of women with "less than primary (<Pri)" or "Primary" education is due to their ability for quicker adoption in low skilled works. This study shows that about two-third of the economically active population in this domain (<Prim and Primary) involve in "Subsistence Agriculture" and "Fisheries". In the rural employment structure and also some urban, women with "<Pri" or "Primary" education are most likely to work either in agriculture, service and sales workers, craft and related trades workers, elementary occupation (See Annex) that does not demand higher education.

5. Multivariate Analysis on the Likelihood of Women's Entry into Labour Force

The section attempts to measure the influence of socio-demographic factors on the likelihood of women's entry into labour force. As the relationship between education, demographic variables and FLFP is complex in nature, multivariate analysis will be helpful in investigating the true relationship between one variable and FLFP by controlling the effects of other variables. For example, to examine the influence of education on the likelihood of women's entry into labour force, the effects of demographic variables such as age, marital status and place of residence (urban/rural) may be controlled.

5.1 The Variables

For this study, we use dichotomous dependent variables and apply logistic regression to develop a model, in which the dependent variable, women's labour force status in 2008/9, assumes one of two mutually exclusive values, namely 1 if participating in the labour force and 0 (zero) if not participating in the labour force. The likelihood of these events will be examined on the basis of four social and demographic factors such as age, marital status, education and place of residence. These are also considered to be the explanatory variables in this analysis. A number of dummy categories and reference groups are used for the explanatory variables as follows.

5.1.1 Age
The age group of women is divided into four categories, 10-14, 15-24, 25-44 and 45+. The dummy categories and reference group are set up as below:
10-14 = Dummy categories
Value=1 if women's age is in the age group 10-14, value=0 otherwise.
15-24 = Dummy categories
Value=1 if women's age is in the age group 15-24, value=0 otherwise.
25-44 = Dummy categories
Value=1 if women's age is in the age group 25-44, value=0 otherwise.
45+ = Reference group, dummy categories
Value=1 if women's age is in the age group 45+, value=0 otherwise

5.1.2 Marital Status
Marital status is divided into three categories as single, married and widow/divorced/separated. The dummy categories and reference group are set up as below:
SINGLE = Reference group, Dummy categories
Value = 1 if women is single, value = 0 otherwise.
MARRIED = Dummy categories
Value = 1 if women is married, value = 0 otherwise
WDS = Dummy categories

Value = 1 if women is widow/divorced/separated, value = 0 otherwise.

5.1.3 Education

Education of women is categorized as no schooling (NO SCH), less than primary (<PRI), primary (PRI), secondary (SEC), intermediate (INT) and degree (DEG) based on the number of years in schooling. Girls with completion of not more than four years of schooling are categorized in less than primary (<PRI) whereas women with the completion of five to seven years of schooling is categorized in primary education. The secondary education consists of women with completion of eight to eleven years of schooling. Intermediate and degree group consists of female with the completion of 12-13 years and more than 13 years of education respectively. The dummy categories and reference group are classified as below:

NO SCH = Reference Group, Dummy categories,

Value = 1, if women did not attend the school at all, value = 0 otherwise

<PRI = Dummy categories

Value = 1, if a woman attends the school but did not complete the primary education, value = 0 otherwise.

PRI = Dummy categories

Value = 1 if women completes primary education, value = 0 otherwise.

SEC = Dummy categories

Value = 1 if women complete secondary education, value = 0 otherwise

INT = Dummy categories

Value = 1 if women complete intermediate level, value = 0 otherwise

DEG = Dummy categories

Value = 1 if women completes degree level (14 years and above), value = 0 otherwise

5.1.4 Place of Residence

Place of residence is categorized as rural and urban. The dummy categories and reference group are set up as below:

Rural = Reference group, dummy category

Value = 1, if a woman lives in the rural areas, value = 0 otherwise.

Urban = Dummy category

Value = 1, if a woman lives in the urban areas, value = 0 otherwise.

6. Results of Multivariate Analysis on the Likelihood of Women's Entry into Labour Force

The results of the multivariate analysis using logistic regression are shown in Table 6.1. A model regarding the likelihood of women of age 10 years and above to enter to labour force in Kathmandu Valley is developed. The model indicates that all the socio-demographic factors significantly affect women's decision of entering labour force. The negative or positive sign of the coefficient of regression (B) explains the preferences in the demand side of labour market and, also the women's personal characteristics regarding the entering in labour force. Exp (B) shows the odds ratio which is interpreted as follows: if the odds ratio for a particular category of a variable is greater than 1, then that category positively influences the chances of a woman entering the labour force. If the odds ratio with respect to a particular category of a variable is less than 1 then that category negatively influences the chances of a woman entering the labour force. In another words, if the value of Exp(B) is greater than 1, then that category has positive effect on women's entry into labour force and it has negative effect if the value of Exp(B) is less than 1. The effect of a variable is statistically significant if its probability is less than 0.05 and highly significant if the probability is less than 0.01.

Table 6.1: Likelihood of Women's Entry into Labour Force in Kathmandu Valley 2008/9

Explanatory Variables	Coefficient of Regression (B)	S.E.	P-Value	Exp(B)
AGE				
<19 YEARS			0.0000	
20-39 YEARS	1.266	0.017	0.0000	3.55
40-59 YEARS	2.443	0.014	0.0000	11.51
60+ YEARS	2.009	0.014	0.0000	7.46
MARITAL STATUS				
Single			0.0000	
Married	0.362	0.015	0.0000	1.44
WDS	0.171	0.012	0.0000	1.19
EDUCATION				
No School			0.0000	
< Primary	-0.019	0.010	0.0530	0.98
Primary	-0.455	0.010	0.0000	0.63
Secondary	-0.911	0.008	0.0000	0.40
Intermediate	-1.085	0.011	0.0000	0.34
Degree	-0.785	0.012	0.0000	0.46
PLACE OF RESIDENCE				
Urban	-0.542	0.006	0.0000	0.58
Constant	-1.339	0.013	0.0000	0.26

Source: Analysis based on NLFS 2008/9

Table 6.1 shows the strong impact of age on the likelihood of women's being economically active. The significance of coefficient of regression of age in influencing women's entry into labour force is positive in all the age groups. However the value of coefficient of regression varies with age group.. This implies women in the younger age groups are less likely to be economically active than women in the older age group in Kathmandu Valley. The odds of women's entry into labour force increase by a factor 11.51 for a woman in the age group 40-59.

Also, marital status has a strong influence on the likelihood of women's entry into labour force. There is a positive impact of marital status on women's entry into labour force for both married and Widow/Divorced/Single women. It implies that the likelihood of married and WDS women to be economically active is greter than single women. The most likely reason could be due to the higher concentration of single women in education and household activities such as cooking, cleaning and caring. Further, it could be due to the general practice of single women staying with their parents until their marriage that does not necessitate them to join the work force. Also, because of the prevalence of the universal marriage, most of the single women in the rural areas are in the younger age group who are usually supported by their parents.

Surprisingly, the impact of education on women's entry into labour force is negative in all education levels. The degree of negative impact increases with the increase in the educational level. Women with completed intermediate level in the urban areas are less likely to enter the labour force than women in any other educational level. The likelihood of women without schooling to enter into labour force is the highest compared to women in any other educational groups.

Various reasons can be envisaged: Firstly, it could be due to the high demand of low skilled and cheaper labours in major occupations of EA women such as subsistence agriculture and fisheries, service workers and shop and market sales workers, craft and related trades workers, elementary occupation where education is less likely to influence the women's employment. Secondly, Women without schooling and completed primary or less accounts more than half of the total women population 10 years and above (See Appendix 1.2). Women belonging to this group are generally from the family with low socio-economic status and they could not afford the cost of education and they are compelled to work for their livelihood from their childhood. They are more likely to join the labour force than women with schooling, as these women cannot afford the luxury of being not economically active. Hence it is not because they did not attend the school that they are more likely to be economically active than women in other educational group, rather it is due to the prevailing acute poverty and due to the employment structure and demand of low skilled labours in the labour market. Thirdly, the hypothesis that educated women are more likely to marry husband from family with higher socio-economic status, might worked partially particularly in urban parts of the valley. Two possibilities regarding the employment of educated wives are: (i) Either strive for decent white-collar jobs that suit their social status which demands higher

education and more skills to get employed in highly competitive labour market in the valley (ii) or confine their activities to household non-economic activities which suit with the culturally induced role of an ideal wife.

7. Conclusions

This study shows that FLFP in Kathmandu Valley is significantly lower than the national FLFP. The age specific FLFP in Kathmandu Valley is typified by an inverted U shaped curve with a plateau, which is a common pattern exhibited by many developing countries. However the curve does not show a central peak, but a peak in the age group 35-39 years preceded by a fluctuating pattern at the later ages. This study has revealed a large rural-urban differential in FLFP in the Kathmandu Valley with respect to several factors. First, more women in the rural areas are economically active than in the urban areas. Second, women in the rural areas retire much later than women in the urban areas. The study also shows the prevalence of gender differentials in LFP much higher in the urban areas than in the rural areas.

This study has shown variations in FLFP according to marital status of women. Married women have the highest FLFP followed by single women. Widow/separated/divorced women have the lowest overall FLFP in the valley.

The general finding about the influence of education on labour force participation is that education increases the likelihood of FLFP. However, this study has revealed a different scenario regarding FLFP by level of educational attainment. Women with less than primary education have the highest FLFP followed by women with completed primary and higher education.

The multivariate analysis in the present study indicates some important findings. The influence of socio-demographic variables in this study namely age, marital status and education on FLFP are significant but the degree of relationships varies with variables.

The influence of age of women on the likelihood of women's entry to labour force is generally positively significant. However, female with younger age are less likely to entry in the LF in comparison to the likelihood of women aged 20 years and above. Both married and WDS women are more likely to enter the workforce than single women in Kathmandu Valley. Married women are most likely to be economically active than women in any other marital status. Also, this study shows negative significant association between women's education and their likelihood of entering labour force. This result contradicts with the general findings of positive association between women's education and their chances of being economically active. This study shows that the higher the level of women's education the lower the likelihood of their being economically active.

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8. Annex

1.1: Proportion of EA female Population aged 10 years and above by major occupations in KV, Nepal, 2008/9

SN	Current Occupation	Percent
1	Subsistence agriculture and Fisheries	30.7
2	Service Workers and Shop and Market Sales Workers	20.9
3	Craft and Related Trades Workers	13.6
4	elementary occupation	13.1
5	Technician and Associate Professionals	6.6
6	Professionals	3.8
7	Clerks or Office Assistants	2.8
8	Market Oriented Skilled and Semi-skilled Agricultural and Fishery Workers	1.6
9	Plant and Machine Operators and Assemblers	1.4
10	Legislators, Senior Officials and Managers	1.2
11	Never worked	4.5
	Total	**100**

1.2: Women 10 years and above by educational attainment in KV, Nepal, 2008/9

SN	Educational Attainment	Percent
1	<Primary	12.9
2	Primary	14.2
3	Secondary	29.3
4	Intermediate	9.8
5	Degree or higher	5.2
6	No School	28.5
	Total	100.0

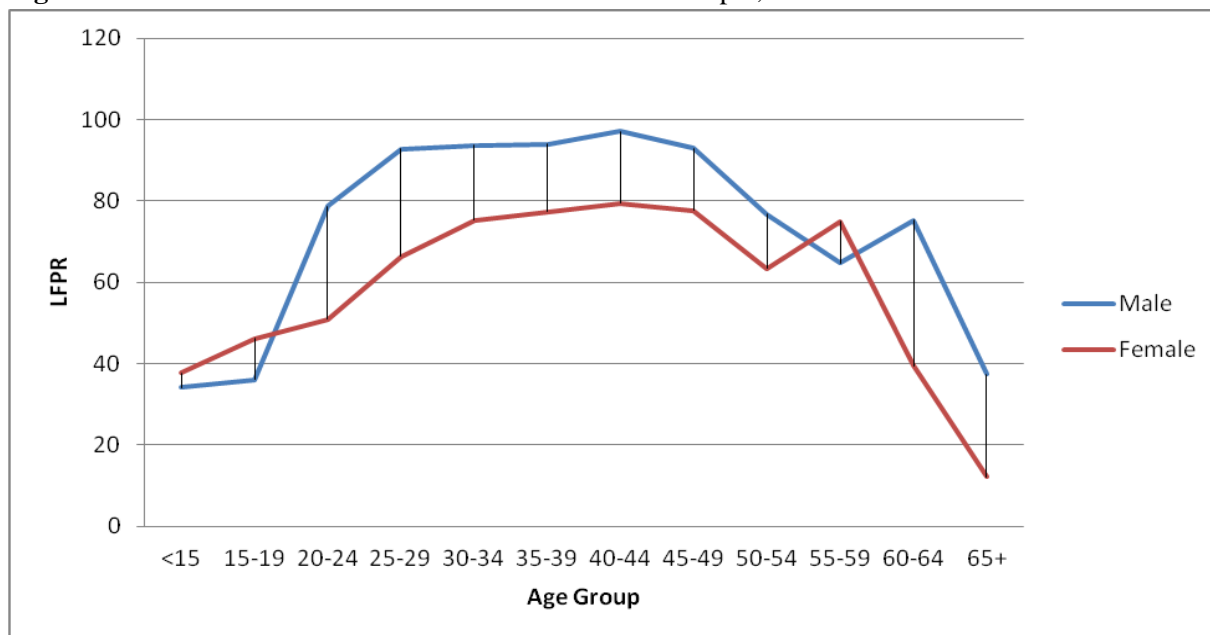**Figure 4.2.2:** Gender Differentials in LFPR in Rural KV-Nepal, 2008/9

Figure 4.2.3: Gender Differentials in LFPR in Urban KV-Nepal, 2008/9